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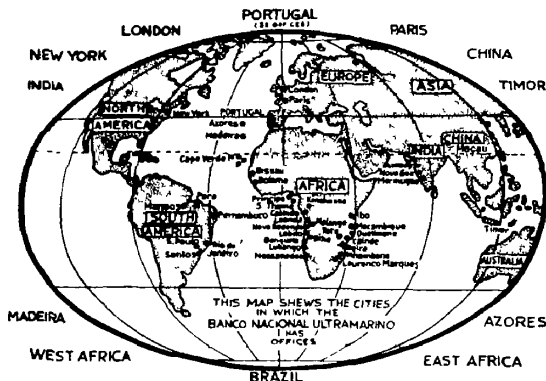
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ESTABLISHED, 1864

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Ahmedabad (City),	Street),	Hathras	Moulmein,	Rajkot
Ahmednagar	Calcut	Hubbli,	Mooltan	(Kathia
Ajmer,	Calcut	Hyderabad	Moradabad	Rangoon,
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Allahabad	Chittagong	Indore	Muzaffarpur,	Saharanpur,
Alleppee,	Cochin	Jaipur,	Murree	Salem
Amrjala,	Coconada,	Jalgaon	Mynkian	Sargodha,
Ambala	Colombator	(East Khandesh)	Mymensingh,	Secunderabad,
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Total Funds „	„ 1,69,38,229

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Capital Paid-up	-	-	-	Yen. 52,500,000
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TWELFTH YEAR OF ISSUE

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CALENDAR FOR 1925.

January.

S	4	11	18	25	...
M	5	12	19	26	...
Tu	6	13	20	27	...
W	7	14	21	28	...
Th	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
F	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
S	...	3	10	17	24	31	...

February

S	...	1	8	15	22
M	...	2	9	16	23
Tu	...	3	10	17	24
W	...	4	11	18	25
Th	...	5	12	19	26
F	...	6	13	20	27
S	...	7	14	21	28

March.

S	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
M	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
Tu	...	3	10	17	24	31	...
W	...	4	11	18	25
Th	...	5	12	19	26
F	...	6	13	20	27
S	...	7	14	21	28

April

S	5	12	19	26	...
M	6	13	20	27	...
Tu	7	14	21	28	...
W	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
Th	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
F	...	3	10	17	24
S	...	4	11	18	25

May

S	3	10	17	24	31
M	4	11	18	25	...
Tu	5	12	19	26	...
W	6	13	20	27	...
Th	7	14	21	28	...
F	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
S	...	2	9	16	23	30	...

June

S	7	14	21	28	...
M	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
Tu	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
W	...	3	10	17	24
Th	...	4	11	18	25
F	...	5	12	19	26
S	...	6	13	20	27

July

S	5	12	19	26	...
M	6	13	20	27	...
Tu	7	14	21	28	...
W	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
Th	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
F	...	3	10	17	24	31	...
S	...	4	11	18	25

August

S	2	9	16	23	30
M	3	10	17	24	31
Tu	4	11	18	25	...
W	5	12	19	26	...
Th	6	13	20	27	...
F	7	14	21	28	...
S	...	1	8	15	22	29	...

September

S	6	13	20	27	...
M	7	14	21	28	...
Tu	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
W	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
Th	...	3	10	17	24
F	...	4	11	18	25
S	...	5	12	19	26

October

S	4	11	18	25	...
M	5	12	19	26	...
Tu	6	13	20	27	...
W	7	14	21	28	...
Th	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
F	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
S	...	3	10	17	24	31	...

November.

S	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
M	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
Tu	...	3	10	17	24
W	...	4	11	18	25
Th	...	5	12	19	26
F	...	6	13	20	27
S	...	7	14	21	28

December

S	6	13	20	27	...
M	7	14	21	28	...
Tu	...	1	8	15	22	29	...
W	...	2	9	16	23	30	...
Th	...	3	10	17	24	31	...
F	...	4	11	18	25
S	...	5	12	19	26

Phases of the Moon—JANUARY 31 Days.

☾ First Quarter . 2nd, 4h. 55 6m. A.M.

☾ Last Quarter . 18th, 5h 3 0m. A.M.

☾ Full Moon . 10th, 8h 17 3m. A.M.

☾ New Moon . 24th, 8h 15 0m. P.M.

☾ First Quarter . 31st, 10h. 13 1m. P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	° ' "
Thursday	1	1	7	12	6	12	0	42	6 14	23 2
Friday	2	2	7	12	6	13	0	42	7 14	22 57
Saturday	3	3	7	13	6	13	0	43	8 14	22 52
Sunday	4	4	7	13	6	14	0	43	9 14	22 46
Monday	5	5	7	13	6	15	0	44	10 14	22 40
Tuesday	6	6	7	13	6	15	0	44	11 14	22 33
Wednesday	7	7	7	14	6	16	0	45	12 14	22 26
Thursday	8	8	7	14	6	17	0	45	13 14	22 18
Friday	9	9	7	14	6	17	0	46	14 14	22 10
Saturday	10	10	7	14	6	18	0	46	15 14	22 1
Sunday	11	11	7	14	6	18	0	46	16 14	21 52
Monday	12	12	7	15	6	19	0	46	17 14	21 43
Tuesday	13	13	7	15	6	20	0	47	18 14	21 35
Wednesday	14	14	7	15	6	21	0	47	19 14	21 26
Thursday	15	15	7	15	6	22	0	48	20 14	21 18
Friday	16	16	7	15	6	22	0	48	21 14	21 1
Saturday	17	17	7	15	6	23	0	48	22 14	20 49
Sunday	18	18	7	15	6	24	0	49	23 14	20 36
Monday	19	19	7	15	6	25	0	49	24 14	20 25
Tuesday	20	20	7	15	6	25	0	49	25 14	20 13
Wednesday	21	21	7	15	6	26	0	50	26 14	20 0
Thursday	22	22	7	15	6	27	0	50	27 14	19 46
Friday	23	23	7	15	6	27	0	50	28 14	19 32
Saturday	24	24	7	15	6	28	0	50	29 14	19 18
Sunday	25	25	7	15	6	29	0	51	0 00	19 4
Monday	26	26	7	15	6	29	0	51	1 09	19 40
Tuesday	27	27	7	14	6	29	0	51	2 09	18 34
Wednesday	28	28	7	14	6	30	0	51	3 09	18 16
Thursday	29	29	7	14	6	30	0	52	4 00	18 2
Friday	30	30	7	14	6	31	0	52	5 09	17 46
Saturday	31	31	7	14	6	31	0	52	6 00	17 30

Phases of the Moon—FEBRUARY 28 Days.

○ Full Moon... 9th, 5h. 19 m. A.M.

● New Moon

23rd, 7h. 42 m. A.M.

☾ Last Quarter 16th, 3h. 11 m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	°
							P	M		
Sunday	1	32	7	13	6	31	0	52	7 69	17 13
Monday	2	33	7	13	6	32	0	53	8 69	16 56
Tuesday	3	34	7	13	6	32	0	53	9 69	16 38
Wednesday	4	35	7	12	6	33	0	53	10 69	16 21
Thursday	5	36	7	12	6	34	0	53	11 69	16 3
Friday	6	37	7	12	6	34	0	52	12 60	15 45
Saturday	7	38	7	11	6	35	0	53	13 69	15 26
Sunday	8	39	7	11	6	35	0	53	14 69	15 7
Monday	9	40	7	10	6	36	0	53	15 69	14 48
Tuesday	10	41	7	10	6	36	0	53	16 69	14 29
Wednesday	11	42	7	10	6	37	0	53	17 69	14 9
Thursday	12	43	7	9	6	37	0	53	18 69	13 50
Friday	13	44	7	9	6	38	0	53	19 69	13 30
Saturday	14	45	7	8	6	38	0	53	20 69	13 10
Sunday	15	46	7	7	6	39	0	53	21 69	12 49
Monday	16	47	7	7	6	39	0	53	22 69	12 29
Tuesday	17	48	7	6	6	40	0	53	23 69	12 8
Wednesday	18	49	7	5	6	40	0	53	24 69	11 47
Thursday	19	50	7	5	6	40	0	53	25 69	11 25
Friday	20	51	7	4	6	41	0	53	26 68	11 4
Saturday	21	52	7	4	6	41	0	53	27 69	10 43
Sunday	22	53	7	3	6	41	0	53	28 69	10 21
Monday	23	54	7	2	6	42	0	52	0 21	9 59
Tuesday	24	55	7	2	6	42	0	52	1 21	9 37
Wednesday	25	56	7	1	6	42	0	52	2 21	9 15
Thursday	26	57	7	1	6	43	0	51	3 21	8 53
Friday	27	58	7	0	6	43	0	51	4 21	8 30
Saturday	28	59	7	0	6	43	0	51	5 21	8 7

Phases of the Moon—MARCH 31 Days.

☾ First Quarter . . 2nd, 5h. 30·6m. P.M.

☾ Last Quarter

17th, 10h. 51 8m. P.M.

☾ Full Moon . . 10th, 7h. 50 8m. A.M.

☾ New Moon

24th, 7h. 32·9m. P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay			Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise A.M.	Sunset P.M.	True Noon.		
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D	° ' "
Sunday	1	60	6 59	6 44	0 51	6 21	7 45
Monday	2	61	6 58	6 45	0 51	7 21	7 22
Tuesday	3	62	6 57	6 45	0 51	8 21	6 59
Wednesday	4	63	6 56	6 45	0 51	9 21	6 36
Thursday	5	64	6 56	6 46	0 51	10 21	6 13
Friday	6	65	6 55	6 46	0 50	11 21	5 50
Saturday	7	66	6 54	6 47	0 50	12 21	5 26
Sunday	8	67	6 53	6 47	0 50	13 21	5 3
Monday	9	68	6 53	6 47	0 50	14 21	4 40
Tuesday	10	69	6 52	6 48	0 49	15 21	4 16
Wednesday	11	70	6 51	6 48	0 49	16 21	3 53
Thursday	12	71	6 50	6 48	0 49	17 21	3 29
Friday	13	72	6 49	6 48	0 49	18 21	3 6
Saturday	14	73	6 49	6 49	0 48	19 21	2 42
Sunday	15	74	6 48	6 49	0 48	20 21	2 18
Monday	16	75	6 47	6 49	0 48	21 21	1 55
Tuesday	17	76	6 46	6 49	0 48	22 21	1 31
Wednesday	18	77	6 45	6 40	0 48	23 21	1 7
Thursday	19	78	6 44	6 50	0 47	24 21	0 44
Friday	20	79	6 43	6 50	0 47	25 21	0 20
Saturday	21	80	6 42	6 50	0 47	26 21	0 4
Sunday	22	81	6 41	6 50	0 46	27 21	0 28
Monday	23	82	6 40	6 51	0 46	28 21	0 51
Tuesday	24	83	6 39	6 51	0 46	29 21	1 15
Wednesday	25	84	6 39	6 51	0 45	0 71	1 39
Thursday	26	85	6 39	6 51	0 45	1 71	2 2
Friday	27	86	6 38	6 51	0 45	2 71	2 26
Saturday	28	87	6 37	6 52	0 45	3 71	2 49
Sunday	29	88	6 36	6 52	0 44	4 71	3 13
Monday	30	89	6 35	6 52	0 44	5 71	3 36
Tuesday	31	90	6 34	6 52	0 44	6 71	3 59

Phases of the Moon—APRIL 30 Days.

☾ First Quarter 1st, 1h. 41 Sm. P.M. ☾ Last Quarter . 18th, 5h. 0 Sm. A.M.
 ○ Full Moon . 9th, 9h. 2 Sm. A.M. ☾ New Moon . 23rd, 7h. 58 Sm. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay			Moon's Age at Noon	Moon's Age at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon.		
			H. M.	H. M.	H. P.M.	D.	H.
Wednesday	1	91	6 33	6 53	0 48	7.71	4 22
Thursday	2	92	6 33	6 53	0 43	8 71	4 46
Friday	3	93	6 32	6 53	0 42	9 71	5 9
Saturday	4	94	6 31	6 54	0 42	10.71	5 32
Sunday	5	95	6 30	6 54	0 42	11 71	5 54
Monday	6	96	6 29	6 54	0 42	12 71	6 17
Tuesday	7	97	6 28	6 54	0 41	13 71	6 40
Wednesday	8	98	6 28	6 54	0 41	14 71	7 2
Thursday	9	99	6 27	6 54	0 41	15 71	7 25
Friday	10	100	6 26	6 55	0 40	16 71	7 47
Saturday	11	101	6 26	6 55	0 40	17 71	8 9
Sunday	12	102	6 24	6 55	0 40	18 71	8 31
Monday	13	103	6 24	6 56	0 40	19 71	8 53
Tuesday	14	104	6 23	6 56	0 39	20 71	9 15
Wednesday	15	105	6 22	6 56	0 39	21 71	9 36
Thursday	16	106	6 21	6 56	0 39	22 71	9 58
Friday	17	107	6 21	6 57	0 38	23 71	10 19
Saturday	18	108	6 20	6 57	0 38	24 71	10 40
Sunday	19	109	6 19	6 57	0 38	25 71	11 1
Monday	20	110	6 19	6 57	0 38	26 71	11 22
Tuesday	21	111	6 18	6 57	0 38	27 71	11 42
Wednesday	22	112	6 17	6 58	0 37	28 71	12 3
Thursday	23	113	6 16	6 58	0 37	0 30	12 23
Friday	24	114	6 15	6 58	0 37	1.20	12 43
Saturday	25	115	6 14	6 59	0 37	2 30	13 3
Sunday	26	116	6 14	6 59	0 37	3 30	13 22
Monday	27	117	6 13	6 59	0 36	4 30	13 42
Tuesday	28	118	6 13	7 0	0 36	5 30	14 1
Wednesday	29	119	6 12	7 0	0 36	6 30	14 20
Thursday	30	120	6 12	7 0	0 36	7 30	14 38

Phases of the Moon—MAY 31 Days.

☾ First Quarter	1st, 8h. 49 8m. A.M.	☾ Last Quarter	18th, 11h. 15 8m. A.M.
☾ New Moon		☾ New Moon	22nd, 9h. 16 2m. P.M.
☾ Full Moon	8th, 7h. 12 8m. P.M.	☾ First Quarter	31st, 1h. 34 4m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M.	D°	N.
Friday	1	121	6	11	7	1	0	36	8 20	14 57
Saturday	2	122	6	11	7	1	0	36	9 20	15 15
Sunday	3	123	6	10	7	1	0	36	10 20	15 33
Monday	4	124	6	10	7	2	0	35	11 20	15 50
Tuesday	5	125	6	9	7	2	0	35	12 20	16 8
Wednesday	6	126	6	9	7	2	0	35	13 20	16 25
Thursday	7	127	6	8	7	3	0	35	14 20	16 41
Friday	8	128	6	8	7	3	0	35	15 20	16 58
Saturday	9	129	6	7	7	3	0	35	16 20	17 14
Sunday	10	130	6	7	7	4	0	35	17 20	17 30
Monday	11	131	6	6	7	4	0	35	18 20	17 46
Tuesday	12	132	6	6	7	4	0	35	19 20	18 1
Wednesday	13	133	6	5	7	5	0	35	20 20	18 16
Thursday	14	134	6	5	7	5	0	35	21 20	18 31
Friday	15	135	6	5	7	5	0	35	22 20	18 46
Saturday	16	136	6	4	7	6	0	35	23 20	19 0
Sunday	17	137	6	4	7	6	0	35	24 20	19 14
Monday	18	138	6	4	7	6	0	35	25 20	19 27
Tuesday	19	139	6	3	7	7	0	35	26 20	19 40
Wednesday	20	140	6	3	7	7	0	35	27 20	19 53
Thursday	21	141	6	3	7	7	0	35	28 20	20 6
Friday	22	142	6	2	7	8	0	35	29 20	20 18
Saturday	23	143	6	2	7	8	0	35	0 64	20 30
Sunday	24	144	6	2	7	9	0	35	1 64	20 41
Monday	25	145	6	2	7	9	0	36	2 64	20 52
Tuesday	26	146	6	2	7	9	0	36	3 64	21 3
Wednesday	27	147	6	2	7	10	0	36	4 64	21 13
Thursday	28	148	6	1	7	10	0	36	5 64	21 23
Friday	29	149	6	1	7	11	0	36	6 64	21 33
Saturday	30	150	6	1	7	11	0	36	7 64	21 42
Sunday	31	151	6	1	7	12	0	36	8 64	21 51

Phases of the Moon—JUNE 30 Days.

○ Full Moon . 7th, 8h. 17 m. A.M.

● New Moon . 21st, 11h. 46 m. A.M.

☾ Last Quarter . 13th, 6h. 13 m. P.M.

☽ First Quarter . 29th, 8h. 23 m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the Latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon			
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.	N.
Monday	1	152	6	1	7	12	0	36	9 64	22 0
Tuesday	2	163	6	1	7	12	0	36	10 64	22 8
Wednesday	3	154	6	1	7	13	0	37	11 64	22 16
Thursday	4	166	6	1	7	13	0	37	12 64	22 23
Friday	5	156	6	1	7	14	0	37	13 64	22 30
Saturday	6	157	6	1	7	14	0	37	14 64	22 36
Sunday	7	168	6	1	7	14	0	37	15 64	22 43
Monday	8	169	6	1	7	15	0	37	16 64	22 48
Tuesday	9	160	6	1	7	15	0	38	17 64	22 51
Wednesday	10	161	6	1	7	15	0	38	18 64	22 59
Thursday	11	162	6	1	7	16	0	38	19 64	23 3
Friday	12	163	6	1	7	16	0	38	20 64	23 8
Saturday	13	164	6	1	7	16	0	38	21 64	23 11
Sunday	14	165	6	1	7	17	0	39	22 64	23 15
Monday	15	166	6	1	7	17	0	39	23 64	23 18
Tuesday	16	167	6	1	7	17	0	39	24 64	23 20
Wednesday	17	168	6	1	7	17	0	39	25 64	23 22
Thursday	18	169	6	2	7	18	0	39	26 64	23 24
Friday	19	170	6	2	7	18	0	40	27 64	23 25
Saturday	20	171	6	2	7	18	0	40	28 64	23 26
Sunday	21	172	6	2	7	18	0	40	0 04	23 27
Monday	22	173	6	3	7	19	0	40	1 04	23 27
Tuesday	23	174	6	3	7	19	0	40	2 04	23 26
Wednesday	24	175	6	3	7	19	0	41	3 04	23 26
Thursday	25	176	6	3	7	19	0	41	4 04	23 24
Friday	26	177	6	3	7	19	0	41	5 04	23 23
Saturday	27	178	6	4	7	19	0	41	6 04	23 21
Sunday	28	179	6	4	7	20	0	42	7 04	23 18
Monday	29	180	6	4	7	20	0	42	8 04	23 16
Tuesday	30	181	6	5	7	20	0	42	9 04	23 12

○ Full Moon 6th, 10h. 23 8m A.M.

● New Moon 21st, 3h. 9^m 5m A.M.

☾ Last Quarter 13th, 3h. 4 0m A.M.

☽ First Quarter .. 29th, 1h. 53 8m A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the Latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		Time Noon.			
			H	M.	H	M.	H	M	D	N.
Wednesday	1	182	6	5	7	20	0	42	10 04	23 9
Thursday	2	183	6	5	7	20	0	42	11 04	23 5
Friday	3	184	6	6	7	20	0	43	12 04	23 0
Saturday	4	185	6	6	7	20	0	43	13 04	22 56
Sunday	5	186	6	6	7	20	0	43	14 04	22 50
Monday	6	187	6	7	7	20	0	43	15 04	22 45
Tuesday	7	188	6	7	7	20	0	43	16 01	22 39
Wednesday	8	189	6	7	7	20	0	43	17 04	22 32
Thursday	9	190	6	8	7	20	0	44	18 04	22 25
Friday	10	191	6	8	7	20	0	44	19 04	22 18
Saturday	11	192	6	8	7	20	0	44	20 04	22 11
Sunday	12	193	6	8	7	20	0	44	21 04	22 3
Monday	13	194	6	9	7	20	0	44	22 04	21 54
Tuesday	14	195	6	9	7	20	0	44	23 04	21 46
Wednesday	15	196	6	9	7	19	0	44	24 04	21 36
Thursday	16	197	6	10	7	19	0	44	25 04	21 27
Friday	17	198	6	10	7	19	0	45	26 04	21 17
Saturday	18	199	6	10	7	19	0	45	27 04	21 7
Sunday	19	200	6	11	7	19	0	45	28 04	20 56
Monday	20	201	6	11	7	18	0	45	29 04	20 46
Tuesday	21	202	6	12	7	18	0	45	0 40	20 34
Wednesday	22	203	6	12	7	18	0	45	1 40	20 23
Thursday	23	204	6	12	7	18	0	45	2 40	20 12
Friday	24	205	6	13	7	17	0	45	3 40	19 58
Saturday	25	206	6	13	7	17	0	45	4 40	19 46
Sunday	26	207	6	13	7	17	0	45	5 40	19 33
Monday	27	208	6	14	7	17	0	45	6 40	19 20
Tuesday	28	209	6	14	7	16	0	45	7 40	19 6
Wednesday	29	210	6	14	7	16	0	45	8 40	18 52
Thursday	30	211	6	14	7	16	0	45	9 40	18 38
Friday	31	212	6	15	7	15	0	45	10 40	18 23

Phases of the Moon—AUGUST 31 Days.

☉ Full Moon 4th, 5h. 29 0m P.M. ☾ New Moon . 10th, 5h. 44 7m P.M.
 ☾ Last Quarter 11th, 5h. 40 7m P.M. ☽ First Quarter .. 27th, 10h. 16 1m A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the Latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	N
Saturday	1	213	6	15	7	15	0	45	11 40	18 9
Sunday	2	214	6	15	7	14	0	45	12 40	17 54
Monday	3	215	6	16	7	14	0	45	13 40	17 38
Tuesday	4	216	6	16	7	13	0	45	14 40	17 22
Wednesday	5	217	6	16	7	13	0	45	15 40	17 6
Thursday	6	218	6	17	7	12	0	44	16 40	16 50
Friday	7	219	6	17	7	12	0	44	17 40	16 34
Saturday	8	220	6	17	7	11	0	44	18 40	16 7
Sunday	9	221	6	18	7	11	0	44	19 40	16 9
Monday	10	222	6	18	7	10	0	44	20 40	15 42
Tuesday	11	223	6	18	7	9	0	44	21 40	15 25
Wednesday	12	224	6	19	7	9	0	44	22 40	15 7
Thursday	13	225	6	19	7	8	0	44	23 40	14 49
Friday	14	226	6	19	7	8	0	43	24 40	14 31
Saturday	15	227	6	20	7	7	0	43	25 40	14 12
Sunday	16	228	6	20	7	6	0	43	26 40	13 54
Monday	17	229	6	20	7	6	0	43	27 40	13 35
Tuesday	18	230	6	20	7	5	0	43	28 40	13 15
Wednesday	19	231	6	21	7	4	0	42	29 40	12 56
Thursday	20	232	6	21	7	4	0	42	0 75	12 36
Friday	21	233	6	21	7	3	0	42	1 75	12 17
Saturday	22	234	6	21	7	2	0	42	2 75	11 57
Sunday	23	235	6	21	7	1	0	42	3 75	11 36
Monday	24	236	6	22	7	1	0	41	4 75	11 16
Tuesday	25	237	6	22	7	0	0	41	5 75	10 56
Wednesday	26	238	6	22	6	59	0	40	6 75	10 35
Thursday	27	239	6	22	6	59	0	40	7 75	10 14
Friday	28	240	6	23	6	58	0	40	8 75	9 52
Saturday	29	241	6	23	6	57	0	40	9 75	9 32
Sunday	30	242	6	23	6	56	0	39	10 75	9 10
Monday	31	243	6	23	6	55	0	39	11 75	8 59

Phases of the Moon—SEPTEMBER 30 Days.

○ Full Moon. 3rd, 1h 23 0m. A.M.

● New Moon

18th, 9h. 42 4m. A.M.

☾ Last Quarter 10th, 5h 41 6m A.M.

☾ First Quarter

25th, 5h. 20 8m P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	N
Tuesday	1	244	6	23	6	55	0	39	12 75	8 27
Wednesday	2	245	6	24	6	54	0	39	13 75	8 6
Thursday	3	246	6	24	6	53	0	38	14 75	7 44
Friday	4	247	6	24	6	52	0	38	15 75	7 22
Saturday	5	248	6	24	6	51	0	38	16 75	6 59
Sunday	6	249	6	24	6	50	0	37	17 75	6 37
Monday	7	250	6	25	6	50	0	37	18 75	6 15
Tuesday	8	251	6	25	6	49	0	37	19 75	5 52
Wednesday	9	252	6	25	6	48	0	36	20 75	5 30.
Thursday	10	253	6	25	6	47	0	36	21 75	5 7
Friday	11	254	6	25	6	46	0	36	22 75	4 44
Saturday	12	255	6	25	6	45	0	35	23 75	4 21
Sunday	13	256	6	26	6	44	0	35	24 75	3 59
Monday	14	257	6	26	6	43	0	35	25 75	3 36
Tuesday	15	258	6	26	6	43	0	34	26 75	3 13
Wednesday	16	259	6	26	6	42	0	34	27 75	2 49
Thursday	17	260	6	26	6	41	0	33	28 75	2 26
Friday	18	261	6	27	6	40	0	33	0 12	1 58
Saturday	19	262	6	27	6	39	0	33	1 12	1 40
Sunday	20	263	6	27	6	38	0	32	2 12	1 16
Monday	21	264	6	27	6	37	0	32	3 12	0 53
Tuesday	22	265	6	27	6	36	0	32	4 12	0 30
Wednesday	23	266	6	27	6	36	0	31	5 12	0 6
Thursday	24	267	6	28	6	35	0	31	6 12	0 17
Friday	25	268	6	28	6	34	0	31	7 12	0 40
Saturday	26	269	6	28	6	33	0	30	8 12	1 4
Sunday	27	270	6	28	6	32	0	30	9 12	1 27
Monday	28	271	6	28	6	31	0	30	10 12	1 51
Tuesday	29	272	6	29	6	30	0	29	11 12	2 14
Wednesday	30	273	6	29	6	29	0	29	12 12	2 37

Phases of the Moon—OCTOBER 31 Days.

○ Full Moon	21st, 10h. 52 8m. A.M.	● New Moon	17th, 11h 35 7m P.M
☾ Last Quarter	10th, 0h. 4 0m. A.M.	☾ First Quarter	25th, 0h 7 8m. A.M
		● Full Moon	31st, 10h 46 6m. P.M

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay			Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon.		
Thursday	1	274	H. M. 6 29	H. M. 6 29	H. M. 0 28	D 13 12	S. 1
Friday	2	275	6 29	6 28	0 28	14 12	3 24
Saturday	3	276	6 29	6 27	0 28	15 12	3 47
Sunday	4	277	6 30	6 26	0 28	16 12	4 10
Monday	5	278	6 30	6 25	0 27	17 12	4 33
Tuesday	6	279	6 30	6 24	0 27	18 12	4 57
Wednesday	7	280	6 30	6 24	0 27	19 12	5 20
Thursday	8	281	6 30	6 23	0 27	20 12	5 43
Friday	9	282	6 31	6 22	0 26	21 12	6 5
Saturday	10	283	6 31	6 21	0 26	22 12	6 28
Sunday	11	284	6 31	6 20	0 26	23 12	6 51
Monday	12	285	6 31	6 19	0 25	24 12	7 14
Tuesday	13	286	6 32	6 19	0 25	25 12	7 36
Wednesday	14	287	6 32	6 18	0 25	26 12	7 59
Thursday	15	288	6 33	6 17	0 25	27 12	8 21
Friday	16	289	6 33	6 16	0 25	28 12	8 43
Saturday	17	290	6 33	6 16	0 24	29 12	9 5
Sunday	18	291	6 34	6 15	0 24	0 55	9 27
Monday	19	292	6 34	6 14	0 24	1 55	9 49
Tuesday	20	293	6 34	6 14	0 24	2 55	10 11
Wednesday	21	294	6 34	6 13	0 24	3 55	10 32
Thursday	22	295	6 35	6 12	0 23	4 55	10 54
Friday	23	296	6 35	6 12	0 23	5 55	11 15
Saturday	24	297	6 36	6 11	0 23	6 55	11 36
Sunday	25	298	6 36	6 10	0 23	7 55	11 57
Monday	26	299	6 36	6 10	0 23	8 55	12 18
Tuesday	27	300	6 37	6 9	0 23	9 55	12 38
Wednesday	28	301	6 37	6 9	0 23	10 55	12 58
Thursday	29	302	6 37	6 8	0 23	11 55	13 18
Friday	30	303	6 37	6 7	0 23	12 55	13 38
Saturday	31	304	6 38	6 7	0 23	13 55	13 58

Phases of the Moon—NOVEMBER 30 Days.

☾ Last Quarter 8th, 8h 43 1m. P.M. ☽ First Quarter ... 23rd, 7h. 25 5m. A.M.
 ☾ New Moon . . . 16th, 0h. 27 7m P.M. ☾ Full Moon 30th, 1h 41 1m P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	S.
Sunday	1	305	6	39	6	6	0	22	14 05	14 18
Monday	2	306	6	39	6	6	0	22	15 55	14 37
Tuesday	3	307	6	39	6	5	0	22	16 55	14 56
Wednesday	4	308	6	40	6	5	0	22	17 55	15 14
Thursday	5	309	6	40	6	4	0	22	18 55	15 33
Friday	6	310	6	41	6	4	0	22	19 55	15 51
Saturday	7	311	6	41	6	4	0	22	20 55	16 9
Sunday	8	312	6	42	6	4	0	22	21 55	16 27
Monday	9	313	6	42	6	4	0	23	22 55	16 44
Tuesday	10	314	6	43	6	3	0	23	23 55	17 1
Wednesday	11	315	6	43	6	3	0	23	24 55	17 18
Thursday	12	316	6	44	6	3	0	23	25 55	17 35
Friday	13	317	6	44	6	2	0	23	26 55	17 51
Saturday	14	318	6	45	6	2	0	23	27 55	18 7
Sunday	15	319	6	45	6	1	0	23	28 55	18 23
Monday	16	320	6	46	6	1	0	23	0 01	18 38
Tuesday	17	321	6	46	6	1	0	23	1 01	18 53
Wednesday	18	322	6	47	6	1	0	23	2 01	19 8
Thursday	19	323	6	48	6	0	0	24	3 01	19 22
Friday	20	324	6	48	6	0	0	24	4 01	19 36
Saturday	21	325	6	49	6	0	0	24	5 01	19 49
Sunday	22	326	6	49	6	0	0	24	6 01	20 3
Monday	23	327	6	50	6	0	0	25	7 01	20 16
Tuesday	24	328	6	51	6	0	0	25	8 01	20 28
Wednesday	25	329	6	51	6	0	0	25	9 01	20 40
Thursday	26	330	6	52	6	0	0	25	10 01	20 52
Friday	27	331	6	52	6	0	0	26	11 01	21 3
Saturday	28	332	6	53	6	0	0	26	12 01	21 14
Sunday	29	333	6	54	6	0	0	26	13 01	21 25
Monday	30	334	6	54	6	0	0	27	14 01	21 35

Phases of the Moon—DECEMBER 31 Days.

◀ Last Quarter ... 24h, 5h, 45m. P.M.

▶ First Quarter .. 22nd, 4h 38 4m. P.M.

☾ New Moon . . . 10th, 0h 34 9m. A.M.

☾ Full Moon . . . 30th, 7h 31 4m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Mean Time in the Latitude of Bombay						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon.			
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.	°
Tuesday	1	335	6	55	6	0	0	^P _M 28	15 01	21 45
Wednesday	2	336	6	55	6	0	0	28	16 01	21 54
Thursday	3	337	6	56	6	0	0	28	17 01	22 3
Friday	4	338	6	57	6	0	0	29	18 01	22 11
Saturday	5	339	6	57	6	0	0	29	19 01	22 19
Sunday	6	340	6	58	6	1	0	30	20 01	22 27
Monday	7	341	6	59	6	1	0	30	21 01	22 34
Tuesday	8	342	6	59	6	1	0	30	22 01	22 41
Wednesday	9	343	7	0	6	1	0	31	23 01	22 47
Thursday	10	344	7	0	6	2	0	31	24 01	22 53
Friday	11	345	7	1	6	2	0	32	25 01	22 58
Saturday	12	346	7	2	6	2	0	32	26 01	23 3
Sunday	13	347	7	2	6	3	0	32	27 01	23 8
Monday	14	348	7	3	6	3	0	33	28 01	23 12
Tuesday	15	349	7	3	6	3	0	34	29 01	23 15
Wednesday	16	350	7	4	6	4	0	35	0 50	23 18
Thursday	17	351	7	4	6	4	0	35	1 50	23 21
Friday	18	352	7	5	6	5	0	36	2 50	23 23
Saturday	19	353	7	5	6	5	0	36	3 50	23 25
Sunday	20	354	7	6	6	6	0	37	4 50	23 27
Monday	21	355	7	7	6	6	0	37	5 50	23 27
Tuesday	22	356	7	7	6	6	0	38	6 50	23 27
Wednesday	23	357	7	8	6	7	0	38	7 50	23 26
Thursday	24	358	7	8	6	7	0	39	8 50	23 26
Friday	25	359	7	9	6	8	0	39	9 50	23 25
Saturday	26	360	7	9	6	9	0	40	10 50	23 23
Sunday	27	361	7	10	6	9	0	40	11 50	23 21
Monday	28	362	7	10	6	10	0	41	12 50	23 19
Tuesday	29	363	7	11	6	10	0	41	13 50	23 16
Wednesday	30	364	7	11	6	11	0	41	14 50	23 12
Thursday	31	365	7	11	6	11	0	42	15 50	23 8

CALENDAR FOR 1926.

January

S.	...	3	10	17	24	31
M.	...	4	11	18	25	...
Tu.	...	5	12	19	26	...
W.	...	6	13	20	27	...
Th.	...	7	14	21	28	...
F.	...	1	8	15	22	29
S.	...	2	9	16	23	30

February

S.	...	7	14	21	28	...
M.	...	1	8	15	22	...
Tu.	...	2	9	16	23	...
W.	...	3	10	17	24	...
Th.	...	4	11	18	25	...
F.	...	5	12	19	26	...
S.	...	6	13	20	27	...

March.

S.	...	7	14	21	28	...
M.	...	1	8	15	22	29
Tu.	...	2	9	16	23	30
W.	...	3	10	17	24	31
Th.	...	4	11	18	25	...
F.	...	5	12	19	26	...
S.	...	6	13	20	27	...

April.

S.	...	4	11	18	25	...
M.	...	5	12	19	26	...
Tu.	...	6	13	20	27	...
W.	...	7	14	21	28	...
Th.	...	1	8	15	22	29
F.	...	2	9	16	23	30
S.	...	3	10	17	24	...

May.

S.	...	2	9	16	23	30
M.	...	3	10	17	24	31
Tu.	...	4	11	18	25	...
W.	...	5	12	19	26	...
Th.	...	6	13	20	27	...
F.	...	7	14	21	28	...
S.	...	1	8	15	22	29

June.

S.	...	6	13	20	27	...
M.	...	7	14	21	28	...
Tu.	...	1	8	15	22	29
W.	...	2	9	16	23	30
Th.	...	3	10	17	24	...
F.	...	4	11	18	25	...
S.	...	5	12	19	26	...

July

S.	...	4	11	18	25	...
M.	...	5	12	19	26	...
Tu.	...	6	13	20	27	...
W.	...	7	14	21	28	...
Th.	...	1	8	15	22	29
F.	...	2	9	16	23	30
S.	...	3	10	17	24	31

August

S.	...	1	8	15	22	29
M.	...	2	9	16	23	30
Tu.	...	3	10	17	24	31
W.	...	4	11	18	25	...
Th.	...	5	12	19	26	...
F.	...	6	13	20	27	...
S.	...	7	14	21	28	...

September

S.	...	5	12	19	26	...
M.	...	6	13	20	27	...
Tu.	...	7	14	21	28	...
W.	...	1	8	15	22	29
Th.	...	2	9	16	23	30
F.	...	3	10	17	24	...
S.	...	4	11	18	25	...

October.

S.	...	3	10	17	24	31
M.	...	4	11	18	25	...
Tu.	...	5	12	19	26	...
W.	...	6	13	20	27	...
Th.	...	7	14	21	28	...
F.	...	1	8	15	22	29
S.	...	2	9	16	23	30

November.

S.	...	7	14	21	28	...
M.	...	1	8	15	22	29
Tu.	...	2	9	16	23	30
W.	...	3	10	17	24	...
Th.	...	4	11	18	25	...
F.	...	5	12	19	26	...
S.	...	6	13	20	27	...

December.

S.	...	5	12	19	26	...
M.	...	6	13	20	27	...
Tu.	...	7	14	21	28	...
W.	...	1	8	15	22	29
Th.	...	2	9	16	23	30
F.	...	3	10	17	24	31
S.	...	4	11	18	25	...

Preface to the XII Annual Volume
OF THE
INDIAN YEAR BOOK, 1925.

THE Editors have to thank many correspondents who during the past year have sent them suggestions for the improvement of this book. The Indian Year Book is intended above all to be a book of reference, and its completeness and convenience of arrangement must necessarily depend to a great extent on the part taken in its editing by the members of the public who most use it.

A good many changes in and additions to this volume have been made. There has in particular been a re-arrangement of the contents so that the main sections of the book are now presented in a more logical order and a more comprehensive form than before. In one respect in particular it has been possible to bring this work up to date, for the publication during the past year of the report on the Census of India 1921 has enabled the Editors to complete the revision of the important section dealing with the peoples of India. But the chief, and it is to be hoped the most welcome, change in connection with the book is really the earlier date of publication. As has been explained in previous editions, publication has been delayed owing to the belated appearance of various Government reports. The Editors have now decided not to wait for those reports but, with the much appreciated co-operation of various officials, to present the most up-to-date statistics that are obtainable.

Suggestions for the improvement or correction of the Year Book may be sent to the Editors at any time, but those which reach them before October have a better chance of being adopted than later suggestions which only reach them after the work of revision has been partly completed.

The Times of India, Bombay,
December 1924.

An Indian Glossary.

AKKARI.—Excess of liquors and drugs.
AKHUR.—A corruption of the English "officer".
AKLUWALLA.—Name of a princely family resident at the village of Ahlu, near Lahore.
AKIN.—A timber tree *Terminalia tomentosa*.
AKALI.—Originally, a Sikh devotee, one of a band founded by Guru Govind Singh (who died 1708) now, a member of the politico-religious army (*dal*) of reforming Sikhs.
AKHUNDZADA.—Son of a Head Officer.
AKHARA.—A Hindu school of gymnastics.
ALIJAR (Sindhi).—Of exalted rank.
ALIGHOL.—Literally a Mohammedan circle. A kind of athletic club formed for purposes of self defence.
ALI RAJA.—Sea King (Laccadives).
AMIL.—A name given in Sind to educated members of the Lohana community, a Hindu caste consisting principally of bankers, clerks and minor officials.
AMIR (corruptly *RMIR*).—A Mohammedan Chief often also a personal name.
AMROUT.—A dam or weir across a river for irrigation purposes, Southern India.
ANJUMAN.—A communal gathering of Mahomedans.
APHUS.—Believed to be a corruption of ALPHONSE, the name of the best variety of Bombay mango.
ASAF.—A minister.
ATIS.—The early rice crop, Bengal, syn Ahu, Assam.
AVATAR.—An incarnation of Vishnu.
BABA.—Lit. Father a respectful Mr Irish "Your Honour".
BABU.—(1) A gentleman in Bengal, corresponding to Pant in the Deccan and Konkani (2) Hence used by Anglo-Indians of a clerk or accountant. Strictly a fifth or still younger son of a Raja but often used of any son younger than the heir whilst it has also grown into a term of address—Esquire. There are, however, one or two Rajas whose sons are known respectively as—1st Kunwar 2nd Diwan; 3rd, Thakur, 4th, Lal, 5th Babu.
BABUL.—A common thorny tree, the bark of which is used for tanning, *Acacia arabica*.
BADMASH.—A bad character a rascal.
BAGHIA.—(1) A native boat (Bengal) (2) The common pond heron or paddybird.
BAHADUR.—(Lit. "brave" or "warrior") a title used by both Hindus and Mohammedans often bestowed by Government, added to other titles, it increases their honour but alone it designates an inferior ruler.

BAIRAGI.—A Hindu religious mendicant.
BAJRA OR **BAJRI**.—The bulrush mill common food-grain *Pennisetum typhoides* syn *cambu*, Madras.
BAKSHI.—A revenue officer or magist.
BAND.—A dam or embankment (Bund).
BANYAN.—A species of fig tree, *F. BENGALENSIS*.
BARBAT.—(1) A fall of rain, (2) the season.
BASTI.—(1) A village, or collection of 1. (2) A Jain temple, Kanara.
BATTA.—Lit. "discount" and hence a canoe by way of compensation.
BASAR.—(1) A street lined with shops, India proper, (2) a covered market, Burma.
BEGUM OR **BEGAM**.—The feminine of "Nawab" combined in Bhopal as "Nawab Begum".
BEX.—A thorny shrub bearing a fruit like a small plum, *Zeyheria Jujuba*.
BEBAR.—Apparently a large landowner.
BEWAR.—Name in Central Provinces for shifting cultivation in jungles and hill-sides, syn *taungya*, Burma, Jhum, North Eastern India.
BHADOL.—Early autumn crop, Northern India reaped in the month Bhadon.
BHANG.—The dried leaves of the hemp plant, *Cannabis sativa*, a narcotic.
BHANWAR.—Light sandy soil, syn *bhur*.
BHARAL.—A Himalayan wild sheep, *Ovis montanus*.
BHENDI.—A succulent vegetable (*Hibiscus esculentus*).
BHONSLE.—Name of a Maratha dynasty.
BHUP.—Title of the ruler of Cooch Behar.
BHUTTI.—Name of a Baluch tribe.
BHUSA.—Chaff, for fodder.
BHUT.—The spirit of departed persons.
BIDRI.—A class of ornamental metalwork, in which blackened pewter is inlaid with silver, named from the town of Bidar, Hyderabad.
BIGHA.—A measure of land varying widely, the standard bigha is generally five-eighths of an acre.
BIR (BID).—A grassland—North India.
BLACK COTTON SOIL.—A dark-coloured soil very retentive of moisture, found in Central and Southern India.
BOARD OF REVENUE.—The chief controlling revenue authority in Bengal, the United Provinces and Madras.
BOR.—See **BUR**.

Note.—According to the Hunterian system of transliteration here adopted the vowels have the following values—*a* either long as the *a* in 'father' or short as the *a* in 'cut', *e* as the *e* in 'gain', *i* either short as the *i* in 'bib' or long as the *e* in 'feel', *o* as the *o* in 'bone', *u* either short as the *o* in 'good' or long as the *oo* in 'boot', *ai* as the *i* in 'mile', *au* as the *ou* in 'grouse'. This is only a rough guide. The vowel values vary in different parts of India in a marked degree. The consonantal values are too intricate for discussion here.

AGAL.—A vegetable, *Solanum melon* syn egg-plant.

AMR, or bandar.—A harbour or port.

ARJ.—A bastion in a line of fortifications.

BAJAN.—Palm leaves used for thatch.

BHUTRA.—A platform of mud or plaster-work, used for social gatherings, Northern India.

CHADAR.—A sheet worn as a shawl by men and sometimes by women. (Chudder)

CHAITTA.—An ancient Buddhist chapel.

CHAMBAR (CHAMAR).—A caste whose trade is in goat leather.

CHAMPAK.—A tree with fragrant blossoms.

CHAMPALA CHAMPACA.

CHAPATI.—A cake of unleavened bread (Chappatti)

CHAPRAL.—An orderly or messenger, Northern India, syn pattawala, Bombay, poon, Madras.

CHARAS.—The resin of the hemp plant, *Cannabis sativa*, used for smoking.

CHARKHA.—A spinning wheel.

CHARPAI (charpoy).—A bedstead with four legs, and tape stretched across the frame for a mattress.

CHAUDHRI.—Under native rule, a subordinate revenue official, at present the term is applied to the headman or representative of a trade guild.

CHAUKIDAR.—The village watchman and rural policeman.

CHAUTH.—The fourth part of the land revenue, exacted by the Marathas in subject territories.

CHELA.—A pupil, usually in connexion with religious teaching.

CHHAONI.—A collection of thatched huts or barracks, hence a cantonment.

CHHATRAPATI.—One of sufficient dignity to have an umbrella carried over him.

CHHATRI.—(1) An umbrella, (2) domed building such as a cenotaph.

CHIEF COMMISSIONER.—The administrative head of one of the lesser Provinces in British India.

CHIKER.—A kind of partridge, *Caccas chucal*.

CHIKU.—The Bombay name for the fruit of *Achras sapota*, the Sapodilla plum of the West Indies.

CHINAR.—A plane tree, *Platanus orientalis*.

CHINKARA.—The Indian gazelle, *Gazella benettii*, often called 'ravine deer'.

CHITRAL.—The spotted deer, *Cervus axis*.

CHOLAN.—Name in Southern India for the large millet, *Antiarctogon sorghum*, syn. *Job*.

CHOLA.—A kind of short bodice worn by women.

CHUNAR, chuma.—Lime plaster.

CIRCLE.—The area in charge of—(1) A Conservator of forests, (2) A Postmaster or Deputy Postmaster-General, (3) A Superintendent Registrar of the Public Works Department.

CIVIL SURGEON.—The officer in medical charge of a District.

COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit can be arrested by the police without a warrant.

COLLECTOR.—The administrative head of a District in Regulation Provinces corresponding to the Deputy Commissioner in non-regulation areas.

COMMISSIONER.—(1) The officer in charge of a Division or group of Districts, (2) the head of various departments, such as Stamps, Excise, etc.

COMPOUND.—The garden and open land attached to a house. An Anglo-Indian word perhaps derived from 'kumpan', a hedge.

CONSERVATOR.—The Supervising Officer in charge of a Circle in the Forest Department.

COUNCIL BILLS.—Bills or telegraphic transfers drawn on the Indian Government by the Secretary of State in Council.

COURT.—Cotton yarns are described as 20's, 30's, etc., counts when not more than a like number of hanks of 840 yards go to the pound avoirdupois.

COURT OF WARDS.—An establishment for managing estates of minors and other disqualified persons.

CHORE, karor.—Ten millions.

DADA.—Lit 'grandfather' (paternal), any venerable person.

DAFFADAR.—A non-commissioned native officer in the army or police.

DAK OR DAO.—A cutting instrument with no point, used as a sword, and also as an axe, Assam and Burma.

DAK (dawk).—A stage on a stage coach route. Dawk bungalow is the travellers' bungalow maintained at such stages in days before rail ways came.

DAKATI DACOITY.—Robbery by five or more persons.

DAL.—A generic term applied to various pulses.

DAM.—An old copper coin, one-fortieth of a rupee.

DARBAR.—(1) A ceremonial assembly, especially one presided over by the Ruler of a State hence (2) the Government of a Native State.

DARGAH.—A Mahomedan shrine or tomb of a saint.

DARI, Dhurrie.—A rug or carpet, usually of cotton, but sometimes of wool.

DAROGHA.—The title of officials in various departments, now especially applied to subordinate controlling Officers in the Police and Jail Departments.

DARWAZA.—A door-keeper.

DARWAZA.—A gateway.

DAULA AND DAULAT.—State, also one in Office.

DEB—A Brahminical priestly title, taken from the name of a divinity

DEBOTTAR—Land assigned for the upkeep of temples or maintenance of Hindu worship

DEODAR—A cedar, *CEDRUS LIBANI* or *C. DEODARA*

DEPUTY COMMISSIONER—The Administrative head of a District in non regulation areas corresponding to the Collector in Regulation Provinces

DEPUTY MAGISTRATE AND COLLECTOR—A subordinate of the Collector, having executive and judicial (revenue and criminal) powers, equivalent to Extra Assistant Commissioner in non-regulation areas

DESAI—A revenue official under native (Maratha) rule

DESH—(1) Native country, (2) the plains as opposed to the hills Northern India (3) the plateau of the Deccan above the Ghats

DESHMUKH—A petty official under native (Maratha) rule

DEVAL—A deity

DEVASTHAN—Land assigned for the upkeep of a temple or other religious foundation

DIWAN—See **DIWAN**

DIKAI—A tree, *BUTEA FRONDOSA* with brilliant orange scarlet flowers used for dyeing, and also producing a gum, syn palas, Bengal and Bombay Ghilul Central India

DRAMANI—A heavy shikhrum or tonga drawn by bullocks

DHARMASALA—A charitable institution provided as a resting place for pilgrims or travellers Northern India

DHATURA—A stupefying drug **DATURA FASTUOSA**

DHENKI—Name in Northern India for the lever used in raising water syn piccottah

DHIRAJ—Lord of the Lands added to "Raja" &c It means "paramount"

DHONI—A washerman

DHOTI—The loincloth worn by men

DISTRICT—The most important administrative unit of area

DIVISION—(1) A group of districts for administrative and revenue purposes, under a Commissioner, (2) the area in charge of a Deputy Conservator of Forests, usually corresponding with a (revenue) District, (3) the area under a Superintendent of Post Offices, (4) a group of (revenue) districts under an Executive Engineer of the Public Works Department

DIWAN—A Vizier or other First Minister to a native Chief either Hindu or Mohammedan and equal in rank with "Sardar" under which see other equivalents The term is also used of a Council of State

DIWANI—Civil, especially revenue, administrative; now used generally in Northern India of civil justice and Courts

DOAB—The tract between two rivers, especially that between the Ganges and Jumna

DRY CROP—A crop grown without artificial irrigation

DRY RATE—The rate of revenue for unirrigated land

DUN—A valley, Northern India

DUKA—A small two-wheeled conveyance drawn by a pony, Northern India

ELAYA RAJA—Title given to the heir of the Maharaja of Travancore

EXTRA ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER—See Deputy Magistrate and Collector

FAKIR—Properly an Islamic mendicant or a mendicant who has no creed, but often loosely used of Hindu mendicants also

FAMINE INSURANCE GRANT—An annual provision from revenue to meet direct famine expenditure, or the cost of certain classes of public works, or to avoid debt

FARMAN—An imperial (Mughal) order or grant

FARWAND (with defining words added)—Favorite or beloved

FATEH—Victory

FATH JANG—Victorious in Battle (a title of the Nizam)

FAUJDAHI—Under native rule, the area under a Faujdari or subordinate governor, now used generally of Magistrates' Criminal Courts

FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER—The chief controlling revenue authority in the Punjab, Burma and the Central Provinces

FITTON GARI—A phaeton Bombay Derived from the English

GADDI, Gadi—The cushion or throne of (Hindu) royalty

GAEKWAR (sometimes **GUICOWAR**)—Title with "Maharaja" added of the ruler of Baroda It was once a caste name and means "cow herder" the protector of the sacred animal, but later on in common with "Holkar" and "Sindhia" it came to be a dynastic appellation and consequently regarded as a title Thus a Prince becomes "Gaekwar" on succeeding to the estate of Baroda "Holkar" to that of Indore and "Sindhia" to that of Gwalior

GANJA—The unfertilised flowers of the cultivated female hemp plant **CANNABIS SATIVA**, used for smoking

GAUR—Wild cattle, commonly called "bison", **BOS GAURUS**

GAVAL—A species of wild cattle, **BOS FRONTALIS**, domesticated on the North East Frontier, syn mithan

GHADER—Mutiny Revolution

GHAT Ghaut—(1) A landing place on a river; (2) the bathing steps on the bank of a tank; (3) a pass up a mountain; (4) in European usage, a mountain range. In the last sense especially applied to the Eastern and Western Ghats

GHATWAL—A tenure-holder who originally held his land on the condition of guarding the neighbouring hill passes (ghats), Bengal

GHE, Ghee—Clarified butter

GHINGELY—See **TIL**

- GODOWN**—A store room or warehouse. An Anglo Indian word derived from the Malay "godang."
- GOPURAM**—A gateway, especially applied to the great temple gateways in Southern India.
- GOSAIN, Goswami**—A (Hindu) devotee, lit. one who restrains his passions.
- GOSHA**—Name in Southern India for caste women, lit. "one who sits in a corner", *syn parda*.
- GRAM**—A kind of pea, *CICER ARIETINUM*. In Southern India the pulse *DOLICHOS BIFLORUS* is known as horse gram.
- GUARANTEED**—(1) A class of Native States in Central India. (2) A class of railways.
- GUMU**—The red seed with a black eye of *ABRUS PRECATORIUS*, a common wild creeper, used as the official weight for minute quantities of opium 12th TOLA.
- GUM, Geor**—Crude sugar, *syn. jaggery*, Southern India, tanyet, Burma.
- GURAL**—A Himalayan goat antelope *CENACORAL*.
- GURDWARA**—A Sikh Shrine.
- GURU**—(1) A Hindu religious preceptor, (2) a schoolmaster, Bengal.
- HAFIZ**—Guardian.
- HAJ**—Pilgrimage to Mecca.
- HAJJI**—A Mahomedan who has performed the haj. He is entitled to dye his beard red.
- HAKIM**—A native doctor practising the Mahomedan system of medicine.
- HALALKHOR**—A sweeper or scavenger, lit. one to whom everything is lawful food.
- HALLI**—Current Applied to coin of Native States, especially Hyderabad.
- HAMAL**—(1) A porter or cooly, (2) a house servant.
- HEJIRA (HJIRAH)**—The era dating from the flight of Mahomed to Mecca, June 20th, 622 A.D.
- HEIRA LAL**—"Diamond Ruby."
- HILSA**—A kind of fish *CLUPEA ELIHA*.
- HOLKAR**—See "Gackwar."
- HRI**—An iron pinnacle placed on a pagoda in Burma.
- HUKKA, HOOKAH**—The Indian tobacco pipe.
- IDGAH**—An enclosed place outside a town where Mahomedan services are held on festivals known as the Id., etc.
- ISAM**—Lit. "reward." Hence land held revolve free or at a reduced rate, often subject to service. See *DEVASTHAU, SARANJAM WITAM*.
- INUNDATION CANAL**—A channel taken off from a river at a comparatively high level which can carry water only when the river is in flood.
- JACK FRUIT**—Fruit of *ARTOCARPUS INTI GRIFOLIA*, *ver PHANAS*.
- JAGGERY, jagri**—Name in Southern India for crude sugar; *syn gur*.
- JAGIR**—An assignment of land, or of the revenue of land held by a Jagirdar.
- JAN**—A term denoting dignity.
- JAM** (Sindhi or Baluch) — Chief.
- JATHA**—An association.
- JAZZIRAT-UL-ARAB**—The Sacred Island of Arabia, including all the countries which contain cities sacred to the Mahomedans: Arabia, Palestine and Mesopotamia.
- JEMADAR**—A native officer in the army or police.
- JHIL**—A natural lake or swamp, Northern India, *syn bil*, Eastern Bengal and Assam.
- JIHAD**—A religious war undertaken by Mussal mans.
- JIRGA**—A council of tribal elders, North-West frontier.
- JOWAR**—The large millet, a very common food grain, *ANDROPOGON SOERGHUM*, or *SOERGHUM VULGARE*, *syn cholam* and *jola*, in Southern India.
- JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER**—An officer exercising the functions of a High Court in the Central Provinces, Oudh, and Sind.
- KACHERI kachahri**—An office or office building, especially that of a Government official.
- KADAR, karbi**—The straw of jowari (*q v*)—a valuable fodder.
- KAJU, Kashew**—The nut of *ANACARDIUM OCCIDENTALE*, largely grown in the Konkan.
- KAKAR**—The barking deer, *CEPVULUS MUNTJAC*.
- KALAR, kallar**—Barren land covered with salt or alkaline efflorescences, Northern India.
- KAMARBAND, Cumberbund**—A waistcloth, or belt.
- KANAT**—The wall of a large tent.
- KANGAR**—A kind of portable warming-pan, carried by persons in Kashmir to keep themselves warm.
- KANKAR**—Nodular limestone, used for metalling roads, as building stones or for preparation of lime.
- KANS**—A coarse glass which spreads and prevents cultivation especially in Bundelkhand, *SACCHARUM SPONTANEUM*.
- KANUNGO**—A revenue Inspector.
- KARAI**—A very venomous snake, *BUNGARUS CANDIDUS* or *CARULEUS*.
- KARBHARI**—A manager.
- KARIZ**—Underground tunnels near the skirts of hills, by which water is gradually led to the surface for irrigation, especially in Baluchistan.
- KARKUN**—A clerk or writer, Bombay.
- KARMA**—The doctrine that existence is conditioned by the sum of the good and evil actions in past existences.
- KARNAM**—See *PATWARI*.
- KAKI**—Better written *Qazi*—Under native rule, a judge administering Mahomedan law. Under British rule, the kazi registers marriages between Mahomedans and performs other functions, but has no powers conferred by law.
- KHADI (or KHADDI)**—Cotton cloth handwoven from hand-spun yarn.
- KHALASI**—A native fireman, sailor, artilleryman, or tent-pitcher.

KHALSA.—Lit 'pure.' (1) Applied especially to themselves by the Sikhs, the word *Khalas* being equivalent to the Sikh community. (2) Land directly under Government as opposed to land alienated to grantees, etc., Northern India.

KHAN.—Originally the ruler of a small Mohammedan State now a nearly empty title though prized. It is very frequently used as a name, especially by Afghans and Pathans.

KHANDI, candy.—A weight especially used for cotton bales in Bombay equivalent to 20 mds.

KHARAR.—In Bombay of any portion ran assessed survey No which being uncultivable is left unassessed.

KHARIF.—Any crops sown just before or during the main S.W. monsoon.

KHAS.—Special in Government hands. *Khas tahsildar*, the manager of a Government estate.

KHASADAR.—Local levies of foot soldiers, Afghanistan.

KHAS-KHAS, *Kun Kun*.—A grass with scented roots, used for making screens which are placed in doorways and kept wet to cool a house by evaporation, *ANDROPOGON SQUARE ROBUS*.

KHEDDA, *kheda*.—A stockade into which wild elephants are driven also applied to the operations for catching.

KHICHADI, *kejjeroe*.—A dish of cooked rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo Indians especially used of rice with fish.

KHILAT.—A robe of honour.

KHURBA.—The weekly prayer for Mahomedans in general and for the reigning sovereign in particular.

KHWAJA.—A Persian word for 'master' sometimes a name.

KINOOK, *kamkhwab*.—Silk textiles brocaded with gold or silver.

KIRPAN.—A Sikh religious emblem, a sword.

KODALI.—The implement like a hoe or mattock in common use for digging, synonym with Southern India.

KOVKAN.—The narrow strip of low land between the Western Ghats and the sea.

KOS.—A variable measure of distance, usually estimated at about two miles. The distance between the kos minars or milestones on the Mughal Imperial roads averages a little over 2 miles, 4 furlongs, 150 yards.

KOT.—Battlements.

KOTHI.—A large house.

KOTWAL.—The head of the police in a town, under native rule. The term is still used in Hyderabad and other parts of India.

KOTWALI.—The chief police station in a head-quarters town.

KUHA BANDA.—A barrier or gateway erected across a pass.

KUKHAKHI.—See *FATWAMI*.

KUMHAR.—A potter.

KUNWAP OR *KUMAR*.—The heir of a Rajah.

KURAN.—A big grass land growing grass fit for cutting.

KYARI.—Land embanked to hold water for rice cultivation.

KYAUNG.—A Buddhist monastery, which always contains a school, Burma.

LAKE, *lac*.—A hundred thousand.

LAL.—A younger son of a Raja (strictly a 11th son, but see under 'Rahu').

LAMBARDAR.—The representative of the co-sharers in a samindari village, Northern India.

LANGUR.—A large monkey, *SEMNOPTERUS ENTELLUS*.

LASCAR, correct *lashkar*.—(1) an army, (2) is English usage a native sailor.

LAT.—A monumental pillar.

LATERITE.—A vesicular material formed of disintegrated rock used for buildings and making roads, also probably valuable for the production of aluminium. Laterite produces a deep brick-red soil.

LINGAM.—The phallic emblem, worshipped as the representative of Shiva.

LITCHI.—A fruit tree grown in North India (*LITCHI CHINEENSIS*).

LOKAMANYA.—(lit.) Esteemed of the world or the people, a national hero.

LOKENDRA OR *LOKINDRA*.—Protector of the World' title of the Chiefs of Dholpur and Dattia.

LONGYI.—A waistcloth, Burma.

LOTA.—A small brass water pot.

LURGI, *loongi*.—(1) A turban, (2) a cloth worn by women.

MADRASA.—A school especially one for the higher instruction of Mahomedans.

MAHAJAN.—The guild by Hindu or Jain merchants in a city. The head of the Mahajans is the *Nagarabeth* (q.v.).

MAHAL.—(1) Formerly a considerable tract of country, (2) now a village or part of a village for which a separate agreement is taken for the payment of land revenue. (3) a department of revenue, e.g. right to catch elephants, or to take stone. (4) in Bombay a small Taluka under a *MAHALKARI*.

MAHANT.—The head of a Hindu conventual establishment.

MAHARAJA.—The highest of hereditary rulers among the Hindus or else a personal distinction conferred by Government. It has several variations as under 'Raja' with the addition of *MAHARAJ RANA*. Its feminine is *MAHARANI* (*MAHARANI*).

MAHATMA.—(lit.) A great soul, applied to men who have transcended the limitations of the flesh and the world.

MAHAKHUR, *mahakur*.—A large snop, *BARPOO* FOR (lit. 'the big-headed').

MAHUA.—A tree, *HAMBA LATIFOLIA*, producing flowers used (when dried) as food or for distilling liquor, and seeds which furnish oil.

MAIDAN.—An open space of level ground, the park at Calcutta.

MAJOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which separate accounts are kept of capital, revenue, and interest.

MAKTAR.—An elementary Mahomedan school
MALGUKAR (revenue payer).—(1) The term applied in the Central Provinces to a co-sharer in a village held in ordinary proprietary tenure (2) a cultivator in the Chamba State.

MALL.—A gardener
MALK.—Master proprietor

MANLATDAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Bombay, whose duties are both executive and magisterial, syn. *tahasildar*

MANDAP, or **mandapam**.—A porch or pillared hall, especially of a temple

MANGOSTEEN.—The fruit of *GARCINIA MANGOS TANA*.

MARKHOR.—A wild goat in North Western India, *CAPRA FALCONERI*

MASJID.—A mosque. Jama Masjid, the principal mosque in a town, where worshippers collect on Fridays.

MASWAD.—Seat of state or throne, Mahomedan, syn. *gaddi*

MATH.—A Hindu conventual establishment.

MAULANA.—A Mahomedan skilled in Arabic and religious knowledge

MAULVI.—A person learned in Muhammadan law

MAUND, **var Man**.—A weight varying in different localities. The Ry maund is 80 lbs

MAYA.—Sanskrit term for delusion

MEHEL or **MAHAL**.—A palace

MELA.—A religious festival or fair

MIAN.—Title of the son of a Rajput Nawab resembling the Scottish Master

MIBRA.—The niche in the centre of the western wall of a mosque.

MIMBAR.—Steps in a mosque, used as a pulpit.

MIMRA.—A pillar or tower

MINOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which regular accounts are not kept, except, in some cases, of capital.

MIR.—A leader, an inferior title which like "Khan", has grown into a name, especially used by descendants of the Chiefs of Sind

MIRZA.—If prefixed, "Mr or Esquire

MIRZAI.—(1) a foreman (2) a cook

MONG, MOUNG, or MAUNG (Arakanese)—

Leader

MONSOON.—Lit 'season,' and specifically (1) The S. W. Monsoon, which is a Northward extension of the S. E. trades, which in the Northern Summer cross the equator and circulate into and around the low pressure area over North India, caused by the excessive heating of the land area, and (2) The N. E. monsoon,

which is the current of cold winds blowing down during the Northern winter from the cold land areas of Central Asia, giving rain in India only in S. E. Madras and Ceylon through moisture acquired in crossing the Bay of Bengal, and passing across the equator into the low pressure areas of the Australasian Southern summit

MOPLAH (Mappila).—A fanatical Mahomedan sect in Malabar

MOULVI OR **MAULVI**.—A learned man or teacher

MUDALIYAR OR **MUD LIAR**.—A personal proper name, but implying "steward of the lands

MUFASSAL, **mufassal**.—The outlying parts of a District, Province or Presidency, as distinguished from the head-quarters (Sadri).

MUKADDAM, **mucaddam**.—A representative or headman.

MUKHTAR (corruptly *mukhtiar*).—(1) A legal practitioner who has not got a sanad and therefore cannot appear in court as of right, (2) any person holding a power of attorney on behalf of another person

MUKHTIARKAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Sind, whose duties are both executive and magisterial, syn. *tahasildar*

MUKTI, 'release'.—The perfect rest attained by the last death and the final reabsorption of the individual soul into the world—soul, syn. *HIRANA*, *MOKSHA*

MUMTAZ UD DAULA.—Distinguished in the State **MULK**, in the country

MUNG, **mug**.—A pulse, *PHASEOLUS RADIX* TUB syn *mag*, Gujarat.

MUNJ.—(1) A tall grass (*SACCHARUM MUNJA*) in North India, from which mats are woven, and the Brahman sacred thread worn, (2) the said thread

MUNSHI.—A teacher of Hindustani or any Perso Arabian language President or presiding official

MUNSHI.—Judge of the lowest Court with civil jurisdiction

MURUM, **moorum**.—Gravel, used for metalling roads.

MYOWEN.—Mr

NACHANI NAQI.—See **RAGI**

NAGARKHANA, **Nakkarkhana**.—A place where drums are beaten

NAGARSHETHI.—The head of the trading guild of Hindu and Jain Merchants in a city

NAIB.—Assistant or Deputy

NAIK.—A leader, hence (1) a local chieftain, in Southern India, (2) a native officer of the lowest rank (corporal) in the Indian army

NAT.—A demon or spirit, Burma.

NAWAB.—A title borne by Muslims corresponding roughly to that of Raja among Hindus. Originally a Viceroy under the Moghal Government, now the regular leading title of a Mohammedan Prince, corresponding to "Maharaja" of the Hindus.

NAKAR, NAKHRA.—A due paid on succession or on certain ceremonial occasions.

NAM—A ruler

NET ASSETS.—(1) In Northern India, the rent or share of the gross produce of land taken by the landlord, (2) in Madras and Lower Burma, the difference between the assumed value of the crop and the estimate of its cost of production

NEWAR.—Broad cookney woven across bid steeds instead of iron sials

NGAPI.—Pressed fish or salted fish paste, largely made and consumed in Burma

NILGAI.—An antelope, *BOSKELAPHUS TRAGOCAMELUS*

NIM, neem.—A tree, *MELIA ADIRACHTA*, the berries of which are used in dyeing

NIRVANA.—See MUKTI

NIZAM.—The title of the ruler of Hyderabad the one Mohammedan Prince superior to Nawab

NIKMAT.—A sub-division of a Native State, corresponding to a British District, chiefly in the Punjab and Bhopal

NON AGRICULTURAL ASSESSMENT.—Enhanced assessment imposed when land already assessed as agricultural is diverted to use as a building site or for industrial concerns

NON-COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit cannot be arrested by the police without a warrant

NOMO (Tibetan).—The ruler of Spitta

NON-OCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with few statutory rights, except in Oudh, beyond the terms in their leases or agreements

NON REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain Provinces to show that the regulations of full code of legislation was not in force in them

NULLAH, NALA.—A ravine, watercourse, or drain

OCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with special rights in Central Provinces, in United Provinces.

PADAUK.—A well known Burmese tree (*PYROCARPUS* sp.) from the behaviour of which the arrival of the monsoon is prognosticated

PADDY.—Unhusked rice

PAGA.—A troop of horses among the Marathas

PAGI.—A tracker of thieves of strayed or stolen animals.

PAIGAN.—A tenure in Hyderabad State.

PAIK.—(1) A footsolder, (2) in Assam formerly applied to every free male above sixteen years.

PAIRIE.—The name of the second best variety of Bombay mango, distinguishable from the *APRUS* (p) by its pointed tip, and by the colour being less yellow and more green and red

PAJAR.—See DEAK.

PALEI.—A palanquin or litter

PAN.—The betel vine, *PIPER BETLE*.

PANCHAMA.—Low caste, Southern India.

PANCHAYAT.—(1) A committee for management of the affairs of a caste, village, or town, (2) arbitrators. Theoretically the panchayat has five (panch) members

PANDI OR PUNDI.—A learned man

PANDIT.—A Hindu title, strictly speaking applied to a person versed in the Hindu scriptures, but commonly used by Brahmans. In Assam applied to a grade of inspectors of primary schools

PANUPARI.—Distribution of PAN and SUPARI (q v) as a form of ceremonial hospitality

PABAR.—A public place for the distribution of water, maintained by charity

PABABADI.—A platform with a smaller platform like a dovecot on a centre pole or pillar built and endowed or maintained by charity, where grain is put every day for animals and birds

PANDA purdah.—(1) A veil or curtain (2) the practice of keeping women secluded, syn gotha

PARDISI.—Foreign Used in Bombay especially of Hindu servants, syces, &c, from North India

PARGANA.—Fiscal area or petty sub-division of a tahsil, Northern India.

PASHM.—The fine wool of the Tibetan goat

PASO.—A waistcloth

PAT, put.—A stretch of firm, hard clay

PATEL.—A village headman, Central and Western India, syn reddi, Southern India gaonbura Assam padhan, Northern and Eastern India, Mukhi Gujarat.

PATIDAR.—A co-sharer in a village, Gujarat

PATTAWALLA.—See CHAPRAHI

PATWARI.—A village accountant, syn kar nam Madras, kulkarni, Bombay Deccan, talati, Gujarat shanbhog Mysore, Kanara and Coorg, mandal, Assam, tapedar, Sind

PEON.—See CHAPRAHI

PESHKASH.—A tribute or offering to a superior

PISHAUP.—Manager or agent

PHULAV, (Pillow).—A dish of rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specifically used of chicken with rice and spices

PHULKARI.—An embroidered sheet, lit flower work.

PIOM, paisa.—A copper or bronze coin worth one farthing, also used as a generic term for money

PIGOTTAR.—A lever for raising water in a bucket for irrigation, Southern India, syn dhenkul or dhengkuli, or dhikhi, Northern India

PIRAL.—A sacred tree, *FIGUS RELIGIOSA*.

PIR.—A Mahomedan religious teacher or mujlis.

PLEADER.—A class of legal practitioner
POGGY.—A Buddhist monk or priest, Burma
POOTIE, poshteen.—A coat or rug of sheep-
 skin tanned with the wool on, Afghanistan.

PRAET.—An administrative sub division in
 Maratha States corresponding to a British Dis-
 trict (Baroda) or Division (Gwalior), also in
 Kathiawar.

PRESIDENCY.—A former Division of British
 India.

PRINCE.—Term used in English courtesy for
 'Shahzada' but specially conferred in the
 case of Prince of Arcot (called also 'Armin
 Arcot').

PROTECTED.—Forests over which a con-
 siderable degree of supervision is exercised but
 less than in the case of reserved forests.

PROVINCE.—One of the large Divisions of
 British India.

PUJA.—Worship, Hindu

PUJARI.—The priest attached to a temple

PUNDIT.—See Pandit.

PURANA.—Lit 'old Sanskrit' (1) applied to
 certain Hindu religious books, (2) to a geologi-
 cal 'group', (3) also to punch-marked coins.

PUROHIT.—A domestic chaplain or spiritual
 guide, Hindu

PWE.—An entertainment, Burma

PTALIS.—Bands of revellers who accompany
 the Muharram processions

QILLA.—A Fort

RABI.—Any crop sown after the main South
 West monsoon

RAGI (ELEusine OROZOANA).—A small millet
 used as a food grain in Western and Southern
 India, syn. marua, Nagli Nachni

RAJA.—A Hindu Prince of exalted rank, but
 inferior to Maharaja. The feminine is
Rani (Princess or Queen), and it has the varia-
 tions *Raj*, *Rana*, *Rao Raj*, *Rawal*, *Rawat*,
Raikwar, *Raikbar* and *Raikal*. The form *Raj*
 is common in Bengal, *Rao* in S & W India.

RAJ RAJESHWAR.—King of Kings

RAMOSHI.—A caste whose work is watch
 and ward in the village lands and hence used
 of any chaukidar (q. v.)

RAVA.—A title borne by some Rajput chiefs
 equivalent to that of Raja

RANI.—The wife or widow of a Raja

RAO.—A title borne by Hindus, either equiva-
 lent to, or ranking below, that of Raja.

REGAR.—Name for a black soil in Central
 and Southern India, which is very retentive
 of moisture, and suitable for growing cotton.

REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to
 certain provinces to show that the Regulations
 or full code of legislation applied to them.

REH.—Saline or alkaline efflorescences on
 the surface of the soil, Northern India.

RESERVED.—Forests intended to be main-
 tained permanently.

RICKSHAW.—A one or two seat vehicle on
 two wheels drawn by coolies, used in the hills

RISALDAR.—Commander of a troop of horses

ROHU.—A kind of fish, LAKE ROHITA

RYOTWARI.—The system of tenure in which
 land revenue is imposed on the actual occupants
 of holdings

SADR, sudder.—Chief (adjective). Hence the
 headquarters of a District formerly applied
 to the Appellate Courts.

SABA JANG.—A long handled battleaxe carried
 by Jat Sikhs.

SAFFLOWER.—A thistle which yields a yellow
 dye from its petals and oil from its seeds
 (CARTHAMUS TINCTORIUS), var. *kardai*, *kushanti*

SAHEB.—The Native Hindu term used to or
 of a European (Mr Smith would be mentioned
 as 'Smith Sahab' and his wife 'Smith
 Mem Sahab' but in addressing it would be
 Sahab fem. Sahaba without the name),
 occasionally appended to a title in the same
 way as 'Bahadur', but inferior (master).
 The unusual combination 'Nawab Sahab'
 implies a mixed population of Hindus and
 Mohammedans

SARIBZADA.—Son of a person of consequence

SAID, SAYID, SAYID, SIDI, SYED, SYED.—
 Various forms for a title adopted by those who
 claim direct male descent from Mohammed's
 grandson Husain

SAL.—A useful timber tree in Northern India,
 SHORRA ROBUETA

SAMBAR.—A deer, CERVUS UNICOLORE, syn
 SARU

SAN.—Bombay hemp, CROTALARIA JUNCOSA

SANAD.—(1), A charter or grant, giving its
 name to a class of States in Central India held
 under a sanad, (2) any kind of deed of grants

SANGATHAN.—Literally tying together. A
 movement which aims at unity and the know-
 ledge of the art of self defence among Hindus.
 Roughly similar to Fascismo

SANNYASI.—A Hindu mendicant

SARI.—A long piece of cloth worn by women
 as a shawl

SARANJAM.—Land held revenue free or on a
 reduced quit rent in consideration of political
 services rendered by the holder's ancestors

SARDAR (corrupted to SIRDAR).—A leading
 Government official, either civil or military,
 even a Grand Vizier. Nearly all the Punjab
 Barons bear this title. It and *Diwan*
 are like in value and used by both Hindus and
 Mohammedans. So, but Mohammedans only,
 are 'Wall', 'Sultan', 'Amir', 'Mir',
 'Mirza', 'Mian', and 'Khan'

SARKAR.—(1) The Government, (2) a tract
 of territory under Muhammadan rule, corre-
 sponding roughly to a Division under British
 administration

SARSUBAH.—An officer in charge of a Division
 in the Baroda State corresponding to Com-
 missioner of British territories

SATI.—Suicide by a widow, especially on the
 funeral pyre of her husband

SARTAGHANA.—(Hk.) One possessed by the truth, one who follows the truth wherever it may lead. (Commonly used to denote the passive resistance movement.)

SAWAI.—A Hindu title implying a slight distinction (fit one fourth better than others)

SAWWA.—A title borne by chiefs in the Shan States, Burma.

SEMAL or cotton tree.—A large forest tree with crimson flowers and pods containing a quantity of seeds, BOMBAY MALABARICUM.

SEBOW, SARU.—A goat antelope, NEMOR-
HANDUS BUDALINUS.

SETTLEMENT.—(1) The preparation of a cadastral record and the fixing of the Government revenue from land, (2) the local inquiry made before Forest Reserves are created, (3) the financial arrangement between the Government of India and Local Governments

SHAHID.—A martyr

SHAHYADA.—Son of a King

SHAIKH or **SHRIKH** (Arabic).—A chief

SHAMS UL-ULAMA.—A Mohammedan title denoting 'learned'

SHAMSHIR JANG.—Sword of Battle (a title of the Maharaja of Travancore)

SHANBUO.—See **PATWARI**

SHASTRAS.—The religious law-books of the Hindus.

SHERGADI, shergare.—A pan on 8 feet with live charcoal in it

SHER, ser, socr.—A weight, or measure varying much in size in different parts of the country The Railway ser is about 2 lbs

SHERY, shethia.—A Hindu or Jain merchant

SHIGRAM.—See **TONGA**

SHIGHAM or **simu.**—A valuable timber tree, DALBERGIA SIBBOO

SHUDDHI.—Literally purification A movement started in Rajputana and Northern India for the reconversion to Hinduism of those, like the Malakhana Rajputs, who, though Mahomedans for some generations, have retained many Hindu practices

SIDI.—A variation of 'Said'

SILLADAR.—A native trooper who furnishes his own horse and equipment.

SINDHA.—See under 'Gackwar'

SOLA.—A water plant with a valuable pith, ARCTYOMERIS ASPERA.

SOVAR.—A mounted soldier or constable. **SHI** or **SHRI.**—Lit fortune beauty, a Sanskrit term used by Hindus in speaking of a person much respected (never addressed to him, nearly = 'Esquire') used also of divinities The two forms of spelling are occasioned by the intermediate sound of the *s* (that of *s* in the German *Stadt*)

STUPA or **topa.**—A Buddhist stupa, usually of brick or stone, and more or less hemispherical, containing relics

SUBAR.—(1) A province under Mahomedan rule, (2) the officer in charge of a large tract in

Baroda, corresponding to the Collector of a British District, (3) a group of Districts or Division, Hyderabad.

SUBANDAR.—(1) The governor of a province under Mahomedan rule, (2) a native infantry officer in the Indian Army, (3) an official in Hyderabad corresponding to the Commissioner in British territory

SUB DIVISION.—A portion of a District in charge of a junior officer of the Indian Civil Service or a Deputy Collector

SULTAN.—Like 'Sardar'

SUPARI.—The fruit of the betel palm, ARECA CATHEHU

SUPERINTENDENT.—(1) The chief police officer in a District, (2) the official in charge of a hill station, (3) the official, usually of the Indian Medical Service, in charge of a Central Jail

SURT.—Native of Surat, specially used of persons of the Dhed or Mahar caste who work as house servants of Europeans, and whose house speech is Gujarati

SWAMI.—A Hindu religious wanderer

SYCH, sais.—A groom

SYLD, SYUD.—More variations of 'Said'

TABLIGH.—The Mahomedan conversion movement

TABUT.—See **TALIAH**

TABUL.—A revenue sub-division of a District, syn taluka, Bombay, taluka, Madras and Mysore, township, Burma.

TAKSILDAR.—The officer in charge of a tahsil, syn Mamlatdar, Bombay, township officer or myo-ok, Burma, Mukhtiar, Sind, Vahvatdar, Baroda His duties are both executive and magisterial

TAKAVI.—Loans made to agriculturists for seed, bullocks, or agricultural improvements, syn tagal, Bombay.

TALASH.—See **PATWARI**

TALAV, or talao.—A lake or tank

TALUK, taluka.—The estate of a talukdar in Oudh. A revenue sub-division of a District, in Bombay, Madras and Mysore, syn tahsil

TALUKDAR.—A landholder with peculiar tenure in different parts of India. (1) An official in the Hyderabad State, corresponding to the Magistrate and Collector (First Talukdar) or Deputy Magistrates and Collectors (Second and Third Talukdars), (2) a landholder with a peculiar form of tenure in Gujarat.

TALPUR.—The name of a dynasty in Sind

TANTAM, tuntuim.—A North Indian name for a light trap or cart

TANK.—In Southern, Western, and Central India, a lake formed by damming up a valley, in Northern India, an excavation holding water

TANKIW.—Literally "organisation" A movement among the Mahomedans which aims at securing better education and a closer approach to unity among Mahomedans in India

TAPDAR.—See **PATWARI**

FARAL.—A moist swampy tract, the term especially applied to the tract along the foot of the Himalayas

FARI, toddy.—The sap of the date, palmyra, or coconut palm, used as a drink, either fresh or after fermentation. In Northern India the juice of the date is called *Sendhi*

FASAR, *tumore*.—Wild silkworms, *ANTHERASA PAPPIA*, also applied to the cloth made from their silk.

FARIA.—Lath and paper models of the tombs of Hasan and Hussain, carried in procession at the Muharram festival, *syn. tabut*.

FRANK.—A valuable timber tree in Southern and Western India and Burma, *TECTONA GRANDIS*.

TELEGRAPHIC TRANSFERS.—See Council bills.

THAGI, *thuggee*.—Robbery after strangulation of the victim.

THAKUR.—(1) The modern equivalent of the caste name *Kshattriya* in some parts of Northern India, (2) a title of respect applied to Brahmans, (3) a petty chief, (4) a hill tribe in the Western Ghats.

THAMIN.—The brow-antlered deer, Burma, *CERVUS ELDI*

THANA.—A police station, and hence the circle attached to it.

TIKA.—(1) Ceremonial anointing on the forehead, (2) vaccination

TIKAM.—The English pickaxe (of which the word is a corruption)

TIL.—An oilseed, *SERANUM INDICUM*, also known as gingelly in Madras

TYNDAL, *tandei*.—A foreman, subordinate officer of a ship

TIPAI, *Teapoy*.—A table with 3 legs, and hence used of any small European style table

TOLA.—A weight equivalent to 180 grains—*troy*.

TONGA.—A one or two harnessed vehicle with a covered top, *syn. SHIGHRAM*.

TURKE.—Wild cattle found in Burma and to the southward, *Bos SONDAICUS*, *syn. bealung and banteng*.

TUMANDAR.—A Persian word denoting some Office

UMARA.—Term implying the Nobles collected

UMBAR.—A wild pig—(*FIENS GLOMERATA*)

URUF.—A term in famine administration denoting one person relieved for one day

URIAL.—A wild sheep in North-Western India, *OVIS VIGRI*.

URID, *URID*.—A pulse, 'black grain', (*PHASEOLUS MUNG*)

USAR.—Soil made barren by saline effluence, Northern India

VAHIVATDAR.—Officer in charge of a revenue sub-division, with both executive and magisterial functions, Baroda, *syn. tahsildar*

VALD or *balidya*, Bengal.—A native doctor practising the Hindu system of medicine.

VAKIL.—(1) A class of legal practitioner, (2) an agent generally

VIHARA.—A Buddhist monastery

VILLAGE.—Usually applied to a certain area demarcated by survey, corresponding roughly to the English parish

VILLAGE UNION.—An area in which local affairs are administered by a small committee

WADA or *WADI*.—(1) an enclosure with houses built round facing a centre yard, (2) private enclosed land near a village

WAKF.—A Muhammadan religious or charitable endowment.

WALI.—Like 'Sardar' The Governor of *Khelat* is so termed whilst the Chiefs of *Cabul* are both *Wali* and *Mir*

WAO.—A step well

WATAN.—A word of many senses in Bombay Presidency used mostly of the land or cash allowance enjoyed by the person who performs some service useful for Government or to the village community

WAHIR.—The chief minister at a Mahomedan court

WET RATE.—The rate of revenue for land assured of irrigation

YOGI.—A Hindu ascetic who follows the yoga system, a cardinal part of which is that it confers complete control over the bodily functions enabling the practitioner, for instance to breathe in through one nostril and out at the other

YUNANI.—Lit. Greek, the system of medicine practised by Mahomedans.

ZAMINDAR.—A landholder

ZAMINDARI.—(1) An estate, (2) the rights of a landholder, *zamindar*, (3) the system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on an individual or community occupying the position of a landlord

ZANANA.—The women's quarters in a house hence private education of women.

ZIARAT.—A Mahomedan shrine, North-Western Frontier

ZILA.—A District.

The Peoples of India.

It is essential to bear in mind, when dealing with the people of India, that it is a continent rather than a country. Nowhere is the complex character of Indians more clearly exemplified than in the physical type of its inhabitants. No one would confuse the main types, such as Gurkhas, Pathans, Sikhs, Rajputs, Burmans, Nagas, Tamils, etc. nor does it take long to carry the differentiation much farther. The typical inhabitants of India—the Dravidians—differ altogether from those of Northern Asia, and more nearly resemble the tribes of Malaya, Sumatra and Madagascar. Whatever may be their origin it is certain that they have settled in the country for countless ages and that their present physical characteristics have been evolved locally. They have been displaced in the North West by successive hordes of invaders including Aryans, Scythians, Pathans and Moghals, and in the North East by Mongoloid tribes allied to those of Burma, which is India only in a modern political sense. Between these foreign elements and the pure Dravidians is borderland where the contiguous races have intermingled.

The people of the Indian Empire are divided by Sir Henry Risley (Caste, Tribe and Race Indian Census Report, 1901, the Gazetteer of India, Ethnology and Caste, Volume I, Chapter 6) into seven main physical types. There would be slight if the Andamanese were included, but this tiny group of Negritos may be disregarded.

The Turko-Iranian represented by the Baluch, Brahui and Afghans of Baluchistan and the North West Frontier Province. Probably formed by a fusion of Turki and Persian elements in which the former pre-dominates. Stature above mean, complexion fair, eyes mostly dark but occasionally grey, hair on face plentiful, head broad, nose moderately narrow, prominent and very long. The feature in these people that strikes one most prominently is the portentous length of their noses and it is probably this peculiarity that has given rise to the tradition of the Jewish origin of the Afghans.

The Indo-Aryan occupying the Punjab, Rajputana, and Kashmir and having as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattis, and Jats. This type, which is readily distinguishable from the Turko-Iranian, approaches most closely to that ascribed to the traditional Aryan colonists of India. The stature is mostly tall, complexion fair, eyes dark, hair on face plentiful, head long, nose narrow, and prominent, but not specially long.

The Scytho-Dravidian, comprising the Maratha Brahmans, the Kunbis and the Coorgs of Western India. Probably formed by a mixture of Scythian and Dravidian elements. This type is clearly distinguished from the Turko-Iranian by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito nasal index. All of these characters, except perhaps the last, may be due to a varying degree of intermixture with the Dravidians. In the higher groups the amount of crossing seems to have been slight, in the lower Dravidian elements are more pronounced.

The Aryo-Dravidian or Hindustani, found in the United Provinces, in parts of Raj

putana, and in Bihar and represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Brahman and in its lower by the Chamar. Probably the result of the intermixture, in varying proportions, of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head form is long with a tendency to medium, the complexion varies from lightish brown to black, the nose ranges from medium to broad, being always broader than among the Indo Aryans, the stature is lower than in the latter group, and usually below the average according to the scale. The higher representatives of this type approach the Indo Aryans, while the lower members are in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. The type is essentially a mixed one, yet its characteristics are readily definable, and no one would take even an upper class Hindustani for a pure Indo-Aryan or a Chamar for a genuine Dravidian. The distinctive feature of the type, the character which gives the racial clue to its origin and stamps the Aryo-Dravidian as racially different from the Indo-Aryan is to be found in the proportions of the nose.

The Mongolo-Dravidian or Bengali type of Lower Bengal and Orissa, comprising the Bengal Brahmins and Kayasthas the Mahomedans of Eastern Bengal and other groups peculiar to this part of India. Probably a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad, complexion dark, hair on face usually plentiful, stature medium, nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India, and its members may be recognised at a glance throughout the wide area where their remarkable aptitude for clerical pursuits has procured them employment. Within its own habitat the type extends to the Himalayas on the north and to Assam on the east, and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa, the western limit coincides approximately with the hilly country of Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal.

The Mongoloid type of the Himalayas, Nepal, Assam and Burma represented by the Kamats of Lahul and Kulu, the Lepchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim, the Limbus, Murmis and Gurungs of Nepal, the Bodo of Assam, and the Burmese. The head is broad, complexion dark, with a yellow tinge, hair on face scanty, stature short or below average, nose fine to broad, face characteristically flat, eyelids often oblique.

The Dravidian type extending from Ceylon to the valley of the Ganges and pervading Madras, Hyderabad, the Central Provinces, most of Central India and Chota Nagpur. Its most characteristic representatives are the Panjyans of Malabar and the Santals of Chota Nagpur. Probably the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. In typical specimens the stature is short or below mean, the complexion very dark, approaching black, hair plentiful, with an occasional tendency to curl, eyes dark, head long, nose very broad, sometimes depressed at the root, but not so as to make the face appear

Asiatic. This race the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest-clad ranges, terraced plateau and undulating plains which stretch roughly speaking from the Vindhya to Cape Comorin. On the east and the west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is continuous with the Ghats, while further north it reaches on one side to the Aravallis, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills. Where the original characteristics have been unchanged by contact with Indo-Aryan or Mongoloid people the type is remarkably uniform and distinctive. Labour is the birthright of the pure Dravidian whether hoeing tea in Assam, the Duars of Ceylon, cutting rice in the swamps of Eastern Bengal or doing scavenger's work in the streets of Calcutta, Bangalore and Singapore: he is recognizable at a glance by his black skin, his

squat figure, and the negro-like proportion of his nose. In the upper strata of the vast social deposit which is here treated as Dravidian these typical characteristics tend to thin and disappear, but even among them traces of the original stock survive in varying degrees.

The areas occupied by these various types do not admit of being defined as sharply as they must be shown on an ethnographic map. They melt into each other insensibly and, although at the close of a day's journey from one ethnic tract to another an observer whose attention had been directed to the subject would realize clearly enough that the physical characteristics of the people had undergone an appreciable change, he would certainly be unable to say at what particular stage in his progress the transformation had taken place.

MAIN STATISTICS OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE

The Indian Empire has an area of 1,805,332 square miles, about 3,000 square miles being added at the last census owing to the enumeration by estimate of certain tracts in Burma which had been excluded from previous censuses.

Of the total area 1,094,300 square miles, or 61 per cent lie in British Territory, while the Indian States cover an area of 711,032 square miles or 39 per cent. The total population is 318,942,480, British Territory containing 247,003,293 persons, or 77 per cent., and the Indian States 71,939,187 persons, or 23 per cent. of the whole population. It is usual to illustrate

these figures by comparison with the countries of Europe and in respect of area and population the Indian Empire has been frequently compared to Europe without Russia. The war has, however, considerably altered the national and political distribution of countries and the new political map of Europe is perhaps hardly yet sufficiently familiar to form a graphic contrast. Turning further west we find that India, with an area about half that of the United States has a population almost three times as large.

The most important statistics are set out in the following table:—

	India	British Provinces	Indian States
Area in Square Miles	1,805,332	1,004,300	711,032
Number of Towns and Villages	687,981	600,088	187,893
(a) Towns	2,316	1,561	75
(b) Villages	685,665	498,527	187,138
Number of Occupied Houses	65,198,389	50,441,636	14,756,753
(a) In Towns	6,765,014	5,046,820	1,718,194
(b) In Villages	58,433,375	45,394,816	13,038,559
Total Population	318,942,480	247,003,293	71,939,187
(a) In Towns	32,475,276	15,044,368	7,430,908
(b) In Villages	286,467,204	221,958,925	64,508,279
Males	163,995,554	126,872,116	37,123,438
(a) In Towns	17,845,248	13,971,136	3,874,112
(b) In Villages	146,150,306	112,900,980	33,249,326
Females	154,946,926	120,131,177	34,815,749
(a) In Towns	14,630,028	11,073,232	3,556,796
(b) In Villages	140,316,898	109,057,945	31,258,953

Density—Over the whole of India the population per square mile averages 177, the mean density in the British Provinces being 226 and in the States 101. If the districts (and small States) are taken as a unit, and the cities are excluded the mean density ranges between a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 1,882 per square mile. The unequal distribution of the population of India is due to causes analysed in previous editions of the Year Book, it is chiefly dictated by physical conditions. Other influences are at work, such as the state of law and order, the means of communication, climate, and the existence of irrigation. Industrial factors are becoming more and more important as the population moves out of the congested rural tracts to supply the labour needed for industrial enterprise—for the tea in Assam,

the docks and jute mills of Calcutta, the minerals of Bengal and Chota Nagpur, the cotton of Bombay and the coffee and rubber of Southern India. For the purposes of comparison the manner in which the population is distributed in other countries of the world is indicated in the following statement—

Belgium	654
England and Wales	649
France	184
Germany	332
The Netherlands	544
Austria	199
Spain	107
Japan	216
United States	32
New Zealand	1 18

MOVEMENT OF THE POPULATION

The population of India has increased by 1.2 per cent. during the decade. The figures of previous censuses with the variations per cent. are given below. The average increase since the census of 1872 falls at a rate of 3.5 per cent., but the real gain is considerably less than this figure owing to two factors (a) the additions of area and population included in each census and (b) the progressive increase in the accuracy of the enumeration from census to census. So far as the present census is concerned the additional area and population included amount to 2,675 square miles and 86,583 persons, respectively, while for the present purpose it may be taken that the enumeration of 1921 was, as regards numbers, as accurate but not more accurate than that of 1911. The real increase in the population during the last 49 years is thus estimated at about fifty four millions or 20.1 per cent.

Census of	Population	Variation per cent. since previous census
1872	206,162,860	—
1881	253,636,330	+ 23.2
1891	287,314,671	+ 13.2
1901	294,341,056	+ 2.5
1911	31,156,398	+ 7.1
1921	318,942,480	+ 1.2

Factors in the Movement—The increase was slightly greater in the British districts (1.3) than in the States (1.0). Assam and Burma show comparatively high rates of increase, immigration is an important factor in the rise in Assam, but neither of these Provinces was exposed to the invasion of influenza which wiped out the whole of the natural increase in the Central Provinces and Berar, Bihar and Orissa, and Bombay, and substantially reduced the population in the United Provinces and Rajputana, the Central India Agency and Hyderabad State. The stimulus given to agricultural prosperity in the Punjab by a large expansion of canal irrigation did much to neutralise the effects of the high death rate in 1918. In Bengal and Madras unhealthy conditions were more localised and the development of the population was only partially retarded.

The War—The war itself had little direct effect on the population of India. Such effect could operate in three ways: (1) by death casualties, (2) by increasing the number of persons outside India at the census, and (3) by decreasing the birth rate. The actual number of death casualties among the officers and ranks of Indian Army units and labour corps was 88,238. The maximum number serving out of India in combatant and labour units at any one time between 1914 and 1919 was, approximately, Indian troops 250,000, labour corps 230,000, total 480,000; the number about the time of the census being troops 105,000, labour corps 20,800, total 125,800. So far as the larger totals are concerned the war is not a direct factor of any importance in the census in any province.

Economic Conditions—In considering the economic factors which determined the movement of the population during the decade it can be divided into two periods, a fairly normal period from 1911 to 1917 and the disastrous epidemic year 1918, accompanied by scarcity and followed by a second crop failure in 1920. In 1917 conditions in India began to respond to the world conditions of the war, men for the fighting and labour units and food, munitions and war material of all kinds were demanded. The strain on the railway organisation dislocated the local markets and the distribution system of the country was impaired. The rising prices of imported necessities hit the poorer classes. Then followed the disastrous seasons of 1918 and 1919. Famine relief organisation is now so highly perfected in India that scarcity is not necessarily accompanied by high mortality but influenza, starting in 1918, visited almost every portion of the country and in a few months wiped out the natural increase in the population of the previous seven years.

Public Health—The distinctive feature of the decade 1901-1911 was plague. The recorded number of deaths from plague in the ten years was 6½ millions. In the recent decade the deaths were less than half that number. Cholera is normally most prevalent in the Eastern Provinces.

Virulent as the epidemic can still be with its hold is established it is now usually of a temporary and local nature, and the total death-rate in British India from the disease during the decade did not amount to more than 1.5 per cent. By far the largest number of deaths

in India are entered under the category of "fever" and allowing for inaccuracy of diagnosis it has usually been assumed that about two-thirds of the deaths so recorded may be ascribed to malaria. Recent investigations made in special areas however, suggest that this proportion has been considerably over-estimated and that malaria only accounts for from one fifth to one-fourth of the number of reported fever cases, the remainder being cases of dysentery, pneumonia, phthisis and other diseases.

In the last few years the prevalence of an affection which is the cause of considerable mortality called *Relapsing Fever* has received considerable attention by the Health Department. This disease has been diagnosed as common in most parts of the country, specially in the northern provinces and in the Central Provinces and Berar and Bombay, but the extent of the mortality which can be ascribed to it cannot at present be estimated. Nor can figures be given of phthisis which is undoubtedly responsible for considerable mortality, especially in the towns of western India, the deaths from this disease in Ahmedabad amounting in 1918 to 5 per mille of the population. All other factors in the health of the people have been overshadowed by the influenza epidemic of 1918 and 1919 which has dominated the population figures at the 1921 census.

Influenza.—The influenza epidemic of 1918 invaded India in two distinct waves. The first infection apparently radiated from Bombay, but it is impossible to say where the more virulent virus of the second invasion came from.

The rural areas were most severely infected the reason probably being that while villages have little advantage over towns in the matter of overcrowding, sanitation and ventilation the urban areas have the benefit of qualified medical aid and organised effort. Mortality was specially high among adults (20-40), particularly among adult females, the disease being generally fatal to women in pregnancy. At the worst period whole villages were absolutely laid desolate by the disease. There was some times no means of disposing of the dead, crops were left unharvested and all local official action was largely paralysed, owing to the fact that the majority of the official staff were put out of action by the epidemic. To add to the distress the disease came at a period of widespread crop failure and reached its climax in November when the cold weather had set in and, as the price of cloth happened at the time to be at its highest, many were unable to provide themselves with the warm clothing that was essential in the case of an illness that so readily attacked the lungs. The disease lasted in most provinces well into 1919 and gave a high mortality in that year in Bengal and the United Provinces. Even after it had subsided there were in the Central Provinces, Bombay and Burma mild recrudescences later in the year, while local outbreaks continued over the country during the next two years.

There is no direct means of ascertaining the mortality from the epidemic. Various estimates

have been made based on the excess mortality over some suitable mean. The average of these calculations gives a total number of deaths in the areas under registration of about 7,100,000 in 1918, to which must be added, as the results of similar calculation, another 14 million deaths in 1919 giving a total recorded mortality of nearly 8½ millions in the two years. Even this however, must be a substantial under-estimate since, owing to the complete breakdown of the reporting staff the registration of vital statistics was in many cases suspended during the progress of the epidemic in 1918.

The total influenza mortality for India is put at between 12 and 13 millions. This is a conservative estimate. Even this estimate makes the influenza mortality, a large part of which occurred in three or four months, exceed by nearly two millions the total estimated deaths from plague in twenty years. On an estimated case mortality of ten per cent the total number of persons affected was 125 millions or two fifths of the population of India. There was a further reaction on the birth rate.

Houses and Families.—The average number of persons per house has not changed in the last decade, though there was a decline between 1881 and 1911. The trend of the figures varies in different provinces, but they do not afford substantial ground for any material inference. It would, for example, be expected that the incidence of the influenza mortality would fall fairly evenly upon the individual households and would therefore cause a reduction in the number of persons per house. It does not appear to have done so either in Bombay, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces, or Rajputana, while in Bengal where there is a rise in the population, there is a fall in the size of the household. The figures are unsatisfactory, and though they invite a discussion on the condition of the joint family it is doubtful if they can really be held to illuminate it. The general opinion of the Provincial Superintendents is that they do not do so and that other indications do not show that the joint family system has yet undergone any radical change at any rate in the agricultural tracts of the country.

Census	Persons per house	Houses per square mile
1921	4.9	96.1
1911	4.9	85.8
1901	5.2	81.6
1891	5.4	83.9
1881	5.8	81.7

Variation in Natural Population 1911-1921

Province, State of Agency	POPULATION IN 1921				POPULATION IN 1911				Variation per cent (1911-1921) in Natural Increase (+) Decrease (-)
	Actual population	Immigrant grants	Emigrant grants	Natural population	Actual population	Immigrant grants	Emigrant grants	Natural population	
INDIA	318,885,960	603,526	1,050,551	318,333,403	313,110,231	625,122	1,023,505	315,508,614	-1
Ajmer-Merwara	465,271	109,890	42,420	427,801	501,559	96,578	84,110	488,927	-12
Andamans & Nicobars	27,086	15,120	316	12,282	26,495	14,002	970	13,027	-3
Assam	7,950,216	1,290,157	75,978	6,776,069	7,059,857	832,063	74,293	6,252,083	+8
Baluchistan	709,625	78,387	60,421	781,659	834,703	58,500	76,274	885,478	+3
Bengal	47,592,462	1,929,610	69,017	46,339,849	46,303,442	1,970,778	581,757	44,919,621	+3
Bihar & Orissa	37,991,868	422,214	1,955,018	39,494,662	38,435,293	449,712	1,918,806	38,905,387	+1
Bombay	26,701,118	1,081,619	592,069	26,211,508	27,038,152	995,844	622,831	26,665,139	+6
Burma	13,212,192	706,725	20,265	12,525,762	12,115,217	590,965	14,186	11,538,418	+1
C. P. & Berar	15,979,660	608,504	407,294	15,777,450	16,033,310	719,985	317,233	15,596,508	+1
Coorg	103,838	33,937	2,852	132,753	174,976	45,535	1,862	133,303	+2
Madras	42,794,155	209,862	1,756,462	44,340,755	41,870,169	253,677	1,518,178	43,134,462	+3
N. W. F. Province	5,076,476	157,562	84,465	5,008,409	4,819,027	135,845	67,378	3,751,060	+33
Delhi	488,188	185,770	69,350	371,768	24,187,750	660,219	517,485	24,040,010	+5
Punjab	25,101,060	627,137	549,429	25,023,352	48,014,080	660,085	1,429,310	48,783,305	+9
United Provinces	46,510,668	480,414	1,402,541	47,432,795	2,032,708	225,957	235,528	2,045,369	+3
Baroda State	2,126,322	27,494	221,602	2,115,630	9,350,980	474,255	539,133	9,418,858	+1
Gwalior State	3,186,075	290,340	289,059	3,185,764	5,935,572	47,260	23,268	5,912,112	+8
Central India (Agency)	5,987,023	548,094	486,643	5,935,572	9,181,110	47,260	23,268	9,157,842	+8
Cochin State	97,9080	39,759	28,358	98,767,659	13,374,076	250,713	306,388	13,420,351	+5
Hyderabad State	12,471,770	262,781	903,751	12,632,740	3,158,126	76,773	81,465	3,183,391	+5
Kashmir State	3,320,518	63,420	84,291	3,341,389	5,506,193	312,908	129,607	5,636,802	+5
Mysore State	5,978,892	314,531	102,104	5,766,465	10,530,432	319,533	859,947	11,682,896	+2
Rajputana (Agency)	9,844,384	243,068	868,117	10,469,499	87,920	23,835	33,443	88,153	+10
Sikkim State	81,721	22,978	4,133	62,768	3,425,975	61,166	35,143	3,400,833	+10
Travancore State	4,006,062	73,591	30,250	3,962,721					

NOTES.

- (1) The figures for the Provinces are inclusive of the States attached to them except in the case of Madras where they exclude Cochin and Travancore.
- (2) The Actual and Natural population shown in this table is less by 56,500 persons owing to the exclusion of Aden where Table XI was not compiled.
- (3) Columns 2 and 6.—Persons not enumerated by birth place or whose birth-place was not returned have been included in these columns.
- (4) Columns 4 and 8.—The figures against India in columns 4 and 8 represent emigrants to foreign countries, details of which for 1921 will be found in Subsidary Table V of Chapter III.

Territorial Areas

17

AREA OF INDIA AND THE PROVINCES AND STATES

Province, State or Agency	AREA IN SQUARE MILES IN		Difference, Increase +, Decrease -
	1921	1911	
INDIA	1 805,332	1,802,657	+2,675
<i>Provinces</i>	1,094,300	1,093,074	+1,226
Ajmer Merwara	2,711	2 711	-
Andamans and Nicobars	3 143	3 143	-
Assam	57,015	53 015	-
Baluchistan (Districts and Administered Territories)	54,228	54 228	-
Bengal	76 844	78 099	-1 255
Bihar and Orissa	83,161	83,181	-20
Bombay	123 621	123 050	+571
Burma	233,707	230,839	+2,868
Central Provinces and Berar	99,876	99 823	+53
Coorg	1,582	1,582	-
Madras	142,290	142,330	-40
North West Frontier Province (Districts and Administered Territories)	13 419	13 418	+1
Punjab and Delhi	100 439	99 779	+660
United Provinces	106,295	107,267	-972
<i>States and Agencies</i>	711,032	709,583	+1,449
Assam State (Manipur)	8,456	8,456	-
Baluchistan States	80,410	80,410	-
Baroda State	8,127	8,182	-55
Bengal States	5,434	5,393	+41
Bihar and Orissa States	28 648	28,648	-
Bombay States	63,453	63 864	-411
Central India Agency and Gwalior State	77,888	77,367	+521
Central Provinces States	31 176	31,174	+2
Hyderabad State	82,698	82,698	-
Kashmir State	84,258	84,432	-174
Madras States	10,696	10,549	+147
Mysore State	29,475	29,475	-
North West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal Areas)	25 500	25,500	-
Punjab States	37,059	36,551	+508
Rajputana (Agency)	128,967	128,967	-
Sikkim State	2,818	2,818	-
United Provinces States	5,919	5,079	+840

NOTE.—The difference in areas is due to the use of revised survey figures and to corrections for survey action, in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Punjab and the United Provinces it is due to inter-provincial transfers.

THE POPULATION OF INDIA AT SIX CENSUSES

		India	British Provinces	Indian States
Total Population	1921	318,042,480	247,009,293	71,033,187
	1911	315,156,396	243,938,178	71,223,218
	1901	294,961,056	231,259,098	63,701,958
	1891	287,114,671	220,879,388	66,235,283
	1881	253,896,330	198,545,380	55,350,950
	1872	206,162,360	184,856,172	21,306,188
Males	1921	163,995,554	126,872,116	37,123,438
	1911	161,378,935	124,707,915	36,671,020
	1901	140,951,824	117,462,636	23,489,188
	1891	140,769,620	112,491,551	28,278,069
	1881	129,049,290	101,165,117	27,884,173
	1872	106,055,545	95,136,615	10,918,930
Males	1921	154,946,926	120,131,177	34,815,749
	1911	151,817,461	119,225,263	32,592,198
	1901	144,409,232	113,776,262	30,632,970
	1891	140,545,042	108,484,837	32,060,205
	1881	123,947,040	97,380,263	26,566,777
	1872	100,106,815	89,721,557	10,385,258

Future Population of India.—A study of the growth of the population of India and the problems which it presents is vitiated by the normal conditions of the past decade. It is pointed out in the census report of 1911 that the rate of increase of population between 1872 and 1911 was equivalent to about per cent. and that at this rate the population would double itself in about a century and a half. The real increase in the last fifty years in the population of India is just over 20 per cent. At this rate the doubling will take other 190 years. But calculations of this kind, though of interest, can hardly be taken seriously. Almost every one of the last five decades has witnessed some special disaster. A severe famine in South India checked the increase in the decade 1872-1881. The decennium 1881-1901 was dominated by the great lines of the closing period. Growth in North and Western India was checked in the preceding decade by plague and we have had the past decennium an epidemic which has caused more concentrated mortality than any previous calamity. The decade 1881-1901 alone

was free from any exceptional calamity and is usually considered a period of fairly normal progress.

Difference between the birth rate and death rate estimated by the actuary for certain provinces in certain decades

Province	1881-1891	1901-1911
Bengal	7.0	7.8
Bombay	13.9	5.2
Burma		11.1
Madras	13.3	8.5
Punjab	9.8	5.7
United Provinces	6.5	0.6
Combined Provinces		8.2

TOWN AND COUNTRY.

The progress of urbanisation in India—if there has been any progress at all—has been very slow during the past thirty years, the rate of increase being less than one per cent. Examination of the statistics shows that 1st towns with populations above 50,000, increased by over 16 per cent. in the decade, increase was considerably less in those

between 5,000 and 50,000 whereas the population of towns between 10 to 20 thousand did not keep abreast of the progress of the general population of the country. The statistics reveal the gradual decadence of the medium-size country towns and the growth of the larger cities under the influence of commercial and industrial development.

Population of the Chief Towns.

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DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN GROUPS OF TOWNS ACCORD- ING TO SIZE AND IN RURAL TERRITORY

Class of places	1921		1921
	Places	Population	Per cent
Total Population	687,935	316,017,751	100.0
Urban Territory	2,313	32,418,776	10.2
Towns having—			
I 100,000 and over	35	8,211,704	2.6
II 50,000 to 100,000	54	8,517,749	1.1
III 20,000 to 50,000	199	5,925,675	1.8
IV 10,000 to 20,000	450	6,209,583	2.0
V 5,000 to 10,000	885	6,223,011	2.0
VI Under 5,000	690	2,331,054	7
Rural Territory	685,622	283,598,975	89.8

Cities—Statistical information for the 33 largest cities of India which have 100,000 or more inhabitants is given in the statement below—

CITY	Popu- lation 1921	Number of per- sons per sq. mile	Propor- tion of foreign born per mille	Percentage of variation 1911-21
Calcutta with suburbs and Howrah	1,927,547	21,412	629	+ 4.8
Bombay	1,175,914	48,998	840	+20.1
Madras and Cantonment	526,911	18,169	335	+ 1.6
Hyderabad and Cantonment	404,187	7,925	275	+10.4
Rangoon and Cantonment	841,962	4,500	677	+16.6
Delhi and Cantonment	404,420	4,683	450	+30.7
Lahore and Cantonment	281,781	6,715	440	+23.2
Ahmedabad and Cantonment	274,007	24,909	397	+17.7
Lucknow and Cantonment	240,566	1,350	220	— 4.6
Bangalore	237,496	20,931	340	+25.3
Karachi and Cantonment	216,883	19,716	605	+42.8
Cawnpore and Cantonment	216,436	22,620	425	+21.2
Poona and Cantonment	214,796	5,369	873	+13.8
Benares and Cantonment	198,447	19,930	140	— 2.6
Agra and Cantonment	185,512	11,000	119	
Amritsar and Cantonment	180,218	16,534	181	+ 4.9
Allahabad and Cantonment	157,220	10,250	266	— 8.4
Mandlay and Cantonment	148,917	5,917	209	+ 7.7
Nagpur	145,193	7,259	258	+43.2
Srinagar	141,735	15,653	21	+8.9
Madura	138,894	17,105	178	+ 2.8
Bareilly and Cantonment	129,459	16,800	128	
Meerut and Cantonment	122,609	15,542	210	+ 5.1
Trichinopoly and Cantonment	120,422	13,622	176	— 2.5
Jalpur	120,207	40,069	63	—12.3
Patna	119,976	7,998	160	—11.9
Bhopalpur	119,581	17,083	391	+94.9
Dacca	119,460	17,566	140	+10.9
Buxar and Cantonment	117,434	39,144	183	+ 2.2
Ajmer	113,512	6,677	537	+51.7
Jubbulpore and Cantonment	108,793	7,252	266	+ 6.1
Rawar and Cantonment	104,452	34,817	349	+ 6.7
Rawalpindi and Cantonment	101,142	11,862	532	+17.0

In these statistics the population of Calcutta is taken as embracing the suburbs, and this method is apparently adopted in dealing with Calcutta only. It is not, for instance, adopted in dealing with the considerable suburbs of Bombay just outside the limits of the Island. The actual population of Calcutta within the Municipal area is 885,815.

Migration.—Of the population of the Indian Empire only 603,526 were enumerated as born in other parts of the world. Of these about four-fifths came from other Asiatic countries such as Nepal, Afghanistan, China, Siam, Ceylon and Arabia and the remainder mostly from Great Britain and other countries of Europe. The emigration from India is approximately 17 million so the numbers who move between India and other countries is about two millions. Of the total immigrant population of 707,000 in Burma 673,000 are Indians, 102,000 Chinese representing 80 and 15 per cent respectively of the whole number. Of the Provinces which contribute most largely to the streams of migrants the most conspicuous are Bihar and Orissa about 1½ million, the United Provinces about 1 million, Madras ½ of a million, Rajputana 3/8 of a million and Hyderabad 1/8 of a million. The number of persons resident in India who were born outside the Indian Empire is 603,526 and of these 274,000 were born in Nepal, 116,000 in the British Isles, 104,000 in China and 48,000 in Afghanistan.

The statistics of emigration outside India are far from complete.

The number of Indians belonging to regiments and labour-corps outside India at the time of the census was about 125,000. Of these the majority were probably in Mesopotamia and Palestine. According to the returns

the number of Indians in the colonies, irrespective of birth-place, amounts to 1,023,000, of whom 1,023,000 or about two-thirds are males. More than four-fifths are Hindus and about half of the remainder are Mussalmans. The colonies which attract an appreciable number of emigrants are shown below. About one-ninth of the emigrants failed to specify their province of birth, and of the remainder no less than 841,000 or 80 per cent were from Madras, 24,000 from Bombay, 18,000 from the Punjab, 17,000 from the North West Frontier Province and 11,000 from Bengal. The majority of the emigrants work as agricultural labourers on rubber, tea, coffee and other plantations. Under the Defence of India Rules indentured labour emigration was stopped in March 1917 but there had been a considerable outflow of labourers to the colonies in the previous years and more than 2½ millions of natives of India passed through the ports of Madras and Calcutta as indentured labourers for the various colonies during the decade. Of the labourers 33,000 went from Calcutta, but the bulk were from the Madras Presidency and their destination was Ceylon and the Straits Settlements. There is very little emigration from the ports of Bombay and Karachi. Altogether about two million labourers returned to India from the colonies during the decade.

Indian emigrants to certain Colonies

	In thousands
Ceylon	461
Straits Settlements and Malay	401
Natal	47
Trinidad	37
Zanzibar	38
Mauritius	17
Kenya	17

RELIGIONS

The subject of religion is severely controversial in India where often it is coloured by politics and racialism. As the Year Book aims at being impartial all disputed inferences are excluded. Speaking broadly of every hundred persons in the Indian Empire 68 are Hindus, 22 Mahomedans, 3 Buddhists, 3 follow the religion of their tribes, one is a Christian

and one a Sikh. Of the remaining 2 one is equally likely to be a Buddhist or a Christian, and the other most probably a Jain, much less probably a Parsi and just as possibly either a Jew, a Brahmo or a holder of indefinite beliefs. The enumerated totals of the Indian religions are set out in the following table—

Religion	Actual number in 1921 (000's omitted)	Proportion per 10,000 of population in 1921	Variation per cent. (Increase + Decrease—), 1911-1921
Indo-Aryan	232,723	7,362	+ 1
Hindu	216,735	6,856	— 4
Brahmanic	216,281	6,841	— 5
Arya	468	15	+ 92.1
Brahmo	6	2	+ 16.1
Sikh	3,239	103	+ 7.4
Jain	1,178	37	— 6.6
Buddhist	11,571	366	+ 7.9
Iranian [Zoroastrian (Parsi)]	102	3	+ 1.7
Semitic	73,511	2,325	+ 4.2
Mussalman	68,735	2,174	+ 5.1
Christian	4,764	150	+ 23.6
Jew	22	6	+ 3.8
Primitive (Tribal)	9,775	309	— 5.1
Miscellaneous (Minor Religions and religions not returned)	18	1	— 51.5

The Hindus largely predominate in the centre and south of India, and in the Madras Presidency they are no less than 89 per cent of the population. Hindus are in the majority in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Central India tracts Rajputana and Bombay. Muhammadans monopolise the North West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and Kashmir and are considerably in excess in the Punjab and Eastern Bengal and Sind. They form about 28 per cent of the population of Assam, 14 per cent in the United Provinces and 10 per cent in Hyderabad. The Buddhists are almost entirely confined to Burma where they are 85 per cent of the population. The Sikhs are localized in the Punjab and the Jains in Rajputana, Ajmer Merwara and the neighbouring States. Those who were classed as following Tribal Religions are chiefly found in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam but Bengal, Burma, Madras, Rajputana, Central India and Hyderabad also returned a considerable number under this head. More than three fifths of the total number of Christians reside in South India including the Hyderabad State. The remainder are scattered over the continent,

the larger numbers being returned in the Punjab, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma, Bombay and Assam. The Parsis and Jews are chiefly residents of the Bombay Presidency.

Christians—The Christian community now numbers just 4½ millions of persons in India or 1½ per cent of the population. Fifty nine per cent of Christians are returned from the Madras Presidency and its States and the community can claim 32 persons in every 1,000 of the population of the British districts of Madras and as large a proportion as 27 per cent in Cochin and 29 per cent in Travancore, where the increase during the decade was about 30 per cent. Elsewhere the Christians are scattered over the larger Provinces and States of India, the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa each having over 300 thousands, Bombay, Burma and the United Provinces between 200 and 300 thousands and Bengal and Assam between 100 and 150 thousands. Divided racially Europeans (and allied races) number 176 thousands, Anglo-Indians 113 thousands and Indians nearly 4½ millions, so that out of every 100 Christians 93 are Indians, 4 are Europeans and 3 are Anglo-Indians.

SECTS OF CHRISTIANS

Sect	Total	
	1921	1911
INDIA	4,753,174	3,878,958
Abyssinian	1	25
Anglican Communion	538,180	492,752
Armenian	1,487	1,200
Baptist	444,479	337,226
Congregationalist	129,018	135,265
Greek	237	594
Lutheran	240,818	218,500
Methodist	308,185	171,844
Minor Protestant Denominations	26,852	12,469
Presbyterian	254,828	181,130
Protestants (Unsectarian or Sect not specified)	73,909	32,180
Quaker	1,036	1,245
Roman Catholic	1,823,079	1,490,983
Salvationist	88,922	52,407
South India United Church	65,747	
Syrian, Chaldean	1,926	13,780
Syrian, Jacobite	252,969	225,190
Syrian, Nestorian	97	
Syrian, Reformed	112,017	75,84
Syrian, Romo-Syrian	423,968	413,142
Syrian, Unspecified	559	344
Sect not returned	75,904	17,954

AGE AND SEX.

The figures of the total population of India are not tabulated by annual age periods but the table below gives the age distribution of 10 000 males and females in the Indian population

Age-group	1921		1911	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
0—5	1,202	1,316	1,327	1,433
5—10	1,471	1,494	1,383	1,383
10—15	1,215	1,081	1,165	997
15—20	812	815	848	826
20—25	775	881	822	930
25—30	865	885	898	909
30—35	825	893	829	835
35—40	636	565	622	556
40—45	621	621	634	631
45—50	602	316	380	338
50—55	434	438	432	443
55—60	185	195	177	181
60—65	268	298	257	305
65—70	81	79	83	71
70 & over	160	180	141	175
Mean age	21.8	24.7	24.7	21.7

In the whole of British India the infant death rate amounts to about one fifth of the total death rate for all ages and about one fifth of the children die before the age of one year. The ratios of deaths vary in different provinces the birth rate being an important factor. Thus they are specially high in the United Provinces and Central Provinces where the birth rate is high and low in Madras which has a lower general birth rate. The recorded rates in some of the cities are phenomenally high but may owing to the defective reporting of births, be somewhat exaggerated.

Special causes contribute to the high mortality of infants in India. Owing to the custom of early marriage co-habitation and child birth commonly take place before the woman is physically mature and this combined with the primitive and insanitary methods of midwifery seriously affects the health and vitality of the mother and through her of the child. Available statistics show that over 40 per cent of the deaths of infants occur in the first week after birth and over 60 per cent in the first month. If the child survives the pre natal and natal chances of congenital debility and the risks of child birth it is exposed to the dangers of death in the early months of life from diarrhoea or dysentery.

Infant mortality in Cities

Bombay	556
Calcutta	386
Rangoon	303
Madras	282
Karachi	249
Delhi	233

Sex Ratio.—In the whole of India there is an excess of males over females, the figures being 945 females per thousand males. These results being opposed to experience in most other countries of the world have been challenged and attributed to errors in the Indian census. This reasoning is rejected by the Census authorities, who insist that the disparity between the sexes is due to special conditions in the Indian Empire. The sex ratio has fallen in the last twenty years throughout India. The statistics of birth suggest that the proportion of females born to males born has if anything, declined during this period and in any case there has been a marked decline in the last five years of the last decade in most provinces. The decline in the proportion of women however is chiefly due to (a) the absence of female mortality which selects adversely to males and (b) the heavy mortality from plague and influenza which has selected adversely to females.

Marriage.—The subject of polygamy has been discussed fully in the report of 1911. Both Hindus and Muhammadans are allowed more wives than one Muhammadans being nominally restricted to four. As a matter of practice polygamy is comparatively rare owing to domestic and economic reasons and has little effect on the statistics. The table shows the number of married women per 1 000 married men in India and the main provinces. No definite conclusions however can be drawn from these figures because (1) they probably contain a certain number of widows divorcees and prostitutes who have wrongly returned as married and (2) it is impossible accurately to gauge the effect of migration on the figures of the married in any area. The custom of polyandry is recognized as a regular institution among some of the tribes of the Himalayas and in parts of south India. It is also practised among many of the lower castes and aboriginal tribes. Its effect is reflected in the statistics of a few small communities such as the Buddhists of Kashmir where the proportion of married women to married men is exceptionally low, but otherwise the custom is of sociological rather than of statistical interest.

Number of married females per 1,000 males

India	1,008
Assam	976
Bengal	966
Bihar and Orissa	1,034
Bombay	967
Burma	924
C P and Berar	1,024
Madras	1,061
Punjab	1,021
United Provinces	1,013

Widows.—The proportion of widows in the populations, 42, 6.4 per cent, does not differ widely from the figure for European countries, but the number of widows is strikingly

large. The large number of Indian widows is due partly to the early age of marriage, partly to the disparity in the ages of the husbands and wives but chiefly to the prejudice against the remarriage of widows. The higher castes of Hindus forbid it altogether and, as the custom

is held to be a mark of social respectability, many of the more ambitious of the lower castes have adopted it by way of raising their social status, while Muhammadans who are closely brought into touch with their Hindu neighbours are apt to share the prejudice.

Proportion of widows in the population per 1,000

Age	India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911	Age	India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911
All ages	175.0	73.2	20-25	71.5	1.5
0-5	7		25-35	146.0	13.1
5-10	4.5		35-45	325.2	50.5
10-15	16.8		45-55	610.4	103.3
15-20	41.4		55 and over	834.0	565.0

Early Marriage—The figures clearly show an increase in the numbers of those in the early age categories who are still unmarried. The movement is most marked in the Hindu community but is shared by the other religions,

the change being less noticeable among the Buddhist and Christian communities who are not addicted to early marriage. The change is most conspicuous in the age categories 10 to 15 for women and 10 to 20 for men.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

Literacy—The number of persons in India literate in the sense of being able to write a letter and read the reply is 22.6 millions amounting, if children under five years of age are excluded, to 82 in every thousand of the population. Of males 139 in every thousand at age five and above are literate, the corresponding proportion in the case of females being 21.

The Hindus have one literate person in every thirteen, for males the ratio is one in eight and for females one in sixty three. The proportion of Sikh males who are literate is less than that of Hindus. One Mahomedan male in 11 and one female in 116 can read and write. The low position of Mussalmans is partly due to the fact that in Bengal the Punjab, North West Frontier Province and Sind, where they predominate, they are mostly agricultural. Where they are in a minority, as in the Central Provinces United Provinces and Madras, they are usually town dwellers and have a considerably higher proportion of literates. The Hindu community embraces every stratum of society and the proportion of literacy is seriously affected by the inclusion of the vast mass of the lower rural classes. Some of the higher Hindu castes have more literate males than the Parsis whilst others are on a level with or even below the aboriginal tribes.

English—In the whole of India 2.6 million persons or 160 males and 18 females in every ten thousand persons of each sex aged five and over can read and write English.

One in thirty males in Bengal and one in twenty-three in Bombay are literate in English.

In Madras Assam and Burma the proportion is 2 per cent. while in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and the United Provinces it is below 1 per cent. Of the States Cochin and Travancore have between 3 and 4 per cent. but in others the proportions are much lower. More than half the number of Parsi males and one fourth of their females can read and write English. Of Christians nearly all the Europeans and many of the Anglo Indian are literate in English, but except on the southern coast English literacy is rare among the Indian Christians and the regional proportions therefore largely follow the racial distribution. Though the proportions in the other communities taken on the total populations, are small, some of the higher castes have a fairly large number of English knowing members. In Bengal about half of the Baidya males and a quarter of the Brahman and Kayastha males are literate in English, while in Madras more than a quarter of the Tamil Brahmans can claim this accomplishment. Of the Jains in Kathiawar nearly a tenth are literate in English though the Chaturth Jains of Kolhapur, who are cultivators, are less literate than the average of the Presidency. During the decade the number of males knowing English rose by 51 per cent. and that of females by 57 per cent. Among the main Provinces the greatest progress has been made by Bengal, Assam and Bombay and in the States by Cochin, Travancore, Mysore and Baroda.

Languages—In the whole Indian Empire 252 languages were returned at the census, dialects, as has been previously explained, not having been separately considered. The principal

pal languages are given in the following statement —

Language	Number of speakers in (000's omitted)		Percent age of increase or decrease
	1921	1911	
Western Hindi	96,714	95,041	+ 1
Bengali	49,294	48,368	+ 2
Telugu	20,601	23,543	+ 2
Marathi	18,798	19,807	- 5
Tamil	18,780	18,128	+ 4
Punjabi	16,234	15,877	+ 2
Rajasthani	12,681	14,068	- 10
Kanarese	10,374	10,526	- 1
Oriya	10,143	10,162	- 2
Gujarati	9,552	9,238	+ 3
Burmese	8,423	7,894	+ 7
Malayalam	7,498	6,702	+ 10
Lahnda or Western Punjabi	5,652	4,779	+ 18

The necessity of a common medium of conversation and intercourse, which has given rise to bilingualism and the consequent displace-

ment of tribal languages, has formed the subject of a considerable amount of discussion and suggestion during the last decade and a good deal has been written on the possibility of a *lingua franca* for India. The combined speakers of Eastern and Western Hindi considerably exceed in number the strength of any other individual language in India and if we add to these two languages Bihari and Rajasthani, which so resemble Hindi as to be frequently returned under that name in the census schedules, we get well over 100 millions of speakers of tongues which have some considerable affinities and cover a very large area of northern and central India. In their pure forms these four languages may be scientifically distinct but this is not the popular view. There is a common element in the main languages of northern and central India which renders their speakers, without any great conscious change in their speech mutually intelligible to one another, and this common basis already forms an approach to a *lingua franca* over a large part of India.

Infirmities.—These are classes under four main heads—insanity, deaf mutism, blindness and leprosy. The appended statement shows the number of persons suffering from each infirmity at each of the last five censuses and the proportion per hundred thousand of the population —

Infirmity	NUMBER AFFLICTED WITH RATIO PER HUNDRED THOUSAND OF THE POPULATION				
	1921	1911	1901	1891	1881
Insane	88,306 23	81,006 26	66,805 23	74,279 27	81,132 85
Deaf mutes ..	189,644 60	199,891 64	153,168 52	196,861 75	197,215 86
Blind	479,637 152	443,653 142	354,104 121	458,868 167	526,748 229
Lepers	102,513 32	109,094 35	97,340 33	127,244 46	191,968 57
TOTAL .	860,099 272	833,644 267	670,817 229	856,252 316	937,063 407

There had been a continuous decline in the total number as well as in the proportion of persons recorded as afflicted up to 1901. This fall has been ascribed, partly, to a progressive improvement in the accuracy of the diagnosis and, partly, to an actual decrease in the prevalence of the infirmities, owing to the improvement in the material condition of the people to better sanitation and (especially in the case of blindness) to the increasing number of cures effected with the aid of modern medical and surgical science. In the decade ending 1901 the relatively high mortality of the afflicted in the two severe families must have been a considerable factor in the decline shown at that census, but the method of compilation adopted in 1901 and in the previous census was defective and, certainly in 1901, many of the persons

afflicted must have escaped notice in the course of tabulation. Compared with the year 1891, there was a slight decrease in the total number of persons recorded as afflicted in 1911, the proportion per hundred thousand persons falling from 315 to 267. The small increase in the present decade amounting to 23,455 persons or one per 100,000 may be due to improvement in record and tabulation but is certainly unexpected.

Caste.—The enormous complexity of the caste system makes it impossible to give more than the briefest results here, the curious must be referred to the extensive literature on the subject, and to the whole chain of census reports where it is discussed in various aspects. All we can do here is to give the census figures of the main castes, with a comparison with 1911,

Variation in certain main castes.

CASTE	PERSONS	
	1921	1911
Ahir	9 032,861	9,481,194
Araia	1,119,486	996,222
Babhan	1,167,878	1 204,379
Bagdi	806,397	1,016,738
Baliya	1 042 097	1,041,346
Baluch	1,324 053	1,334,766
Baniya	2 726 007	2,085,437
Banjara	651 927	806,020
Barhai	960 017	1 033 879
Bhil	1 795 808	1,590,890
Brahman	14,254 991	14,668,472
Burmese	8,370 152	7 643,742
Chamar	11,224 557	11 448,786
Chuhra	1,146 779	1,254,150
Dhobi	2,020,531	2,029,495
Dosadh	1,167,686	1,189,274
Fakir	790 714	865,511
Gadaria	1 298,770	1 840 631
Golla	1,416,768	1,515,794
Gond	2 902,592	2,995,588
Gujar	2 179,485	2,195,168
Hajjam	2,905 724	2,972,928
Jat	7 374 817	6 887,655
Jolaha	2,698,132	2 739,623
Kachhi	1 228 590	1 281 515
Kahar	1,707,223	1 726 546
Kalbaratta	2 877,768	2,711,960
Kamma	1,180,984	1,126 095
Kammalan	1 288 711	1 047 585
Kapu	3,379,328	3,327,179
Karen	1,042,131	1,102,695
Kayastha	2,312 245	2,133,313
Kewat	1,150 427	1,129,799
Kolri	1 680 615	1,726,977
Koli	2,499 014	3,184,968
Kori	837,025	900,062
Kumhar	3,353 029	3,423,942
Kunbi	3,194,694	4,512,182
Kurmi	3,574,808	3 707,990
Lingayat	2,738,214	2,968,440
Lodha	1,616,662	1,703,556
Lohar	1,546 313	1,517,587
Kamar	779 886	796,431
Madiga	1,687 857	1,920,462
Mahar	3,002 516	3,325,712
Mal	1,966,414	2,067,521
Mali	1 875,610	1,939,869
Mappilla	1 108,385	1,044,557
Maratha	6,566,334	4,972,954
Mochi	923 714	926,426
Namasudra	2,172,623	2,083,547

Variation in certain main castes—contd

CASTE	PERSONS	
	1901	1911
Nayar	1 311 112	1,127,264
Pañi	2 809 093	2,820,161
Paraiyan	2,407 309	2,447,370
Parai	1,488 582	1 461 902
Pathan	3,517,868	3,629,534
Rajbansl	1 818,674	1 914 869
Koch	380 602	367 100
Rajput	9 772 518	9 400,885
Kalyid	1 801 247	1 514,620
Bantol	2 265 282	2,127,878
Sheikh	3 148 900	31 851,028
Sindhi	858 051	1 637 486
Sonar	1 147,611	1 180,624
Teli or Tili	4 159 479	4,178,145
Vakkalika	1 302 552	1,346 758
Vellala	2 716,159	2,692 282

There has been much discussion of recent years of the position and numbers of the Depressed Classes—a term which has never been accurately defined but which may be described as the classes outside the pale of

Hindu Society. Their numbers are given in the census as between 55 and 60 millions.

The main figures of Europeans and Anglo-Indians are given below—

Province State or Agency	European and Allied Races in 1921			Total European and Allied Races in 1911	Anglo Indians	
	British Subjects	Others	Total		1921	1911
India	163 618	10 129	174 057	197 639	113 012	100 420
Provinces	148 525	9 124	157 649	178 130	98 529	86 196
States and Agencies	15 093	1 005	16 408	19 509	16 483	14 224

OCCUPATIONS.

India is essentially an agricultural country and agriculture proper supports 224 millions of persons or 71 per cent of the population of the Empire. If we add the pastoral and hunting occupations the percentage rises to 73 while a considerable proportion of the unfortunately large number of persons in the category of vague and unclassifiable occupations are probably labourers closely connected with the occupations of the land. Industries support 10 per cent of the population but the bulk of these are engaged in unorganized industries connected with the supply of personal and household necessities and the simple implements of work.

Organized industries occupy only 1 per cent of the people. In trade and transport, on which less than 6 per cent and 2 per cent, respectively depend a not inconsiderable number are connected with the disposal of the various kinds of agricultural products. The administration and protection of the country engage only 4 825,179 persons, or 1½ per cent of the population and the remainder are supported by domestic miscellaneous and unproductive occupations. Though the extent to which agriculture predominates in individual provinces varies, there is no region in which it does not in some form easily take the first place.

In spite of the trade of Calcutta and the numerous industrial and mining concerns of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the population of the eastern provinces is overwhelmingly agricultural and contains a higher percentage of persons supported by the land than any other tract of India. Of industrial workers the largest proportions in the local population are in the Punjab, the United Provinces and Bombay. Of these three provinces, however, agriculture dominates the economic life of the first two, where the industrial occupations though they engage a substantial number of persons, are mostly of the cottage industry type. In Bombay the development of organized industry is of some economic importance, but is at present largely confined to a few of the biggest cities. In the category of unclassified occupations the majority of persons are labourers whose particular form of labour is unspecified and the rest mostly unspecified clerks.

Compared with 1911 the agriculturists have increased a little faster than the total population, though fishermen and hunters are fewer. Miners have risen in number with the recent expansion of the industry. Industries have substantially decreased and of the principal forms of industry the textile workers have dropped considerably, as also have potters and workers in wood and metal. An increase under transport by rail is countered by a drop under transport by road. Trade has increased, trade in textiles showing a slight rise and trade in food a slight drop. The number employed in public administration is practically stationary but the army has risen while the police has fallen heavily. Law and medicine have gained at the expense of religion, and though instruction has spread letters have fallen. Rentiers are fewer and domestic servants as many. Beggars and vagrants, the raw material of crime and disease, have decreased but criminals, the finished article, have risen in numbers.

Occupation or means of livelihood

Occupation	Number of persons supported
INDIA	616 055,231
Pasture and agriculture	229 045 019
Fishing and hunting	1 607 341
Mines, quarries salt etc	542 063
Industry	33 167 018
Textiles	7 847,829
Dress and toilet	7 425 219
Wood	3,613,585
Food Industries	3 109 361
Ceramics	2 215,041
Building Industries	1 753,720
Metals	1,802,208
Chemicals, etc	1 194,264
Hides skins, etc	731,124
Other Industries	8,483,676
Transport (including postal, telegraph and telephone services)	4 331 054
Trade	18,114 622
Hotels, cafe, etc., and other trade in foodstuffs	9,988,988
Trade in textiles	1,286,277
Banks, exchange, insurance, etc	991 492
Other trades	5 845,870
Army and Navy	757 964
Air force	1,038
Police	1,422,610
Public administration	2 643,882
Professions and liberal arts	5,020,571
Religion	2,457,614
Instruction	806,228
Medicine	659 583
Others	1,098,146
Domestic Service	4,579,151
All others	14,831,533

NOTE.—Occupation was not recorded for 37,349 persons.

Collieries.—Of a total of 288 thousand supported by collieries 205 thousand are actual workers. The most important coal mines lie in the provinces of Bihar and Orissa and Bengal. The Jherria coal field in Manbhum, the importance of which is due to its accessibility and the superior quality of its coal alone produces over fifty per cent of the total annual output of coal in India. According to the Indian census the total population employed in the coal mines of Manbhum was 82,610, of whom 347 were managers, 1,510 belonged to the supervising and technical staff and 1,482 to the clerical staff while 32,843 were skilled and 46,428 unskilled workers.

Textiles—Cotton.—Of the industries the textile industries are by far the most important, the number of persons occupied in industries connected with cotton being returned as 5,872,000 or just three-quarters of the whole number of those supported by textile industries.

The bulk of the organized establishments are in the western tracts where the large cities owe a considerable portion of their prosperity to the development of the textile industries and the cotton growing country is covered with mechanically worked gins and presses for the preliminary treatment of the raw material. Of the 2,097 establishments connected with cotton manufacture employing in all 434,000 persons, no less than 737 establishments with 277,000 employees or 64 per cent of the personnel belong to the western Presidency and its States.

Jute.—The spinning, pressing and weaving of jute support a population of 493,090 as compared with 382,369 ten years ago. There are a few mills and presses in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, and Madras, but the industry is practically confined to Bengal.

Nature of Ownership.—Of the total number of 15,606 establishments 677 are owned by Government, 3,293 by registered companies and 11,637 by private persons. The Government owned concerns are mostly railway and engineering workshops and other concerns such as brick and tile factories connected with the construction of roads and building and printing presses. The tea and rubber plantations are mostly the property of companies. Out of the 795 tea plantations in Assam 632 belong to companies. On the other hand the coffee plantations of Madras which are much smaller concerns than the tea gardens are mostly privately owned, only 23 out of 127 belonging to companies in Madras and 10 out of 242 in Mysore. The collieries are mostly company-owned but of the 42 manganese mines of the Central Provinces half are owned by companies and half by private persons. Of the 392 cotton spinning mills in Bombay 833 are private owned but of the cotton weaving mills 129 out of 345 are owned by companies. Similarly the jute presses are mostly private, while 60 out of the 62 jute mills of Bengal are company owned. Practically all the printing presses are private concerns, and so are a large number of the general workshops and such concerns like flour and rice mills and brick and tile works, which are mostly on a small scale. European companies own the majority of the tea gardens of

Assam and Bengal, but as has already been seen Indian enterprise is growing in regard to the private ventures. Indigo in Bihar and Orissa, coffee in Madras and rubber in Travancore are mostly in European hands but the coffee plantations of Mysore are largely owned by Indians. Most of the large collieries of Bengal are held by European companies, but 65 out of the 73 private concerns belong to Indians. The cotton industry of Western India is almost entirely Indian, while the jute mills of Bengal are in European hands though the small presses are mostly owned by Indians. The rice and flour mills and the brick and tile factories, with the exception of a few large concerns, are in the hands of Indians.

Women as Workers.—The adult women (unskilled) number 508 per 1,000 adult men and the proportion of the children of both sexes under 14 years old is 140 per 1,000 adults. By far the majority of women labourers are out of 540 thousand are on the plantations where their proportion per 100 men is as high as 94 the children being 190 per 1,000 adults. Women and children are also numerous in the textile and mining industries and in the former there are 408 adult women (unskilled) per 1,000 men and in the latter 521. Nearly 30 per cent of the women employed in textile industries are recorded as skilled. About 81 per cent of the total number of children employed in organized industries are boys and the girls almost equal the boys on the plantations and in the mines and form about one fifth of the child labour in the textile industries. In the larger industries (20 persons and above) both female and child labour has dropped since 1911 the proportion of women (unskilled) being 515 now against 561 in 1911 per 1,000 men and the proportion of children per 1,000 adults 141 against 191 in 1911. The figures vary curiously in different industries and suggest that they are not altogether trustworthy. Women have increased in the plantations and textiles and declined in the mines. Children have decreased in the plantations and textiles and increased in the mines. Both women and children find considerable employment in the establishments connected with glass, pottery, cement and building and to a less extent in those of food and dress.

Occupation of Europeans.—Of the 103,405 male Europeans 63,548 belong in some capacity to the category of Public Force, 4 to the Army, Navy, Air Force and Police, over 9,000 to Transport and largely railway, officials and about 6,000 to Public Administration, 4,600 to Mines and Industries, 5,800 to professions, 4,600 to trade, while there are about 4,200 imperfect entries, a number which together with the known deficiency in the census of Europeans generally somewhat detracts from the value of the details. The abnormal constitution of the foreign European population is exhibited by the small number of dependants viz. 62,000, as against 11,000 workers, whereas the number of Anglo-Indian dependants is just about double the number of their workers. Nearly one-third of the Anglo-Indian males are employed on Transport, i.e., chiefly Railway, and the remainder mostly find employment as clerks and upper subordinates.

Manners and Customs.

Next to the complexion of the people, which varies from fair to black, the tourist's attention in India is drawn by their dress and personal decoration. In its simplest form a Hindu's dress consists of a piece of cloth round the loins. Many an ascetic, who regards dress as a luxury, wears nothing more, and he would dispense with even so much if the police allowed him to. The Mahomedan always covers his legs, generally with trousers, sometimes with a piece of cloth tied round the waist and reaching to the ankles. Hill men and women, who at one time wore a few leaves before and behind and were totally innocent of clothing, do not appear to-day within the precincts of civilisation and will not meet the tourist's eye. Children, either absolutely nude or with a piece of metal hanging from the waist in front, may be seen in the streets in the most advanced cities, and in the homes of the rich. The child Krishna, with all the jewels on his person, is nude in his pictures and images.

Dress.—The next stage in the evolution of the Hindu dress brings the loincloth nearly down to the feet. On the Malabar coast, as in Burma, the ends are left loose in front. In the greater part of India, they are tucked up behind—a fashion which is supposed to befit the warrior, or one end is gathered up in folds before and the other tucked up behind. The simplest dress for the trunk is a scarf thrown over the left shoulder, or round both the shoulders like a Roman toga. Under this garment is often worn a coat or a shirt. When an Indian appears in his full indigenous dress, he wears a long robe, reaching at least down to the calves; the sleeves may be wide, or long and sometimes puckered from the wrist to the elbow. Before Europeans introduced buttons, a coat was fastened by ribbons, and the fashion is not obsolete. The Mahomedan prefers to button his coat to the left, the Hindu to the right. A shawl is tied round the waist over the long coat, and serves as a belt, in which one may carry money or a weapon, if allowed. The greatest variety is shown in the head-dress. More than seventy shapes of caps, hats, and turbans, may be seen in the city of Bombay. In the Punjab and the United Provinces, in Bengal, in Burma and in Madras other varieties prevail. Cones and cylinders, domes and truncated pyramids, high and low, with sides at different angles, folded brims, projecting brims, long strips of cloth wound round the head or the cap in all possible ways, ingenuity culminating perhaps in the "parrot's beak" of the Maratha turban—all these fashions have been evolved by different communities and in different places, so that a trained eye can tell from the head-covering whether the wearer is a Hindu, Mahomedan or Parsi, and whether he hails from Poona or Dharwar, Ahmedabad or Bhavnagar.

Fashion Variations.—Fashions often vary with climate and occupation. The Bombay fishermen may wear a short coat and a cap, and may carry a watch in his pocket, yet, as he must work for long hours in water, he would not cover his legs, but suspend only a coloured kerchief from his waist in front. The fashion of the cold north-west affords loose baggy

trousers, a tall head-dress befitting his stature and covers his ears with its folds as if to keep off cold. The poorer people in Bengal and Madras do not cover their heads, except when they work in the sun or must appear respectable. Many well-to-do Indians wear European dress at the present day, or a compromise between the Indian and European costumes, notably the Indian Christians and Parsis. Most Parsis however have retained their own head dress, and many have not borrowed the European collar and cuffs. The majority of the people do not use shoes; those who can afford them wear sandals, slippers and shoes, and a few cover their feet with stockings and boots after the European fashion in public.

Women's Costumes.—The usual dress of a woman consists of a long piece of cloth tied round the waist, with folds in front, and one end brought over the shoulder or the head. The folds are sometimes drawn in and tucked up behind. In the greater part of India women wear a bodice on the Malabar coast many do not, but merely throw a piece of cloth over the breast. In some communities petticoats, or drawers, or both are worn. Many Mussalman ladies wear gowns and scarves over them. The vast majority of Mahomedan women are poets, and their dress and persons are hidden by a veil when they appear in public. A few converts from Hinduism have not borrowed the custom. In Northern India Hindu women have generally adopted the Mussalman practice of seclusion. In the Dekhan and in Southern India they have not.

As a rule the hair is daily oiled, combed, parted in the middle of the head, plaited and rolled into an oblong, by most women. Among high caste Hindu widows sometimes shave their heads in imitation of certain ascetics, or monks and nuns. Hindu men do not, as a rule, completely shave their heads, Mahomedans in most cases do. The former generally remove the hair from a part of the head in front, over the temple, and near the neck, and grow it in the centre, the quantity grown depending upon the fancy of the individual. Nowadays many keep the hair cropped in the European fashion, which is also followed by Parsis and Indian Christians. Most Mussalmans grow beards, most Hindus do not, except in Bengal and elsewhere, where the Mahomedan influence was paramount in the past. Parsis and Christians follow their individual inclinations. Hindu ascetics, known as Sadhus or Bairags as distinguished from Sanyasis, do not clip their hair, and generally coil the uncombed hair of the head into a crest, in imitation of the god Shiva.

Hindu women wear more ornaments than others of the corresponding grade in society. Ornaments bedeck the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, wrists, fingers, the waist—until motherhood is attained, and by some even later—and the toes. Children wear anklets. Each community affects its peculiar ornaments, though imitation is not uncommon. Serpents with several heads, and serpents, like snakes, the nose, and the champagne, are among the most popular objects of representation in gold or silver.

Caste Marks.—Caste marks constitute a mode of personal decoration peculiar to Hindus, especially of the higher castes. The simplest mark is a round spot on the forehead. It represents prosperity or joy, and is omitted in mourning and on fast-days. It may be red, or yellowish as when it is made with ground sandalwood paste. The worshippers of Vishnu draw a vertical line across the spot, and as Lakshmi is the goddess of prosperity, it is said to represent her. A more elaborate mark on the forehead has the shape of U or V, generally with the central line, sometimes without it, and represents Vishnu's foot. The worshippers of Shiva adopt horizontal lines, made with sandalwood paste or ashes. Some Vaishnavas stamp their temples, near the corners of the eyes, with figures of Vishnu's conch and disc. Other parts of the body are also similarly marked. The material used is a kind of yellowish clay. To smear the arms and the chest with sandalwood paste is a favourite kind of toilet, especially in the hot season. Beads of Tulsi or sacred Basil, and berries of Rudraksha *elaeagnus ganitrus*, strung together are worn round their necks by Vaishnavas and Shivas respectively. The Lingayats, a Shiva sect, suspend from their necks a metallic case containing the Linga or phallus of their god. Bairagis, ascetics, besides wearing Rudraksha rosaries round their necks and matted hair, smear their bodies with ashes. Religious mendicants suspend from their necks figures of the gods in whose name they beg. Strings of cowries may also be seen round their necks. Muslim dervishes sometimes carry peacock's feathers.

Hindu women mark their foreheads with a red spot or horizontal line. High caste widows are forbidden to exhibit this sign of happiness, as also to deck themselves with flowers or ornaments. Flowers are worn in the chignon. Hindu women smear their faces, arms, and feet sometimes with a paste of turmeric, so that they may shine like gold. The choice of the same colour for different purposes cannot always be explained in the same way. The red liquid with which the evil eye is averted may be a substitute for the blood of the animal slaughtered for the purpose in former times. In many other cases this colour has no such associations. The Muslim dervish affects green, the Sikh, Akali is fond of blue, the Sanyas adopt orange for his robe, and no reason can be assigned with any degree of certainty.

Shiva.—India is a land of temples, mosques and shrines, and the Hindu finds at every turn some supernatural power to be appeased. Shiva has the largest number of worshippers. He has three eyes, one in his forehead, a moon's crescent in his matted hair, and at the top of the coil a woman's face representing the river Ganges. His abode is the Mount Kailas in the Himalayas, from which the river takes its source. Round his neck and about his ears and limbs are serpents, and he also wears a necklace of skulls. In his hands are several weapons, especially a trident, a bow, and a thunderbolt, and also a drum which he sounds while dancing for he is very fond of this exercise. He sits on a tiger's skin, and his vehicle is a white bull. His wife Parvati, and his son Ganesh sit on his thighs. An elaborate descrip-

tion is attached to every part of his physical personality. The three eyes denote an insight into the past, present and future, the moon, the serpents, and the skulls denote months, years and cycles, for Shiva is a personification of time, the great destroyer. He is also worshipped as a Linga or phallus which represents creative energy.

Ganpati—Ganesh or Ganpat, the controller of all powers of evil subject to Shiva, is worshipped by all sects throughout India. Every undertaking is begun with a prayer to him. He has the head of an elephant, a large abdomen, serpents about his waist and wrists, seven weapons in his hands, and a piece of his tusk in one hand. He is said to have broken it off when he wanted to attack the moon for ridiculing him. The different parts of his body are also esoterically explained. His vehicle is a rat.

Parvati—Parvati, the female energy of Shiva, is worshipped under various names and forms. She is at the head of all female supernatural powers, many of whom are her own manifestations. Some are benign and beautiful, others terrible and ugly. Kall, the tutelary deity of Kalgat or Calcutta, is one of her fierce manifestations. In this form she is black, a tongue smeared with blood projects from her gaping mouth, besides her weapons, she carries corpses in her hands, and round her neck are skulls. Bombay also takes its name from a goddess, Mumbadevi Gouri, to whom offerings are made in Indian homes at an annual festival, is benign. On the other hand the epidemic diseases like the plague and small-pox are caused by certain goddesses or "mothers."

Vishnu, the second member of the Hindu trinity, is the most popular deity next to Shiva. He is worshipped through his several incarnations as well as his original personality. His home is the ocean of milk, where he reclines on the coils of a huge, many-headed serpent. At his feet sits Lakshmi, shampooing his legs. From his navel issues a lotus, on which is seated Brahma, the third member of the trinity. In his hands are the conch, which he blows on the battlefield, and the disc, with which the heads of his enemies are severed. Round his neck are garlands of leaves and flowers, and on his breast are shining jewels. As Shiva represents destruction, Vishnu represents protection, and his son is the god of love. To carry on the work of protection, he incarnates himself from time to time, and more temples are dedicated nowadays to his most popular incarnations, Rama and Krishna, than to his original personality. Rama is a human figure, with a bow in one of his hands. He is always accompanied by his wife Sita, often by his brother Lakshmana, and at his feet, or standing before him with joined hands, is Hanuman, the monkey chieftain, who assisted him in his expedition against Ravana, the abductor of his wife. Krishna is also a human figure, generally represented as playing on a flute, with which he charmed the damsels of his city, esoterically explained to mean his devotees.

Brahma is seldom worshipped; only a couple of temples dedicated to him have yet been discovered in all India.

Minor Deities.—The minor gods and goddesses and the deified heroes and heroines who fill the Hindu pantheon, and to whom shrines are erected and worship is offered, constitute a legion. Many of them enjoy a local reputation, are unknown to sacred literature, and are worshipped chiefly by the lower classes. Some of them, though not mentioned in ancient literature, are celebrated in the works of modern saints.

The Jains in their temples, adore the sacred personages who founded and developed their sect, and venerate some of the deities common to Hinduism. But their view of Divinity is different from the Hindu conception, and in the opinion of Hindu theologians they are atheists. So also the Buddhists of Burma pay almost the same veneration to Prince Siddhartha as if he was a god, and indeed elevate him above the Hindu gods, but from the Hindu standpoint they are also atheists.

Images.—Besides invisible powers and deified persons, the Hindus venerate certain animals, trees and inanimate objects. This veneration must have originated in gratitude, fear, wonder, and belief in spirits as the cause of all good or harm. Some of the animals are vehicles of certain gods and goddesses—the eagle of Vishnu, the swan of Brahma, the peacock of Saraswati, Hanuman, the monkey of Rama, one serpent upholds the earth, an other makes Vishnu's bed, elephants support the ends of the universe, besides one such animal being Indra's vehicle, the goddess Durga or Kali rides on a tiger, one of Vishnu's incarnations was partly man and partly lion. The cow is a useful animal to the Brahman, vegetarian, his milk is indispensable, and he treats her as his mother. So did the Rishi of old, who often subsisted on milk and fruits and roots. To the agriculturist cattle are indispensable. The snake excites fear. Stones, on which the image of a serpent is carved, may be

seen under many trees by the roadside. The principal trees and plants worshipped are the Sacred Fig or Pipal, the Banyan, the Sacred Basil, the Blva or Wood Apple, the Anoka, and the Aecacia. They are in one way or another associated with some deity. The sun, the moon, and certain planets are among the heavenly bodies venerated. The ocean and certain great rivers are held sacred. Certain mountains, perhaps because they are the abodes of gods and Rishis, are holy. Pebbles from the Gandaki and the Narmada, which have curious lines upon them, are worshipped in many households and temples.

Worship.—Without going into a temple, one can get a fair idea of image worship by seeing how a serpent-stone is treated under a tree. It is washed, smeared with sandal, decorated with flowers, food in a vessel is placed before it, lamps are waved, and the worshipper goes round it, and bows down his head, or prostrates himself before the image. In a temple larger bells are used than the small ones that are brought to such a place. Jewels are placed on the idol and the offerings are on a larger scale. Idols are carried in public procession in palanquins or cars. The lower classes sacrifice animals before their gods and goddesses.

Domestic Life.—Of the daily domestic life of the people a tourist cannot see much. He may see a marriage or funeral procession. In the former he may notice how a bridegroom or bride is decorated, the latter may shock him, for a Hindu dead body is generally carried on a few pieces of bamboo lashed together, a thin cloth is thrown over it and the body is tied to the frame. The Mahomedan bier is more decent, and resembles the Christian coffin. Some Hindus, however, carry the dead to the burial ground in a palanquin with great pomp. The higher castes cremate the dead, others bury them. Burial is also the custom of the Muslims, and the Parsis expose the dead in Towers of Silence.

Indian Names.

The personal name of most Hindus denotes a material object, colour, or quality, an animal, a relationship, or a deity. The uneducated man, who cannot correctly pronounce long Sanskrit words, is content to call his child, father, brother, uncle, or mother, or sister, as the case may be. This practice survives among the higher classes as well. Appa Saheb, Anna Rao, Babaji, Bapu Lal, Bhal Shankar, Tatascharya, Jijibhai, are names of this description, with honorific titles added. It is possible that in early society the belief in the re-birth of departed kinsmen lent popularity to this practice. Nothing could be more natural than to call a man white, black, or red, gold or silver; gem, diamond, ruby, pearl, or merely a stone; small or tall, weak or strong; a lion, a snake, a parrot, or a dog; and to name a woman after a flower or a creeper. Thus, to take a few names from the epic, *Rajad* means

white, and so does *Arjuna*, Krishna black. Bhima terrible, Nakula a mongoose, Shumaka a dog, Shuka a parrot, Shringa a horn. Among the names prevalent at the present day *Hira* is a diamond, *Ratna* or *Ratan* a jewel, *Son* or *Chinna* gold, *Velli* or *Belli*, in the Dravidian languages, means white metal or silver. Men are often called after the days of the week on which they were born, and hence they bear the names of the seven heavenly bodies concerned. When they begin to assume the names of the Hindu deities, they practically enter upon a new stage of civilization. It is doubtful whether the Animists ever venture to assume the names of the deified spirits worshipped by them. To pronounce the name of a devil is to invite him to do harm. If the spirits sometimes bear the names of human beings, the reason seems to be that they were originally human.

High-caste practices.—The high caste Hindu, on the other hand, believes that the more often the name of a deity is on his lips, the more merit he earns. Therefore he deliberately names his children after his gods and goddesses, so that he may have the opportunity of pronouncing the holy names as frequently as possible. These are also sonorous and picturesque. Shiva is happy Vishnu is a perverse Govinda is the cowherd Krishna Keshava has fine hair Rama is a delighter Lakshmana is lucky Narayana produced the first living being on the primeval waters Ganesha is the Lord of Shiva's hosts Dinakara is the luminous that makes the day. Subrahmanya is a brother of Ganesha. Sita is a furrow Sairi a ray of light Tara a star Radha prosperity Bukmini is she of golden ornaments Bhama of the glowing heart Shiva and Vishnu has each got at least a thousand names, and they may be freely drawn upon and paraphrased in naming one's children, and the whole Hindu pantheon is as crowded as it is large. When a mother loses several children, she begins to suspect that some evil spirit has conspired against her and in order to make her offspring unattractive to the powers of darkness, she gives them ugly names, such as Kuru, rubbish, or Ukirda, dunghill, or Martoba, the mortal. Women are named after rivers, as Sarasvati, Ganga, Bhagratih, Godavari, or Kaveri, just as men are sometimes called after mountains. Mann counsels young men not to choose a wife with such a name, perhaps because a river is an emblem of deviancy and inconstancy, as a hill is an emblem of stability. But the names of rivers have not been discarded. The Burmans have a curious custom if a child is born on a Monday, its name must begin with a guttural, on Tuesday with a palatal, on Thursday with a labial, on Saturday with a dental.

Family names.—When a person rises in importance, he adds to his personal name a family or caste name. It was once the rule that the title Sharma might be added to a Brahman's name, Varma to a Kshatriya's, Gupta to a Valhyas, and Dasa to a Shudra's. This rule is fairly well observed in the case of the first two titles, but the meaning of the other two has changed. Dasa means a slave or servant, and the proudest Brahman cannot deign to call himself the servant of some god. Thus, although Kalidas, the famous poet, was a Shudra, Ramesdas, the famous guru of Shivaji, was a Brahmin. The Valhyas have made this fashion of calling oneself a servant of some god exceedingly popular, and in Western India high caste Hindus of this sect very commonly add Das to their names. The Brahmins of Southern India add Aiyer or Aiyangar to their names. Shastri, Acharya, Bhat, Bhattacharya, Upadhyaya, Mukhopadhyaya, changed in Bengal into Mukherji, are among the titles indicative of the Brahminical profession of studying and teaching the sacred books. Among warlike classes, like the Rajputs and Sikhs, the title Singh (Lion) becomes more popular than the ancient Varna. The Hindi Rai, as in Gidmal, means brave and has the same force. Raja changed into Raza, Rao and Rai was a political title, and is not confined to any caste. The Bengali family names, like Bose and Ghose,

Dutt and Mitra, Sen and Guha, enable one to identify the caste of their bearers, because the caste of a family or clan cannot be changed. Sen, chief of a guild or a town, becomes Chetty, a Valhyas title, in Southern India. Mudaliyar and Nayudu, meaning leaders, are titles which were assumed by castes of political importance under native rulers. Nayar and Menon are the titles of important castes in Malabar. Ram, Lal, Nand, Chand, are among the additions made to personal names in Northern India. Suffixes like Ji, as in Ramji or Jamsheji, the Kanarese Appa, the Telugu Garu, the feminine Bai or Devi, are honorific. Prefixes like Babu, Baba, Lala, Sodhi, Pandit, Bais, and the Burmese Maung are also honorific.

Professional names.—Family names sometimes denote a profession. In some cases they might have been conferred by the old rulers. Mehta, Kulkarni, Deshpande, Chitnavis, Mahalanavis are the names of offices held in former times. One family name may mean a flour seller, another a cane-seller, and a third a liquor seller. To insert the father's name between one's personal and the family name is a common practice in Western India. It is rare elsewhere. When a family comes from a certain place, the suffix 'kar' or 'wallah' is added to the name of the place and it makes a family surname in Western India. Thus we may have Chipunkars and Suratwallahs, or without these affixes we may have Bhavnagris, Malabaris and Billimoria, as among Parsis. Thus Vasudev Pandurang Chipunkar would be a Hindu, whose personal name is Vasudev's father's name Pandurang, and family name derived from the village of Chipunkar, in Chipunkar. In Southern India the village name precedes the personal name. The evolution of Mussalman names follows the same lines as Hindu names. But Muslims have no god or goddesses, and their names are derived from their religious and secular history. These names and titles are often as long and picturesque as Hindu appellations. The agnomens Bakshi, Dita, Ghulam, Khwaja, Fakir, Kazi, Mirza, Sheikh, Syed, Begum, Bibi and others as well as honorific additions like Khan have meanings which throw light of Muslim customs and institutions. The Parsis also have no gods and goddesses, and their personal names are generally borrowed from their sacred and secular history. Their surnames frequently indicate a profession or a place, as in the case of Hindus in Western India. Badiwallah, Ready money, Contractor, Saklatwallah, Adenwallah and others like them are tell-tale names.

Conversions.—As a rule, a child is named soon after it is born, and in the case of males the appellation is not changed. The higher Hindu castes have a separate ceremony called the name-giving ceremony performed on the twelfth day after birth. When a girl is married in these castes the husband's family give her a new personal name. When a boy is invested with the sacred thread and is made a twice-born, his name is not changed, but when a man joins an order of ascetics, his lay name is dropped, and he assumes a new name. So also when a Burman joins an order of monks or nuns, the lay name is superseded by a Pali name. Christian converts change their original name when they are baptized.

Indian Art.

In India there has never been so marked a separation between what are now known as the Fine Arts, and those applied to industry as was the case in Europe during the nineteenth century. As, however, industrial art forms the subject of a special article in this book, the term Indian Art will here be confined to Architecture, Sculpture and Painting.

Historical—The degree of proficiency attained in art by Indians prior to B C 250, can only be conjectured by their advancement in literature, and by the indirect evidences of indebtedness shown by the works of the historic period, to those which preceded them, or direct records of artistic work of an earlier date than B C 250 do not exist. The chief historic schools of architecture are as follows:

Name.	Dates.	Locality of the best Examples
Buddhist	B C 250— A D 750	Ellora, Ajanta, Kailash, Sanchi
Jaina	A D 1000— 1800	Ellora, Mount Abu, Palitana
Brahminical	A D 530 to the present	Ellora, Elephanta, Orissa, Bhuvaneshwar, Dharwar
Chalukyan	A D 1000— 1200	Umber, Somnathpur, Ballur
Dravidian	A D 1350— 1750	Ellora, Tanjore, Madurai, Tinnevely
Pathan	A D 1200— 1550	Delhi, Mandu, Jaunpore
Indo-Saracenic	A D 1520— 1760	Lahore, Delhi, Agra, Amber, Bijapur

Buddhist Architecture is mainly exemplified by the rock cut temples and monasteries found in Western India and in the *Topes* or sacred mounds. The interior decorations, and external facades of the former, and the rails and gates surrounding the latter point unmistakably to their being derived from wooden structures of an earlier period. The characteristic features of these temples are horse shoe openings in the facades to admit light, and colonnades of pillars with richly ornamented caps in the interior halls. Jaina Architecture is found in its most highly developed form in the *Dilwara* temples at Mount Abu. The ground plan consists of a shrine for the god or saint, a porch, and an arcaded courtyard with niches for images. The characteristic of the style is grace and lightness, with decorative carving covering the whole interior, executed with great elaboration and detail. Constructional methods suggest that original types in wood have been copied in marble.

Brahminical, Chalukyan and Dravidian styles differ little in essential plan, all having a shrine for the god, preceded by pillared porches. The outer forms vary. The northern Brahminical temples have a curved pyramidal roof to the shrine, which in the southern or Dravidian style are crowned by a horizontal system of storied towers, and each story, decreasing in size, is ornamented with a central cell and figures in high relief. The Chalukyan style is affected by the northern and southern schools, taking features from each without

losing its own special characteristics of which the star-shaped plan of the shrine, with the five-fold bands of external ornament, is the principal feature. Pathan Architecture was introduced into India by the Mahomedan invasion of the thirteenth century. At old Delhi are fine examples in the *Futab Mosque* and *Minar*. The characteristics of the style are severity of outline, which is sometimes combined with elaborate decoration due, it is stated, to the employment of Hindu craftsmen. The mosques and tombs at Ahmedabad already show Hindu influence but purer examples are to be found at Jaunpore and Mandu. Indo Saracenic Architecture reached the climax of its development during the reigns of the Moghul Emperors, Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. It eclipsed in richness of material and refinement of taste the building efforts of previous periods its crowning example being the *Taj Mahal* at Agra. The buildings erected during the Adil Shahi dynasty at Bijapur at a slightly later date, exhibit a certain Turkish influence, especially in the great tomb of Mahmoud. Though less refined and lacking the attraction of precious materials in their decoration, these splendid edifices are held in higher esteem by some critics than those of the Moghals, on account of their simplicity, grandeur and fine proportions. The era of great civil architecture in India was revived by the Mahomedan powers. Splendid palaces and fortresses were built at Madras, Delhi, Agra, Fatehpore Sikri and Bijapur, and the example thus set was copied by the Hindu princes at Jalpur, Udaipur and elsewhere in India. The application of great architectural treatment, unequalled in extent elsewhere, is to be seen in the Ghats or steps enclosing lakes and on the banks of rivers. The most notable constructional contribution of the Mahomedans to Indian architecture was the introduction of the true arch and dome.

Sculpture—The use of sculpture and painting in isolated works of art was practically non-existent in India until modern times. One or two reliefs and certain gigantic figures may be quoted as exceptions, but taken generally it may be stated that these arts were employed as the decorative adjuncts of architecture. No civil statuary, such as is now understood by the term, was executed, for no contemporary portrait figures, or busts in marble, or bronze, have come down to us from the ruins of ancient India, as they have from those of Egypt, Greece and Rome. Sculpture has been used exclusively as the handmaid of religion, and to this fact may be attributed the stereotyped forms to which it became bound. The lavish use of sculpture on Indian temples often exceeds good taste, and mars the symmetry and dignity of their mass and outline, but for exuberance of imagination, industrious elaboration and vivid expression of movement Indian sculpture is perhaps without its equal elsewhere in the world. The most impressive specimens are the earliest, found in the Buddhist and Brahminical cave temples of Ellora, Ajanta and Elephanta. The great Trimurti in the last named of these temples rears for mystery

and expressive grandeur with the greatest masterpieces of Egyptian art. The outstanding characteristics of Hindu sculpture are the power displayed in suggesting movement, the fine sense of decorative arrangements of line and mass, and an overpowering ingenuity in intricate design. Mahomedan sculpture in India, though not exclusively confined to geometric forms as is that of the more severe Arabian school, is very restrained as compared with that of the Hindus. Floral motifs are often used in the ornaments to tombs and palaces, but rarely in those of mosques. Their geometric ornament shows great ingenuity and invention, and wonderful decorative use is made of Persian, Arabic and Urdu lettering in panels, and their borders. The representation of human or animal figures is rarely to be met with. Sculptured and modelled relief is, as a rule, kept very low, and is mainly confined to the decoration of mouldings, architraves, luteles, or the bands of ornament which relieve large exterior wall spaces. Buildings of purely Mahomedan design and workmanship show greater restraint than those upon which Hindu workmen have been employed and are more satisfactory, but at Ahmedabad the two celebrated windows are striking examples of a happy combination of the two styles.

Painting.—Much of the carved stonework upon ancient Indian buildings was first plastered and then decorated with a *lour* but the only paintings, in the modern acceptation of the term, now existing, which were executed prior to the Moghul period, are those upon the walls of the cave temples at Ajanta. These remarkable works were produced at intervals during the first 600 years of the Christian era. They exhibit all the finer characteristics of the best Indian sculpture, but with an added freedom of expression due to the more tractable vehicle employed. They remained hidden in the Deccan jungles for nearly twelve hundred years until accidentally discovered in 1816. They are painted in a species of fresco, and when first brought to light were well preserved, but they have greatly deteriorated owing to the well meant, but misguided action of copyists, and the neglect of the authorities. Their origin is as wrapped in mystery as is that of the artists who painted them, for no other paintings of similar power and character are known to exist, and the artists, so far as is known, left no successors. Nine hundred years elapsed between the completion of the Ajanta paintings and the commencement of the second period of Indian painting. This owed its origin to the introduction of Persian artists by the Moghul Emperor Akbar, and the establishment of the indigenous Moghul school was due to the encouragement and fostering care of his successors, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. Unlike the works of the Ajanta painters, which were designed upon a large scale, the pictures of the Moghul school were miniatures. They were executed in a species of opaque water colour upon paper or vellum, resembling in technique the illuminated missals produced by the monks in Europe during the middle ages. Some of the finest of the earlier specimens in India are of a religious character; this phase of development being closely allied to the art

the calligraphist. As its range extended, a remarkable school of portrait painters arose notable for restrained but extremely accurate drawing, keen insight into character, harmonious colour, fine decorative feeling, and extraordinary delicacy and finish in the painting of detail. The artists of a Hindu off-shoot of this movement, known as the Rajput school, were less fully endowed with the technical and purely æsthetic qualities than were the Moghul painters but they brought to their work poetry and sentiment which are not to be found in that of the Mahomedans. The pictures of both branches of the Moghul school, although highly decorative in character, were not intended for exhibition upon the walls of rooms, according to Western practice, and, when not used as illustrations or decorations to manuscript books, were preserved in portfolios. As this school of painting was the last expression of traditional art in India, in the restricted sense here applied to the term, and, as the question has a distinct bearing upon the modern development of painting, a few words may be added regarding the difference between the conventions followed by Eastern and Western painters. Until the middle of the fourteenth century the conventions of both East and West were practically the same, though the use of them differed according to environment and national temperament. These conventions the artists of the East have retained and development has been upon the line of decorative fitness, harmony of colour, and expressive action. Their art has throughout been decorative and when natural objects have been depicted, their treatment has been that of a flat pattern. The European painters, after the period above mentioned on the contrary, sought to attain the appearance of actuality in the objects depicted by the study of the science of light and shade, and perspective and in achieving this end, and developing it into the realisation of atmosphere and light, they sacrificed a large measure of the decorative quality which characterised the work of the earlier school. Eastern artists have ignored or been blind to light and shade, and in works entirely free from European influence one will look in vain for any suggestion of it in their figures or for shadows of objects cast upon the ground. During the last fifty years there has been a strong movement toward a return to decorative conventions, on the part of European artists who have assimilated much that the East has to teach them, without thereby affecting the distinctively Western character of their work. Indian and Japanese artists have been less successful when attempting the reverse of this practice, and appear to lose whatever is best in their traditional practice without acquiring the finer qualities of that of the West.

Modern Painting.—As the reign of Shah Jahan exhibits the high tide of artistic development in India, so the reign of his successor Aurangzeb marks the period of its rapid decline. The causes of this are attributable to the absence of encouragement by this Emperor; to his long periods of absence from the court at Delhi or Agra, entailed by the continuous wars he waged in his efforts to bring the whole of the Peninsula under his rule, and partly to the tendency strongly inherent in the Indian artist

become stereotyped in his practice. All foreign designers, painters and craftsmen who had been attracted to India by the great empires carried out by Akbar, Jahangir and Shah-Jahan left the country, and their places were taken by no successors. The indigenous artists left to themselves in the isolated courts of small Indian princes, or collected in schools in remote districts, employed themselves mainly upon repeating the works of a previous age, instead of seeking new motifs for artistic treatment. A purely mechanical did the work become that some of the schools or guilds of painters, the execution of a single picture was subdivided, one craftsman painting the face, a second the drapery, and a third the background. Such methods could only lead to deterioration and decay. At the time when the British East India Company ceased to be only a guild of merchants and became a great administrative power in 1767, very little vitality survived in the ancient art of the country. During the century of its administrative history between the battle of Plassey and the Indian Mutiny, the "Company" was too fully occupied in fighting for its existence, extending its borders and settling its internal economy of its ever increasing territories, to be able to give much attention to conserving any remnant of artistic practice which had survived. Without any deliberate intention of introducing western art into the country Greek and its derivative styles of architecture were adopted for public and private buildings in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras because these were found to be more suitable for their purpose than buildings of indigenous pattern. The practical result was the same, for the Indian craftsmen employed upon their erection were confronted with styles affording no scope for the application of their traditional ornament and concerning which they had no knowledge or sympathy. As there were no sculptors in India capable of modelling or carving civil sculpture, the monuments to distinguish public servants were all imported from England, and the portraits, or other paintings which decorated the interior walls of the buildings, were furnished by European painters who visited India or by artists in England. Although a considerable amount of research work of a voluntary nature was done by Archaeologists, no official interest was taken in artistic education until the Government of India was transferred to the British Crown in 1858. In England itself, the first fifty years of the nineteenth century was a period of gross commercialism and artistic degradation but with the advent of the International Exhibition of 1851 the eyes of the nation were opened to the value of art as applied to industry.

The Schools of Art then instituted throughout England were imitated in a timid and tentative manner in India, and were attached to the educational system, which had been previously modelled upon a definitely European basis. These schools of art, it should be remembered, were specially established to assist the artistic industries of the country, and not to provide instruction in architecture, sculpture and painting. In fact at a subsequent period they narrowly escaped extinction by the Secretary of State, upon the ground that they had become schools of painting and had there-

been diverted from performing the original function for which they were established. The work of the Schools of Art in regard to industrial art is referred to elsewhere; and as two of them, that at Madras and that at Lahore, have confined their activities almost exclusively to this branch of the subject it is necessary to mention only the work of the Schools at Calcutta and Bombay in the present article. The Calcutta school, except for occasional experiments in the application of the graphic arts to lithography, engraving and stained glass, has become a school of painting and drawing. That at Bombay covers a wider field, for in addition to classes for modelling, painting and design it possesses a special school of architecture; a range of technical workshops, in which instruction is given in the applied arts, and research laboratories and studios devoted solely to the improvement of the Pottery industry. It is in the principles underlying the instruction in painting that the schools at Calcutta and Bombay have taken almost diametrically opposite roads to reach the end they both have in view, namely, the revival of the art of painting in India by means of an indigenous school of Indian painters. Mr. Havell, who until a few years back was the Principal of the Calcutta School, banished from within its walls every vestige of European art, and claimed that the traditional art of India, in its old forms, is not dead, but merely sleeping or smothered by the blanket of European culture laid upon it for the last 150 years and needed but to be released from this incubus to regain its pristine vigour. Well equipped with literary ability, backed by intense enthusiasm for the views he held, which he advocated with admirable persistence, he imposed upon his students an exclusive and severe study of the Moghul and Rajput schools of painting. He was fortunate in finding a willing and equally enthusiastic disciple in Mr. Abanindranath Tagore, an artist of fine imagination and fancy, endowed with technical ability of a high order, combined with a serious devotion to his art. He with other Bengal painters, inspired by Mr. Havell's precepts, founded, about fifteen years ago, what has since become known as the Calcutta School of painting. In their early work the painters of this school closely adhered to the conventions of Moghul and Rajput artists, whom they took as their models, and these early examples made a great impression upon all European critics who saw them. They were welcomed as the first sign of a genuine revival of Indian painting, based upon traditional lines, and it was confidently hoped that the movement would meet with the support it merited from Indians of all classes. Interesting as many individual works of the school undoubtedly are the anticipations which greeted its inception have scarcely been fulfilled by the Calcutta school. The painters themselves have never reached the high technical standard of the artists who produced the best works of the Moghul or Rajput school, and, as time has passed, their outlook appears to have shifted, and, while stemming the flood of western influence, they appear to have drifted into a backwater of Japanese conventions. The Indian public has failed to give the school the support it was hoped they would afford, and the movement has had to depend for encourage-

ment mainly upon Europeans in England and India.

Bombay School of Art.—The attitude towards the development of art in modern India taken by Mr. Cecil Burns, who long guided the policy of the Bombay school, was diametrically opposite to that favoured by Mr. Havell. While yielding to no one in his admiration for the ancient art of India, and giving every encouragement to his students to study its masterpieces, the view he takes is that with European literature dominating the system under which the educated classes in India are trained, with European ideas, and science permeating the professional, commercial, industrial, and political life of the country, it is not possible for modern Indians now to recapture the spirit which alone gave vitality to the great works of the past. That without this spirit, the conventions the ancient artists adopted are mere dead husks; and that to copy these would be as unprofitable as it would be for the artists of Europe to harness themselves to the conventions of the Greek and Roman sculptors or to those of the mediæval painters, that with European pictures, often of inferior quality illustrating every educational text book, and sold in the shops of every large city, it is essential for the proper education of art students that they should have before them the masterpieces of European art; and that, with the wide adoption of European styles of architecture in India, it is necessary for a school of art to possess the best examples of ornament applicable to the great historic styles, for the purpose of study and reference. There are certain basic principles common to the technique of all great art, such as fine and accurate drawing in its widest sense, composition and design, and the science of colour harmony. By means of these an artist can express his individuality and emotions, and Mr. Burns held that the main function of a School of Art is to equip its students with the power of expression, untrammelled by any set conventions, so that when they leave the school, they do so with the capacity to employ their faculties in any direction their sympathies and tastes may impel them to take. Which of these two very divergent theories will produce the result both these gentlemen unite in wishing to see brought to pass, time alone will show. Certain it is that the driving force of any artistic impulse must come from within the nation, and that India, like every other country in its art, as in other matters, must work out its own salvation.

One striking success of hopeful augury has been achieved by the Bombay School in recent years. This is the establishment of a flourishing

school of architecture in which the study of Indian architecture takes an important place. Connected with this school is a students' architectural association designed to keep past students in touch with the school and with one another. As architecture embraces and influences every branch of decorative and industrial art, it is to be hoped that this school may be the means whereby the ancient glories of Indian architecture will be some day revived in new forms, bringing in its train a vitalising influence upon every other form of artistic activity.

Mural Painting.—Mr. W. E. Gladstone Solomon, the present Principal, has during the last four years studiously avoided any dogmatic theories as to the ultimate end which Indian art is destined to attain, though he has consistently pointed out the Indian's pre-eminence in the decoration of wall spaces. The guiding principle with Mr. Solomon has been to teach the students to draw and to paint what they see, and further to encourage by all possible means their natural progress in the direction towards which their inherent instinct most obviously urges them. The application of this close training in the study of form and colour from the life to a decorative purpose, which accords both with ancient traditions and modern manifestations of the Indian artistic genius, has recently taken a definite line in the production of mural paintings executed by the students. Specimens of mural paintings by the students of the Sir J. J. School of Art Bombay, were sent to the Empire Exhibition at Wembley and exhibited in a small room specially constructed for the occasion. Indian mural painting was also to be seen in the Bengal Court at the exhibition which was decorated by Mr. Mukul Dey, a Bengali artist resident in London, and in the Punjab Court for which the Lahore School of Art prepared an elaborate scheme. A band of past and present students from Lahore was sent to carry out this scheme and they made the walls glow with the colours of the seventeenth century mosaic work to be seen at Lahore and in its greatest perfection in the Wazir Khan Mosque. These decorations are historically accurate, the animal panels are full size facsimile drawings of those in Lahore Fort, the floor panels and spandrels and the geometric drawings either represent the tile work of the Fort or the Wazir Khan Mosque, and other historic buildings, or are designed in the style of those decorations. This representation of a school of architecture which was overshadowed by other splendours was rounded off by a miniature painted model of the west front of Wazir Khan's Mosque, which is the finest example of this style of Moghul architecture.

Indian Architecture.

I. ANCIENT

The architecture of India has proceeded on lines of its own, and its monuments are unique among those of the nations of the world. An ancient civilization, a natural bent on the part of the people towards religious fervour of the contemplative rather than of the fanatical sort, combined with the richness of the country in the sterner building materials—these are a few of the factors that contributed to making it what it was, while a stirring history gave it both variety and glamour. Indian architecture is a subject which at the best has been studied only imperfectly, and a really comprehensive treatise on it has yet to be written. The subject is a vast and varied one, and it may be such a treatise never will be written in the form of one work at any rate. The spirit of Indian art is so foreign to the European of art culture that it is only one European in a hundred who can entirely understand it, while art criticism and analysis is a branch of study that the modern Indian has not as yet ventured upon to any appreciable extent. Hitherto the one, and with a few exceptions the only recognized authority on the subject has been Fergusson, whose compendious work is that which will find most ready acceptance by the general reader. But Fergusson attempted this nearly impossible task of covering the ground in one volume of moderate dimensions, and it is sometimes held that he was a man of too purely European a culture, albeit wide and eclectic, to admit of sufficient depth of insight in this particular direction. Fergusson's classification by races and religions is, however, the one that has been generally accepted hitherto. He asserts that there is no stone architecture in India of an earlier date than two and a half centuries before the Christian era, and that "India owes the introduction of the use of stone for architectural purposes, as she does that of Buddhism as a state religion, to the great Asoka, who reigned B.C. 272 to 236."

Buddhist Work.

Fergusson's first architectural period is then the Buddhist, of which the great tope at Sanchi with its famous Northern gateway is perhaps the most noted example. Then we have the Gandharan topes and monasteries. Perhaps the examples of Buddhist architecture of greatest interest and most ready access to the general student are to be found in the Chaitya halls or rock-cut caves of Karli, Ajunta, Nasik, Ellora and Kanheri. A point with relation to the Gandharan work may be alluded to in passing. This is the strong European tendency, variously recognised as Roman, Byzantine but most frequently as Greek, to be observed in the details. The foliage seen in the capitals of columns bears strong resemblance to the Greek acanthus, while the sculptures have a distinct trace of Greek influence, particularly in the treatment of drapery, but also of hair and facial expression. From this it has been a fairly common assumption amongst some authorities that Indian art owed much of its best to European influence, an assumption that is strenuously combated by others as will be pointed out later.

The architecture of the Jains comes next in order. Of this rich and beautiful style the most noted examples are perhaps the Dilwara temples near Mount Abu, and the unique "Tower of Victory" at Chittore.

Other Hindu Styles

The Dravidian style is the generic title usually applied to the characteristic work of the Madras Presidency and the South of India. It is seen in many rock-cut temples as at Ellora, where the remarkable 'Kylas' is an instance of a temple cut out of the solid rock, complete, not only with respect to its interior (as in the case of mere caves) but also as to its exterior. It is, as it were, a life-size model of a complete building or group of buildings, several hundred feet in length, not built, but sculptured in solid stone, an undertaking of vast and, to our modern ideas, unprofitable industry. The Pagoda of Tanjore, the temples at Srirangam, Chidambaram, Vellore, Vijayanagar, &c., and the palaces at Madura and Tanjore are among the best known examples of the style.

The writer finds some difficulty in following Fergusson's two next divisions of classification, the "Chalukyan" of South-central India, and the "Northern or Indo-Aryan style." The differences and the similarities are apparently so intermixed and confusing that he is fain to fall back on the broad generic title of "Hindu"—however unscientific he may thereby stand confessed. Amongst a vast number of Hindu temples the following may be mentioned as particularly worthy of study.—Those at Mukteswara and Bhuvaneswar in Orissa, at Khajuraho, Bindraban, Udaipur, Benares, Gwalior &c. The palace of the Hindu Raja Man Singh at Gwalior is one of the most beautiful architectural examples in India. So also are the palaces of Amber, Dattya, Uchha, Dig and Udaipur.

Indo-Saracenic.

Among all the periods and styles in India the characteristics of none are more easily recognizable than those of what is generally called the "Indo-Saracenic" which developed after the Mahomedan conquest. Under the new influences now brought to bear on it the architecture of India took on a fresh lease of activity and underwent remarkable modifications. The dome, not entirely an unknown feature hitherto, became a special object of development, while the arch, at no time a favourite constructional form of the Hindu builders, was now forced on their attention by the predilections of the ruling class. The minaret also became a distinctive feature. The requirements of the new religion,—the mosque with its wide spaces to meet the needs of organized congregational acts of worship—gave opportunities for broad and spacious treatments that had hitherto been to some extent denied. The Moslem hatred of idolatry set a taboo on the use of sculptured representations of animate objects in the adornment of the buildings, and led to the development

of other decorative forms. Great ingenuity came to be displayed in the use of pattern and of geometrical and foliated ornament. This Moslem trait further turned the attention of the builders to greater extent than before to proportion, scale and mass as means of giving beauty, more richness of sculptured surface and the aesthetic and symbolic interest of detail being no longer to be depended on to the same degree.

The art was thus the gainer by the new conditions. It gained in power and variety much as "Classic" architecture gained under the Romans. But it equally lost something too. The Indo-Saracenic is apt to appear cold and hard. The writer was impressed by this on his first view of the Gwalior palace already mentioned. Though a Hindu building that palace has yet much of what might be called the more sophisticated quality of the Indo-Saracenic work as well as some similarity of detail. It has, being Hindu, a certain amount of sculptured ornament of animated forms, and the general effect of roundness, richness and interest thereby imparted seemed eloquent in suggestion as to what is lacking in so many of the Mahometan buildings.

Foreign Influence

There would appear to be a conflict between archaeologists as to the extent of the effect on Indian art produced by foreign influence under the Mahometans. The extreme view on the one hand is to regard all the best of the art as having been due to foreign importation. The Gandharan sculptures with their Greek tendency, the development of new forms and modes of treatment to which allusion has been made, the similarities to be found between the Mahometan buildings of India and those of North Africa and Europe, the introduction of the minaret and, above all, the historical evidences that exist of the presence in India of Europeans during Mogul times, are cited in support of the theory. On the other hand those of the opposite school hold the foregoing view to be due to the prevailing European preconception that all light and leading must come by way of Europe, and the best things in art by way of Greece. To them the Gandharan sculpture, instead of being the best, is the worst in India even because of its Greek tincture. They find in the truly indigenous work beauties and significances not to be seen in the Græco-Bactrian sculptures, and point to those of Borobudur in Java, the work of Buddhist colonists from India, wonderfully preserved by reason of an immunity from destructive influences given by the insular position, as showing the best examples of the art extant. It is probable that a just estimate of the merits of the controversy, with respect to sculpture at any rate, cannot be formed till time has obliterated some of the differences of taste that exist between East and West.

• To the adherents of the newer school the undisputed similarities between Indo-Mahometan and Hindu buildings outweigh those between Indian and Western Mahometan work, especially in the light of the dissimilarity between the latter. They admit the changes produced by the advent of Islam,

but contend that the art, though modified, yet remained in its essence what it had always been, indigenous Indian. The minaret, the dome, the arch, they contended, though developed under the Moslem influence, were yet, so far as their detailed treatment and craftsmanship are concerned, rendered in a manner distinctively Indian. Fergusson is usually regarded as the leader of the former school while the latter and comparatively recent school has at present found an eager champion in Mr E B Havell, whose works, on the subject are recommended for study side by side with those of the former writer. Mr Havell practically discards Fergusson's racial method of classification into styles in favour of a chronological review of what he regards to a greater extent than did his famous precursor as being one continuous homogeneous Indian mode of architectural expression, though subject to variations from the influences brought to bear upon it and from the varied purposes to which it was applied.

Agra and Delhi.

Agra and Delhi may be regarded as the principal centres of the Indo-Saracenic style—the former for the renowned Taj Mahal, for Akbar's deserted capital of Fatehpur Sikri, his tomb at Secundera, the Moti Masjid and palace buildings at the Agra fort. At Delhi we have the great Jumma Masjid, the Fort, the tombs of Humayun, Suddar Jung, &c., and the unique Quth Minar. Two other great centres may be mentioned, because in each there appeared certain strongly marked individualities that differentiated the varieties of the style there found from the variety seen at Delhi and Agra, as well as that of one from that of the other. These are Ahmedabad in Gujarat and Bijapur on the Dekhan, both in the Bombay Presidency.

Ahmedabad

At Ahmedabad with its neighbours Sirkehl and Champanir there seems to be less of a departure from the older Hindu forms, a tendency to adhere to the lintel and bracket rather than to have recourse to the arch, while the dome though constantly employed, was there never developed to its full extent as elsewhere, or carried to its logical structural conclusion. The Ahmedabad work is probably most famous for the extraordinary beauty of its stone 'jall'—or pierced lattice-work, as in the palm tree windows of the Sidi Sayyid Masjid.

Bijapur

The characteristics of the Bijapur variety of the style are equally striking. They are perhaps more distinctively Mahometan than those of the Ahmedabad buildings in that here the dome is developed to a remarkable degree, indeed the tomb of Mahmud—the well-known 'Gol Gumbaz'—is cited as showing the greatest space of floor in any building in the world roofed by a single dome, not even excepting the Pantheon. The lintel also was here practically discarded in favour of the arch. The Bijapur style shows a bold masculine quality and a largeness of structural conception that is unequalled elsewhere in India, though in richness and delicacy it does not attempt to rival the work of the further North. In this we recognise among other influences

that of the prevailing material, the hard uncompromising Dekhan basalt. In a similar manner the characteristics of the Ahmedabad work with its greater richness of ornamentation are bound up with the nature of the Gujarat freestone, while at Delhi and Agra the freer

choice of materials available—the local red and white sandstones, combined with access to marble and other more costly materials—was no doubt largely responsible for the many easily recognizable characteristics of the architecture of these centres.

II MODERN.

The modern architectural work of India divides itself sharply into two classes. There is first that of the indigenous Indian "master builder" to be found chiefly in the Native States, particularly those in Rajputana. Second there is that of British India, or of all those parts of the peninsula wherever Western ideas and methods have most strongly spread their influence, chiefly, in the case of architecture, through the medium of the Department of Public Works. The work of that department has been much animadverted upon as being all that building should not be, but, considering it has been produced by men of whom it was admittedly not the *metier*, and who were necessarily contending with lack of expert training on the one hand and with departmental methods on the other, it must be conceded that it can show many notable build *lags*. Of recent years there has been a tendency on the part of professional architects to turn their attention to India, and a number of these has even been drafted into the service of Government as the result of a policy initiated in Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty. In time, therefore, and with the growth of the influence of these men, such of the reproach against the building of the British in India as was just and was not merely thoughtlessly maintained as a corollary to the popular jape against every thing official, may gradually be removed. If this is so as to Government work progress should be even more assured in the freer atmosphere outside of official life. Already in certain of the greater cities, where the trained modern architect has established himself, in private practice, there are signs that his influence is beginning to be felt. He still complains, however, that the general public of India needs much educating up to a recognition of his value, both in a pecuniary sense and otherwise. It is also to be observed that the survival of a relic of the popular idea of the time before his advent, to the effect that though an architect might occasionally "design" a building it was always an engineer who built it, is still indicated by the architect in some cases deeming it advisable to style himself "architect and engineer."

To the work of the indigenous "master-builder" public attention has of recent years been drawn with some insistence, and the suggestion has been pressed that efforts should be directed towards devising means for the preservation of what is pointed out—and now universally acknowledged—to be a remarkable survival—almost the only one left in the world—of "living art," but which is threatened with gradual extinction by reason of the spread of Western ideas and fashions. The matter assumed some years ago the form of a mild controversy concerning round the question of the

then much discussed project of the Government of India's new capital at Delhi. It was urged that this project should be utilised to give the required impetus to Indian art rather than that it should be made a means of fostering European art which needed no such encouragement at India's expense. The advocates of this view appear for the most part to have been adherents of the "indigenous Indian" school of archaeologists already mentioned, and to have based their ideas on their own reading of the past. They still muster a considerable following not only amongst the artistic public of England and India, but even within the Government services. Their opponents, holding what appears to be the more official view both as to archaeology and art, have pointed to the "death" of all the arts of the past in other countries as an indication of a natural law, and deprecate as waste of energy all efforts to resist this law, or to institute what they have termed "another futile revival." The British in India they contend, should do as did the ancient Romans in every country on which they planted their conquering foot. As those were wont to replace indigenous art with that of Rome, so should we set our seal of conquest permanently on India by the erection of examples of the best of British art. This is the view which, as we have indicated, appears to have obtained for the moment the more influential hearing, and the task of designing and directing the construction of the principal buildings in the new Capital has accordingly been entrusted jointly to a London and to a South African architect, neither of whom can be unduly influenced by either past or recent architectural practice so far as India is concerned.

The results cannot but be awaited with the keenest interest, and meanwhile the controversy, with suspended judgment, naturally falls into abeyance. It is, moreover, however vital to the interests of the country's architecture, too purely technical and academic for its merits to be estimated by the general reader or discussed here. Its chief claim on our attention has in the fact that it affords an added interest to the tourist, who may see the fruits of both schools of thought in the various modern buildings of British India as well as examples of the "master builders" work in nearly every native town and bazaar. The town of Lasikar in Gwalior State may be cited as peculiarly rich in instances of picturesque modern Indian street architecture, while at Jaipur, Udaipur, Benares, etc., this class of work may be studied in many different forms both of civil and religious. The extent to which the "unbroken tradition from the past" exists may there be gauged by the traveller who is architect enough for the purpose.

Industrial Arts.

The ancient industrial arts of India formed two distinct groups. The first included those allied to, and dependent upon, architecture; the second comprise those applied to articles devoted to religious ritual, military weapons and trappings, domestic accessories and to personal adornment.

The articles of the first group were intended for some fixed and definite position and the style of their design and the character of their workmanship were dictated by that of the building with which they were incorporated. Those of the second group were movable, and the range of their design was less constricted and their workmanship was more varied. Examples of work in both groups are so numerous, and the arts comprise such a diversity of application, that only a cursory survey can be attempted within the limits of a short review. Although the design and treatment differ in the two groups, the materials used were often the same. These materials cover a very wide range but space only permits of reference to work applied to the four materials upon which the Indian craftsman's skill has been most extensively displayed. These are stone, wood, metal and textiles.

Before dealing separately with each of these materials a few words upon the principal Indian styles are necessary. The two distinctive styles are Hindu and Mahomedan. The former may be termed indigenous, dating as it does from remote antiquity, the latter was a variation of the great Arabian style, which was brought into India in the fourteenth century, and has since developed features essentially Indian in character. The art of both Hindus and Mahomedans is based upon religion and the requirements of religious ritual. The obvious expression of this is shown in the different motifs used for their ornament. In Hindu art all natural forms are accepted and employed for decorative purposes, but in that of the Mahomedans, nearly all natural forms are rejected and forbidden. The basis of Mahomedan decoration is therefore mainly geometrical. In each of them, racial characteristics are strikingly exhibited. The keynote of Hindu work is exuberance, imagination and poetry, that of Mahomedan, reticence, intellect and good taste. The Hindus are lavish, and often undiscriminating, in their employment of ornament, the Mahomedans use more restraint. In fact the two styles may be compared, without straining the analogy, to the Gothic and classic styles in Europe. In both styles the fecundity of ideas and invention in design are marvellous, and the craftsmanship often reaches a very high standard. Hindu art had been subjected throughout the ages to many foreign influences, but the artistic instincts of the people have proved so conservative that, whether these alien ideas came from the east or the west, they have been absorbed, and are now stamped with a definite Indian character. Recognition of this fact alone should relieve the anxiety of those critics who fear that the penetration of Western art and culture into India at the present time will eventually rob Indian art of its national character.

Stone Work.—Carved stone work is the principal form of decoration employed in Hindu temples. In variety and scope it ranges from the massive figures in the Buddhist and Brahminical Cave Temples, and the detached sculpture of the temples of Southern India, to the delicately incised reliefs and elaborately fretted ornament of the Jain temples at Mount Abu. A curious fact in relation to Hindu work is that priority of date appears to have no relation to artistic development. It is not possible to trace, as in the case of Greek, Roman and Medieval craftwork, the regular progressive steps from art in its primitive state to its culminating point and its subsequent decay. Styles in India seem to spring into existence fully developed, the earlier examples often exhibiting finer craftsmanship than those of a later date. There can be little doubt that stone carving in India was simply the application of the wood carver's art to another material. The treatment of stone by the Hindu craftsmen, even in the constructive principles of their buildings, bears a closer resemblance to the practice of the wood worker than to that of the stone mason. The earlier wooden examples from which the stone buildings and their decorations were derived have long since disappeared, but their influence is apparent. The keynote of Hindu design is rhythmic rather than symmetrical, that of their craftsmanship vigour rather than refinement. In the carving of the human figure and of animals great power of expressing action is shown, and this spontaneous feeling is preserved despite the greatest elaboration and detail. The industry displayed is amazing, no amount of labour appears to have daunted the Hindu craftsmen in carrying out their huge and intricate schemes of decoration.

The stone carving on Mahomedan buildings, except where Hindu carvers have been allowed a free hand, is much more restrained than that on Hindu temples. The fact that geometrical forms were almost exclusively used, dictated lower relief and greater refinement in the carving, while the innate good taste of the designers prompted them to concentrate the ornament upon certain prominent features, where its effect was heightened by the simplicity of the rest of the building. The invention displayed in working out geometrical patterns for work screens, inlay, and other ornamental details appears to be inexhaustible, while wonderful decorative use has been made of Arabic and Persian lettering in panels and their framing. To obtain a rich effect the Hindus relied upon the play of light and shade upon broken surfaces, the Mahomedans to attain the same end used precious materials, veneering the surfaces of their buildings with polished marble which they decorated with patterns of mosaic composed of jade, agate, onyx and other costly stones. Although the art of inlaying and working in hard stones was of Italian origin, it proved to be one eminently suited to the genius of the Indian craftsman; and many wonderful examples of their skill in the form of book rests, tables, thrones, footstools, vases and sword handles are extant to show the height of proficiency they attained. The treatment of precious

stones by Indian jewellers may here be referred to. Sir George Birdwood states that "the Indian jeweller thinks of producing the sumptuous, imposing effect of dazzling variety of rich and brilliant colours and nothing of the purity of his gems." This is true in a general sense and "full many a gem of purest ray serene" was utterly ruined by crude cutting and piercing. But although as early as the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries diamonds and precious stones from the Indian mines were taken to Europe to be cut, many of the finest jewels found their way back to the treasure houses of Indian princes.

Wood Work.—With a fine range of timbers suitable for the purpose, wood has played a great part in the construction and decoration of Indian buildings. Unfortunately, most of the ancient wood work has been destroyed by the action of the climate and the teeming insectivorous life of India, and that which escaped these enemies was wiped out by fire and the sword. It is therefore only possible to conjecture the height of artistic development these buildings and their decorations displayed by the copies in stone which have been preserved. Few if any examples of a date earlier than the sixteenth century are to be found. Many of these, and specimens of a later date, to be seen in towns and cities throughout the country, are masterpieces of design and craftsmanship. The carved timber fronts and inner courtyards of houses in Ahmedabad, Nasik, and other parts of Western India are notable for their picturesqueness and beauty—the structural beams, the overhanging balconies, with their screens and supporting brackets, being carved in a manner which unites richness of effect with good taste and propriety. Of furniture, as the term is now understood, few examples were in use in India before Europeans introduced their own fashions. These were confined to small tables and stools, book rests, clothes chests and screens, the designs of which conformed somewhat closely to the architectural style of the period. Many of these were decorated with inlays of coloured woods, ivory and metal, while in some cases the wooden basis was entirely plated with copper, brass or silver. In Southern India, where close grained sandalwood is grown, jewel cases and boxes are enriched with carving executed with the attention to detail and the finish generally associated with the carving of ivory. Coloured lac was freely used to decorate many articles of furniture, especially those turned on the lathe, and rich colour effects were obtained in this, perhaps the most distinctive and typically Indian development of decoration as applied to woodwork.

Metal Work.—With the exception of weaving, the metal working industry employed and still employs the greatest number of artistic craftsmen in India. Copper and brass have always been the two metals most widely used for domestic purposes by Mahomedans and Hindus. The shapes of many of these humble vessels are among the most beautiful to be found in the country. They exhibit that sense of variety and touch of personality which are only given by the work of the human hand, and the shapes are those which grow naturally from the working of the material with the simplest implements. In the technical treatment of

brass and copper Indian craftsmen have shown a taste and skill unsurpassed by those of other nations, except in the department of fine casting. In this, and in the working of gold and silver, a higher standard of technical and constructive exactness has been reached by the metal workers of Europe and Japan. It may be taken as an axiom that the more beautiful the shape of an article is, and this especially applies to metal work, the less need exists for the decoration of its surface. It is equally true that the highest test of craftsmanship is the production of a perfect article without any decoration. The reason being that the slightest technical fault is apparent on a plain surface, but can be hidden or disguised if one which is covered with ornament. The goldsmiths and silversmiths of India were extremely skilful and industrious, but judged by this test their works often exhibit a lack of care and exactness in the structural portions and a completely satisfactory example of perfectly plain work from the hands of the gold and silversmiths of India is rarely to be met with. Much of the excessive and often inappropriate ornamentation of the articles that they produced owed its application as much to the necessity of hiding defective construction as it did to any purely decorative purpose. For many generations, ornaments of gold and silver were regarded in the light of portable wealth, a practice which naturally made for massiveness. These solid ornaments are most effective and picturesque and, despite an enormous output of elaborate and delicate work from their hands, the most valuable contribution of the Indian metal workers to the sum total of man's artistic use of the precious metals will probably be found to lie in a certain barbaric note which distinguishes these pieces—a note not present in the craft work of other countries. In the design of Hindu gold and silver ornaments, religious symbols have been extensively used. The ornaments which bedeck the early sculptured figures, and those depicted in the paintings at the Cave Temples of Ajanta, are precisely the same in design and use as similar articles made at the present time, thus affording a striking evidence of the inherent conservatism of the Hindu people and its effect upon an industrial art that makes a closer personal appeal than any other.

Textiles.—The textile industry is the widest in extent in India and is that in which her craftsmen have shown their highest achievements. Other countries, east and west of India have produced work equal, if not superior, in stone, wood, and metal, but none has ever matched that of her weavers in cotton and wool, or expelled them in the weaving of silken fabrics. Some of the products of the looms of Bengal are marvels of technical skill and perfect taste, while the plum bloom quality of the old Cashmere shawls is an artistic achievement which places them in a class by themselves. Weaving being essentially a process of repetition, was the first to which machinery was applied, and modern science has brought power loom weaving to such a state of perfection that filaments of a substance finer even than those of Dacca, which astonished our ancestors, are now produced in the mills of Lancashire. But for beauty of surface and variety of texture, no machine-made fabrics have ever equalled

the finest handwork of the ancient weavers of India. Many of the most beautiful varieties of Indian textile work have disappeared, killed by the competition of the power loom and it is to be feared that under modern conditions they are never likely to be revived. In other branches of art as applied to textiles India does not hold so pre-eminent a position as in that of weaving. The printed silks and calicoes of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries deservedly held a high place in the estimation of Western nations, whose craftsmen learnt many valuable lessons from the technical skill, and artistic taste they display. In embroidery and fine needlework the West and the Far East have more than held their own, while nothing approaching the tapestries made in Europe in the middle ages has been produced in India. The nearest approach to these is in carpets and rugs. This art was introduced from Persia, but Indian craftsmen have never succeeded in equalling the finest work of their instructors either in colour or design.

Modern Conditions.—In the foregoing sketch of the ancient industrial art of India, as applied to the four principal materials employed, only a general indication of its more striking characteristics has been possible. A volume would be required to give a detailed description of any one of them, and would leave many other minor arts to be considered. All these branches of art came into existence, were developed and flourished in India when social and economic conditions were vastly different from those of the present day. Like similar artistic crafts carried on in Europe up to the end of the eighteenth century, they were executed by hand labour. The processes involved had not been discovered by scientific inquiry, such as is now understood by the phrase, but were the outcome of generations of slowly built up experience. We now come to the effect upon them of the changed conditions which have revolutionised industrial art in Europe during the last century.

The invention of the steam engine, and the application of mechanical power and scientific research to industry in Europe, mark the dividing line between ancient and modern industrial art. Not only on its technical side is this so, but the effect of these changes has been to alter the character of the work itself and the spirit which animated the craftsmen. In place of the ancient ideal of variety in design and treatment, which meant a limited output, the modern one of uniformity and unlimited output has been substituted. The capitalist has displaced the master craftsman, the organised factory, the small workshop, specialisation and division of labour have taken the place of general proficiency among the artisans, the function of the designer has been separated from that of the craftsman, local markets have been extended to serve the whole world, and the skilled handicraftsman has, in a great measure, become a machine-minder. It took about one hundred years of gradual change for the craftsmen of Europe fully to adjust themselves to these altered conditions, and during the greater portion of that period India protected by the difficulties of transport, continued its immemorial practices. Fifty years

opening of the Suez Canal, and the handicraftsmen of India have since been struggling to avoid the same fate which overtook those of Europe half a century before. With little time to adapt themselves to the changed conditions the Indian craftsmen have had to meet the competition of European rivals already fully equipped with new and unknown weapons. Even before this period of intense competition, observers interested in Indian craftwork had noticed evidences of its deterioration. The falling off, both in design and workmanship, was attributed to the conservative practices of the craftsmen, to the gradual loss of foreign markets, and to the long period of internal disorder which had deprived them of both the patronage of the rulers of an earlier age and the stimulating contact with foreign craftsmen who had previously been attracted to the splendid courts at Delhi and Agra. During the same period, an even greater degradation in design had overtaken the craftwork of Europe. This was due to entirely different causes, namely, to the introduction of machinery. Attention had been so concentrated upon speedy production, mechanical accuracy and commercial organisation that beauty of design had been almost entirely neglected. This was so forcibly demonstrated at the International Exhibition of 1881 that efforts were at once made to bring art and industry together once more. Schools of Art and Museums were founded throughout England and the same system was copied in a tentative and timid fashion in India. The function of these institutions was accurately estimated in England, where the artistic industries were already highly organised and were commercially successful, and whose products were to be found in every market of the world. Their business was to assist these industries by training a body of efficient designers capable of furnishing the factories with suitable designs, new or old, and in any style, to satisfy the requirements of customers in any country. It was never supposed for an instant that a School of Art could lead an industry in India their function was as completely misunderstood as were the causes of the depression in Indian craftwork. The schools were not only expected to lead the industries which were dying, but to revive those which were moribund, and resurrect those which were dead. In the report of the Indian Industrial Commission the need for some State-aided system of industrial and commercial organisation of the industrial arts with an expanded scheme of technical and artistic instruction for the craftsmen has been recognised, and valuable suggestions were made by experts who gave their evidence when the Commission visited the different Provinces. The success of the scheme recommended by the Commission will depend entirely upon the energy with which it is applied, and the practical knowledge and the assistance required by each of the different crafts on the part of those who control it. If, in addition, the same financial assistance and encouragement are given by the Imperial and Local Governments to the Indian craftsmen that have been bestowed by their own Government upon the art workers of Japan, industrial art in India will quickly emerge from the cloud of depression, which has hung over it for a century past into the sunlight of commercial

Archæology.

The archaeological treasures of India are as varied as they are numerous. Those of the pre-Muhammedan period may roughly be divided into (1) architectural and sculptural monuments and (2) inscriptions. No building or sculpture in India with any pretensions to be considered an example of architecture or art can be ascribed to a time earlier than that of Asoka (circa 250 B.C.). In the pre-Asoka architecture of India, as in that of Burma or China at the present day, wood was solely or almost solely employed. Even at the close of the 4th century, B.C., Megasthenes, the Greek Ambassador at the court of Chandragupta, grandfather of Asoka, describes Pataliputra, the capital of the Indian monarch, as "surrounded by a wooden wall pierced with loop-holes for the discharge of arrows." If the capital itself was thus defended, we can easily infer that the architecture of the period was wooden. And long long after stone was introduced the lithic styles continued to be influenced by, or copied from, the wooden.

Monumental Pillars.—The first class of works that we have to notice are the monumental pillars, known as *stûpas*. The oldest are the monolithic columns of Asoka, nearly thirty in number, of which ten bear his inscriptions. Of these the Lauriya-Nandagarh column in the Champaran District, Tirhut, is practically uninjured. The capital of each column, like the shaft, was monolithic, and comprised three members, viz., a Persepolitan bell, abacus, and crowning sculpture in the round. By far the best capital of Asoka's time was that exhumed at Sarnath near Benares. The four lions standing back to back on the abacus are carved with extraordinary precision and accuracy. Of the post-Asokan period one pillar (B.C. 150) stands to the north-east of Hesnagar in the Gwalior State, another in front of the cave of Karli (A.D. 70), and a third at Eran in Central Provinces belonging to the 5th Century, A.D. All these are of stone, but there is one of iron also. It is near the Qutb Minar at Delhi, and an inscription on it speaks of its having been erected by a king called Chandra, identified with Chandragupta II (A.D. 375-413) of the Gupta dynasty. It is wonderful "to find the Hindus at that age forging a bar of iron larger than any that have been forged even in Europe to a very late date, and not frequently even now." Pillars of later style are found all over the country, especially in the Madras Presidency. No less than twenty exist in the South Kanara District. A particularly elegant example faces a Jain temple at Mudahidri, not far from Mangalore.

Topes.—*Stûpas*, known as *dagabas* in Ceylon and commonly called *Topes* in North India, were constructed either for the safe custody of relics hidden in a chamber often near the base, or to mark the scene of notable events in Buddhist or Jain legends. Though we know that the ancient Jains built *stûpas*, no specimen of Jain *stûpas* is now extant. Of those belonging to the Buddhists, the great *Topé* of Sanchi in Mephal, is the most intact and entire of its class. It consists of a low circular drum supporting a hemispherical dome of less diameter. Round the drum is an open passage for circum-

ambulation, and the whole is enclosed by a massive stone railing with lofty gates facing the cardinal points. The gates are essentially wooden in character, and are carved, inside and out, with elaborate sculptures. The *stûpa* itself probably belonged to the time of Asoka, but as Sir John Marshall's recent explorations have conclusively shown, the railing and the gateways were at least 150 and 200 years later, respectively. Other famous Buddhist *stûpas* that have been found are those of Bharhut between Allahabad and Jubbulpore, Amravati in the Madras Presidency, and Piprahwa on the Nepalese frontier. The *stûpa* proper at Bharhut has entirely disappeared, having been utilised for building villages, and what remained of the rail has been removed to the Calcutta Museum. The bas-reliefs on this rail which contain short inscriptions and thus enable one to identify the scenes sculptured with the *Jataka* or Birth Stories of Buddha give it a unique value. The *stûpa* at Amravati also no longer exists, and portions of its rail, which is unsurpassed in point of elaboration and artistic merit, are now in the British and Madras Museums. The *stûpa* at Piprahwa was opened by Mr W. C. Peppe in 1898, and a steatite or soap-stone reliquary with an inscription on it was unearthed. The inscription, according to many scholars, speaks of the relics being of Buddha and enshrined by his kinsmen, the Sakyas. And we have thus here one of the *stûpas* that were erected over the ashes of Buddha immediately after his demise.

Caves.—Of the rock excavations which are one of the wonders of India, nine-tenths belong to Western India. The most important groups of caves are situated in Bhaja, Bedsa, Karli, Kanheri, Junnar, and Nasik in the Bombay Presidency, Ellora and Ajanta in Nizam's Dominions, Barabar 16 miles north of Gaya, and Udayagiri and Khandagiri 20 miles from Cuttack in Orissa. The caves belong to the three principal sects into which ancient India was divided, viz., the Buddhists, Hindus and Jains. The earliest caves so far discovered are those of Barabar which were excavated by Asoka and his grandson Dasaratha, and dedicated to Ajivikas, a naked sect founded by Makkhali Gosala. This refutes the theory that cave architecture was of Buddhist origin. The next earliest caves are those of Bhaja, Pitalkhora and cave No. 9 at Ajanta and No. 19 at Nasik. They have been assigned to 200 B.C. by Ferguson and Dr. Burgess. But there is good reason to suppose from Sir John Marshall's recent researches and from epigraphic considerations that they are considerably more modern. The Buddhist caves are of two types:—the *celarvas* or chapel caves and *viharas* or monasteries for the residence of monks. The first are with vaulted roofs and horse-shoe shaped windows over the entrance and have interiors consisting of a nave and side aisles with a small *stûpa* at the inner circular end. They are thus remarkably similar to Christian basilicas. The second class consist of a hall surrounded by a number of cells. In the latter whereas there was a *sanctum* in the centre of the back wall containing a large image of Buddha, Karli a *celarva* is found without one or more *stûpas* adorning it. Of the Hindu cave *celarvas*

ples that at Elephanta near Bombay is perhaps the most frequented. It is dedicated to Shiva and is not earlier than the 7th century A.D. But by far the most renowned cave-temple of the Hindus is that known as Kailasa at Ellora. It is on the model of a complete structural temple but carved out of solid rock. It also is dedicated to Shiva and was excavated by the Rashtrakuta king, Krishna I. (A.D. 768), who may still be seen in the paintings in the ceilings of the upper porch of the main shrine. Of the Jaina caves the earliest are at Khandgiri and Udayagiri, those of the mediæval type, in Indra Sabha at Ellora, and those of the latest period, at Anka in Nasik. The ceilings of many of these caves were once adorned with fresco paintings. Perhaps, the best preserved among these are those at Ajanta, which were executed at various periods between 350-650 A.D. and have elicited high praise as works of art. Copies were first made by Major Gill, but most of them perished by fire at the Crystal Palace in 1866. The lost ones were again copied by John Griffiths of the Arts School Bombay, half of whose work was similarly destroyed by a fire at South Kensington. They were last copied by Lady Herringham during 1909-11. Her pictures, which are in full scale, are at present exhibited at the Indian Section of the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington, and have been reproduced in a volume brought out by the India Society.

Gandhara Monuments.—On the north-west frontier of India, anciently known as Gandhara, are found a class of remains, ruined monasteries and buried stupas, among which we notice for the first time representations of Buddha and the Buddhist pantheon. The free use of Corinthian capitals, friezes of nude Erotes bearing a long garland, winged Atlantes without number, and a host of individual motifs clearly establish the influence of Hellenistic art. The mound at Peshawar, locally known as Shah Jike-Dheri, which was explored in 1909, brought to light several interesting sculptures of this school together with a reliquary casket, the most remarkable bronze object of the Gandhara period. The inscription on the casket left no doubt as to the mound being the stupa raised over the bones of Buddha by the Indo-Scythian king Kanishka. They were presented by Lord Minto's Government to the Buddhists of Burma and are now enshrined at Mandalay. To about the same age belong the stupas at Manikpala in the Punjab opened by Banjit Singh's French General, Ventura and Court, in 1850. Some of them contained coins of Kanishka.

Structural Temples.—Of this class we have one of the earliest examples at Sanchi, and another at Tigowa in the Central Provinces. In South India we have two more examples, viz., Lad Khan and Durga temples at Alibole in Bijapur. All these belong to the early Gupta period and cannot be later than 500 A.D. The only common characteristic is flat roofs without eaves of any kind. In other respects they are entirely different and already here we mark the beginning of the two styles, Indo-Aryan and Dravidian, whose differences become more and more pronounced from the 7th century onwards. In the Indo-Aryan style, the most prominent lines tend to the perpendicular, and in the

Dravidian to the horizontal. The salient feature of the former again is the curvilinear steeple, and of the latter, the pyramidal tower. The most notable examples of the first kind are to be found among the temples of Dharmaswar in Orissa, Khajarah in Bundelkhand, Oda in Jodhpur, and Dilwara on Mount Abu. One of the best known groups in the Dravidian style is that of the Mamallapuram Raikas, or Seven Pagodas, on the seashore to the south of Madras. They are each hewn out of a block of granite, and are rather models of temples than raikas. They are the earliest examples of typical Dravidian architecture, and belong to the 7th century. To the same age has to be assigned the temple of Kailasanath at Conjevaram, and to the following century some of the temples at Alibole and Pattadakal of the Bijapur District, Bombay Presidency, and the monolithic temple of Kailasa at Ellora, referred to above. Of the later Dravidian style the great temple at Tanjore and the Srirangam temple of Trichinopoly are the best examples.

Intermediate between these two main styles comes the architecture of the Deccan, called Chalukyan by Ferguson. In this style the plan becomes polygonal and star shaped instead of quadrangular, and the high storeyed spire is converted into a low pyramid in which the horizontal treatment of the Dravidian is combined with the perpendicular of the Indo-Aryan. Some fine examples of this type exist at Dambal, Rattihalli, Tilliwali and Hangal in Dharwar, Bombay Presidency, and at Itagi and Warangal in Nizam's Dominions. But it is in Mysore among the temples at Halebidu, Belur, and Somnathpur that the style is found in its full perfection.

Inscriptions.—We now come to inscriptions, of which numbers have been brought to light in India. They have been engraved on varieties of materials, but principally on stone and copper. The earliest of these are found incised in two distinct kinds of alphabet, known as Brahmi and Kharoshthi. The Brahmi was read from left to right, and from it have been evolved all the modern vernacular scripts of India. The Kharoshthi was written from right to left, and was a modified form of an ancient Aramaic alphabet introduced into the Punjab during the period of the Persian domination in the 5th century B.C. It was prevalent up to the 4th century A.D. and was superseded by the Brahmi. The earliest datable inscriptions are the celebrated edicts of Asoka. One group of these has been engraved on rocks, and another on pillars. They have been found from Shahbazgarhi 40 miles north-east of Peshawar to Nigiva in the Nepal Terai, from Gimar in Kathiawar to Dhaulvi in Orissa, from Kaim in the Lower Himalayas to Siddapur in Mysore, showing by the way the vast extent of territory held by him. The reference in his Rock Edicts to the five contemporary Greek Princes, Antiochus II. of Syria, Ptolemy Philadelphus, and so forth is exceedingly interesting, and fixes B.C. 269 as the date of his coronation. His Rumardel pillar inscription, again, discovered in Nepal Terai, now settles, beyond all doubt, the birth-place of Buddha which was for long disputed. Another noteworthy record is the inscription of the Bannagar pillar. The pillar had been turned over a long time, and the

Marshall was the first to notice the inscription on it. It records the erection of this column, which was a Garuda pillar, in honour of the god Vasudeva by one Heliodoros, son of Dion, who is described as an envoy of King Antialcidas of Taxila. Heliodoros is herein called a *Bhagavata*, which shows that though a Greek he had become a Hindu and presumably a Vaishnava. Another inscription worth noticing and especially in this connection is that of Cave No. 10 at Nasik. The donor of this cave, Ushavadata, who calls himself a Saka and was thus an Indo Scythian, is therein spoken of as having granted three hundred thousand kine and sixteen villages to gods and Brahmins and as having annually fed one hundred thousand Brahmins. Here is another instance of a foreigner having embraced Hinduism. Thus for the political, social, economical and religious history of India at the different periods the inscriptions are invaluable records, and are the only light but for which we are forlorn and blind.

Saracenic Architecture—This begins in India with the 13th century after the permanent occupation of the Muhammadans. Their first mosques were constructed of the materials of Hindu and Jain temples, and sometimes with comparatively slight alterations. The mosque called *Achut-din-ka-jhompra* at Ajmer and that near the Qutb Minar are instances of this kind. The Muhammadan architecture of India varied at different periods and under the various dynasties, imperial and local. The early Pathan architecture of Delhi was massive and at the same time was characterised by elaborate richness of ornamentation. The Qutb Minar and tombs of Alauddin and Ala-ud-din Khilji are typical examples. Of the Sharqi style we have three mosques in Jaunpur with several tombs. At Mandu in the Dhar State, a third form of Saracenic architecture sprang up, and we have here the Jamī Masjid, Roohang's tomb, Jahas Mahall and Hindola Mahall as the most notable instances of the secular and ecclesiastical styles of the Malwa Pathans. The Muhammadans of Bengal again developed their own style, and Pandua, Malda, and Gaur teem with the ruins of the buildings of this type, the important of which are the Adina Masjid of Sikandar Shah, the Eliakhī mosque, Kadam Rasul Masjid, and so forth. The Bahmani dynasty of Gulbarga and Bidar were also great builders, and adorned their capitals with important buildings. The most striking of these is the great mosque of Gulbarga, which differs from all mosques in India in having the whole central area covered over so that what in others would be an open court is here roofed by sixty-three small domes. "Of the various forms which the Saracenic architecture assumed," says Ferguson "that of Ahmedabad may probably be considered to be the most elegant." It is notable for its carved stone work and the work of the perforated stone windows in Sidi Sayyid's mosque, the carved lobes of the minars of many other mosques, the sculptured *Mihrabs* and domed and pannelled roofs is so exquisite that it will rival anything of the sort executed elsewhere at any period. No other style is so essentially Hindu, in complete contrast with this was the form of architecture employed by the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur.

There is here relatively little trace of Hindu forms or details. The principal buildings now left at Bijapur are the Jamī Masjid, Gagan Mahall, Minar Mahal, Ibrahim Raura and mosque and the Gol Gumbaz. Like their predecessors, the Pathans of Delhi, the Moghuls were a great building race. Their style first began to evolve itself during the reign of Akbar in a combination of Hindu and Muhammadan features. Noteworthy among the emperor's buildings are the tomb of Humayun, and the palaces at Fatehpur, Sikri and Agra. Of Jehangir's time his mosque at Lahore and the tomb of Itimad-ud-daula are the most typical structures. "The force and originality of the style gave way under Shah Jahan to a delicate elegance and refinement of detail. And it was during his reign that the most splendid of the Moghul tombs, the Taj Mahal at Agra, the tomb of his wife Mumtaz Mahal, was constructed. The Moti Masjid in Agra Fort is another surpassingly pure and elegant monument of his time.

Archæological Department—As the archæological monuments of India must attract the attention of all intelligent visitors, they would naturally feel desirous to know something of the Archæological Department. The work of this Department is primarily two-fold, conservation, and research and exploration. More but spasmodic efforts appear to have been made by Government in these directions till 1870 when they established the Archæological Survey of India and entrusted it to General (afterwards Sir) Alexander Cunningham, who was also the first Director-General of Archæology. The next advance was the initiation of the local Surveys in Bombay and Madras three years after. The work of these Surveys, however, was restricted to antiquarian research and description of monuments, and the task of conserving old buildings was left to the able efforts of the local Governments, often without expert guidance or control. It was only in 1878 that the Government of India under Lord Lytton awoke to this deplorable condition, and sanctioned a sum of 8½ lakhs to the repair of monuments in United Provinces, and soon afterwards appointed a conservator Major Cole, who did useful work for three years. Then a reaction set in and his post and that of the Director-General were abolished. The first systematic step towards recognising official responsibility in conservation matters was taken by Lord Curzon's Government, who established the seven Archæological Commissions, placed them on a permanent footing and united them together under the control of the Director-General, provision being also made for subsidising local Governments out of Imperial funds, when necessary. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Act was passed for the protection of historic monuments and relics especially in private possession, and also for State control over the excavation of ancient sites and traffic in antiquities. Under the direction of Sir John Marshall, Kt., C.I.E., Director-General of Archæology, a comprehensive and systematic campaign of repair has been prosecuted, and the results of it is manifest in the present altered conditions of many old and historic buildings and in the successful excavation of buried sites such as Taxila and Patliputra.

Indian Time.

For many years Indian time was in a state of chaotic confusion. What was called Madras or Railway time was kept on all the railways and each great centre of population kept its own local time, which was not based on any common scientific principle and was divorced from the standards of all other countries. It was with a view to remedying this confusion that the Government of India took the matter up in 1904, and addressed to the Local Governments, and through them to all local bodies, a long letter which reviewed the situation and made suggestions for the future. The essential points in this letter are indicated below.

"In India we have already a standard time, which is very generally, though by no means universally, recognised. It is the Madras local time, which is kept on all railway and telegraph lines throughout India and which is 5h 21m 10s in advance of Greenwich. Similarly, Rangoon local time is used upon the railways and telegraphs of Burma, and is 6h 24m 47s ahead of Greenwich. But neither of these standards bears a simple and easily remembered relation to Greenwich time.

"The Government of India have several times been addressed by Scientific Societies, both in India and in England, and urged to fall into line with the rest of the civilised world. And now the Royal Society has once more returned to the attack. The Committee of that Society which advises the Government of India upon matters connected with its observatories writes—'The Committee think that a change from Madras time to that corresponding to a longitude exactly 5½ hours east of Greenwich would be an improvement upon the existing arrangements but that for international scientific purposes the hourly zone system, making the time 5 hours in advance of Greenwich in the west, and 6 hours in advance in the east of India, would be preferable.'

"Now if India were connected with Europe by a continuous series of civilised nations with their continuous railway systems all of which had adopted the European hour zone system, it would be imperative upon India to conform and to adopt the second suggestion. But as she is not, and as she is as much isolated by uncivilised States as Cape Colony is by the ocean, it is open to her to follow the example of that and some other similarly situated colonies and to adopt the first suggestion.

"It is believed that this will be the better solution. There are obvious objections to drawing an arbitrary line right across the richest and most populous portions of India, and so as to bisect all the main lines of communication, and keeping times differing by an hour on opposite sides of that line. India has become accustomed to a uniform standard in the Madras time of the railways and the substitution for it of a double standard would appear to be a retrograde step, while it would, in all probability be strongly opposed by the railway authorities. Moreover, it is very desirable that whatever system is adopted should be followed by all Europeans and Indians alike, and it is certain that the double standard would puzzle the latter greatly, while by emphasizing the fact that railway differed from local time, it might postpone or even altogether prevent the acceptance of the former instead of the latter by people generally over a large part of India. The one great advantage which the second

possesses over the first alternative is, that under the former, the difference between local and standard time can never exceed half an hour whereas under the latter it will even exceed an hour in the extreme cases of Karachi and Quetta. But this inconvenience is believed to be smaller than that of keeping two different times on the Indian system of railways and telegraphs.

'It is proposed, therefore to put on all the railway and telegraph clocks in India by 8m. 50s. They would then represent a time 5½ hours faster than that of Greenwich, which would be known as Indian Standard Time and the difference between standard and local time at the places mentioned below would be approximately as follows, the figures representing minutes, and F and S meaning that the standard time is in advance of or behind local time respectively—Dibrugarh 51 S, Shillong 38 S, Calcutta 24 S, Allahabad 2 F, Madras 9 F, Lahore 38 F, Bombay 39 F., Peshawar 44 F., Karachi 62 F., Quetta 62 F.

'This standard time would be as much as 14 and 55 minutes behind local time at Mandalay and Rangoon respectively, and since the railway system of Burma is not connected with that of India, and already keeps a time of its own, namely, Rangoon local time, it is not suggested that Indian Standard Time should be adopted in Burma. It is proposed, however, that instead of using Rangoon Standard Time as at present, which is 6h 15m 10s in advance of Greenwich, a Burmese time of 6h 30m should be adopted on all the railway and telegraphs which would be one hour in advance of Indian Standard Time, or 6½ hours ahead of Greenwich time and would correspond with 97° 30' E longitude. The change would bring Burma time into simple relation both with European and with Indian time, and would (among other things) simplify telegraphic communication with other countries.

"Standard time will thus have been fixed for railways and telegraphs for the whole of the Indian Empire. Its general adoption for all purposes, while eminently advisable, is a matter which must be left to the local community in each case."

It is difficult to recall, without a sense of bewilderment, the reception of this proposal by various local bodies. To read now the fears that were entertained if Standard Time was adopted is a study in the possibilities of human error. The Government scheme left local bodies to decide whether or not they would adopt it. Calcutta decided to retain its own local time and to-day Calcutta time is still twenty four minutes in advance of Standard Time. In Bombay the first reception of the proposal was hostile, but on reconsideration the Chamber of Commerce decided in favour of it and so did the Municipality. Subsequently the opposing element in the Municipality brought in a side resolution, by which the Municipal clocks were put at Bombay time which is thirty-nine minutes behind Standard Time. On the 1st January 1906 all the railway and telegraph clocks in India were put at Indian Standard Time, in Burma the Burma Standard Time became universal. Calcutta retains its former Calcutta time, but in Bombay local time is retained only in the clocks which are maintained by the Municipality and in the establishments of some orthodox Hindus. Elsewhere Standard Time is universal.

Coinage, Weights and Measures.

As the currency of India is based upon the rupee, statements with regard to money are generally expressed in rupees, nor has it been found possible in all cases to add a conversion into sterling. Down to about 1878 the gold value of the rupee (containing 165 grains of pure silver) was approximately equal to 2s. or one-tenth of a £, and for that period it is easy to convert rupees into sterling by striking off the final cipher (Rs. 1,000=£100). But after 1878, owing to the depreciation of silver as compared with gold throughout the world, there came a serious and progressive fall in the exchange, until at one time the gold value of the rupee dropped as low as 1s. In order to provide a remedy for the heavy loss caused to the Government of India in respect of its gold payments to be made in England, and also to relieve foreign trade and finance from the inconvenience due to constant and unforeseen fluctuations in exchange, it was resolved in 1893 to close the mints to the free coinage of silver, and thus force up the value of the rupee by restricting the circulation. The intention was to raise the exchange value of the rupee to 1s 4d., and then introduce a gold standard at the rate of Rs 15=£1. From 1899 onwards the value of the rupee has been maintained, with insignificant fluctuations, at the proposed rate of 1s 4d., and consequently since that date three rupees have been equivalent to two rupees before 1878. For the intermediate period, between 1878 and 1899, it is manifestly impossible to adopt any fixed sterling value for a constantly changing rupee. But since 1899, if it is desired to convert rupees into sterling, not only must the final cipher be struck off (as before 1878), but also one-third must be subtracted from the result. Thus Rs. 1,000=£100- $\frac{1}{3}$ =(about) £67.

Notation.—Another matter in connection with the expression of money statements in terms of rupees requires to be explained. The method of numerical notation in India differs from that which prevails throughout Europe. Large numbers are not punctuated in hundreds of thousands and millions, but in lakhs and crores. A lakh is one hundred thousand (written out as 1,00,000), and a crore is one hundred lakhs or ten millions (written out as 1,00,00,000). Consequently, according to the exchange value of the rupee, a lakh of rupees (Rs. 1,00,000) may be read as the equivalent of £10,000 before 1878, and as the equivalent of (about) £6,667 after 1899, while a crore of rupees (Rs. 1,00,00,000) may similarly be read as the equivalent of £1,000,000 before 1878, and as the equivalent of (about) £666,667 after 1899.

Coinage.—Finally, it should be mentioned that the rupee is divided into 16 annas, a fraction commonly used for many purposes by both Indians and Europeans. The anna was formerly reckoned as $\frac{1}{16}$ d., it may now be considered as exactly corresponding to $\frac{1}{16}$ d. The anna is again sub-divided into 12 pies.

Weights.—The various systems of weights used in India combine uniformity of scale with immense variations in the weight of units. The scale used generally throughout Northern India, and less commonly in Madras and

Bombay, may be thus expressed one maund=40 seers, one seer=16 chittaks or 80 tolas. The actual weight of a seer varies greatly from district to district, and even from village to village, but in the standard system the tola is 180 grains Troy (the exact weight of the rupee), and the seer thus weighs 2 057 lb., and the maund 82 28 lb. The standard is used in official reports.

Retail.—For calculating retail prices, the universal custom in India is to express them in terms of seers to the rupee. Thus, when prices change what varies is not the amount of money to be paid for the same quantity, but the quantity to be obtained for the same amount of money. In other words, prices in India are quantity prices, not money prices. When the figure of quantity goes up, this of course means that the price has gone down, which is at first sight perplexing to an English reader. It may, however, be mentioned that quantity prices are not altogether unknown in England, especially at small shops where pennyworths of many groceries can be bought. Eggs, likewise, are commonly sold at a varying number for the shilling. If it be desired to convert quantity prices from Indian into English denominations without having recourse to money prices (which would often be misleading), the following scale may be adopted—based upon the assumption that a seer is exactly 2 lb., and that the value of the rupee remains constant at 1s 4d., 1 seer per rupee=(about) 3 lb for 2s., 2 seers per rupee=(about) 6 lb for 2s., and so on.

The name of the unit for square measurement in India generally is the *bigha*, which varies greatly in different parts of the country. But areas have been expressed in this work either in square miles or in acres.

Proposed reforms.—Indian weights and measures have never been settled upon an organised basis suitable for commerce and trade characteristic of the modern age. They vary from town to town and village to village in a way that could only work satisfactorily so long as the dealings of towns and villages were self-contained and before roads and railways opened up trade between one and the other. It is pointed out that in England a bushhead of wine contains 63 gallons and a bushhead of beer only 54 gallons, that a bushel of corn weighs 48 lbs in Sunderland and 240 lbs in Cornwall, that the English stone weight represents 14 lbs in popular estimation, but only 5 lbs, if we are weighing glass, and eight for meat, but 6 lbs for cheese. Similar instances are multiplied in India by at least as many times as India is bigger than England. If we take, for instance, the main denomination of weight common all over India, we shall find that in a given city there are nearly as many maunds as there are articles to weigh. If we consider the maund as between district and district the state of affairs is worse. Thus in the United Provinces alone, the maund of sugar weighs 48½ seers in Cawn pore, 40 in Muzaffar, 72½ in Gorakhpur, 40 in Agra, 50 in Moradabad, 42½ in Saharanpur, 50 in Bareilly, 46 in Fyzabad, 42½ in Shahjahanpur, 51 in Gossainsganj. The maund

values throughout all India from the Bengal or railway maund of 83-2/3 lbs. to the Factory maund of 74 lbs 10 oz. 11 dr., the Bombay maund of 83 lbs. which apparently answers to the Forest Department maund in use at the Poona Depot and the Madras maund, which some authorities estimate at 25 lbs and others at 24 lbs. and so on.

Committees of Inquiry—These are merely typical instances which are multiplied indefinitely. There are variations of every detail of weights and measures in every part of India. The losses to trade arising from the confusion and the trouble which this state of things causes are heavy. Municipal and commercial bodies are continually returning to the problem with a view to devising a practical scheme of reform. The Supreme and Provincial Governments have made various attempts during 40 years past to solve the problem of universal units of weights and measures and commerce and trade have agitated about the question for the past century. The Indian railways and Government departments adopted a standard tola (180 grains) seer (80 tolas) and maund (40 seers) and it was hoped that this would act as a successful lead which would gradually be followed by trade throughout the empire, but the expectation has not been realised.

The Government of India considered the whole question in consultation with the provincial Governments in 1890-1894 and various special steps have at different times been taken in different parts of India. The Government of Bombay appointed a committee in 1911 to make proposals for reform for the Bombay Presidency. Their final report has not been published but they presented in 1912 an *ad interim* report which has been issued for public discussion. In brief it points out the practical impossibility of proceeding by compulsory measures affecting the whole of India. The Committee stated that over the greater part of the Bombay Presidency a standard of weights and measures would be heartily welcome by the people. They thought that legislation compulsorily applied over large areas subject to many diverse conditions of trade and social life would not result in bringing about the desired reform so successfully as a lead supplied by local legislation based on practical experience. The want of coherence *sans juris*, or the means of co-operation among the people at large pointed to this conclusion. The Committee pointed out that a good example of the results that will follow a good lead is apparent in the East Khandesh District of the Presidency, where the District Officer, Mr. Simcox, gradually, during the course of three years, induced the people to adopt throughout the district uniform weights and measures the unit of weight in this case being a tola of 180 grains. But the committee abstained from recommending that the same weights and measures should be adopted over the whole Presidency, preferring that a new system started in any area should be as nearly as possible similar to the best system already prevailing there.

Committee of 1913.—The whole problem was again brought under special consideration by the Government of India in October, 1913,

when the following committee was appointed to inquire into the entire subject anew:—

Mr C. A. Silbernard (President).
Mr A. Y. G. Campbell.
Mr Rustomji Fardoonji.

This Committee reported, in August, 1915, in favour of a uniform system of weights to be adopted in India based on the 180 grain tola. The report says—Of all such systems there is no doubt that the most widespread and best known is that known as the Bengal or Indian Railway weights. The introduction of this system involves a more or less considerable change of system in parts of the United Provinces (Gorakhpur, Barilly and neighbouring areas) practically the whole of Madras, parts of the Punjab (rural portions of Amritsar and neighbouring districts) of Bombay (South Bombay, Bombay city and Gujarat), and the North West Frontier Province. Burma has at present a separate system of its own which the committee think it should be permitted to retain. The systems recommended are—

FOR INDIA

8 khaekhas	= 1 chawal
8 chawals	= 1 ratti
8 rattis	= 1 masaha
12 masahas or 4 tanks	= 1 tola
5 tolas	= 1 chatak
16 chataks	= 1 seer
40 seers	= 1 maund

FOR BURMA

2 small ywes	= 1 large ywe
4 large ywes	= 1 pe
2 pes	= 1 mu
5 pes or 2½ mus	= 1 mat
1 mat	= 1 ngamu
2 ngamus	= 1 tika
100 tikals	= 1 piktha or visa.

The tola is the tola of 180 grains, equal to the rupee weight. The visa has recently been fixed at 960 lbs or 140 tolas.

Government Action.—The Government of India at first approved the principles of the Report and left the Provincial Governments to take action, but they passed more detailed orders in January 1922. In these they again, for the present and subject to the restrictions imposed by the Government of India Act and the devolution rules, left it entirely to local Governments to take such action as they think advisable to standardise dry and liquid measures of capacity within their provinces. Similarly, they announced their decision not to adopt all-India standards of length or area.

As regards weight they decided in favour of the standard mentioned under the heading "Weights", near the commencement of this article this having been recommended by a majority of the Weights and Measures Committee and having received the unanimous support of the Local Governments. At the same time they provisionally undertook to assist provincial legislation or standardisation and stated that "if subsequently, opinion develops strongly in favour of the Imperial standardisation of weights, the Government of India will be prepared to undertake such legislation, but at present they consider that any such step would be premature."

The History of India in Outline.

No history of India can be proportionate, and the briefest summary must suffer from the same defect. Even a wholesale acceptance as history of mythology, tradition, and folklore will not make good, though it makes picturesque, the many gaps that exist in the early history of India. And, though the labours of modern geographers and archaeologists have been amazingly fruitful, it cannot be expected that these gaps will ever be filled to any appreciable extent. Approximate accuracy in chronology and an outline of dynastic facts are all that the student can look for up to the time of Alexander, though the briefest excursion into the by-ways of history will reveal to him many alluring and mysterious fields for speculation. There are, for example, to this day castles that believe they sprang originally from the loins of a being who landed from an impossible boat on the shores of a highly improbable sea, and the great epic poems contain plentiful statements equally difficult of reconciliation with modern notions of history as a science. But from the Jataka stories and the Puranas, much valuable information is to be obtained, and, for the benefit of those unable to go to these and other original sources, it has been distilled by a number of writers.

The orthodox Hindu begins the political history of India more than 3,000 years before Christ, with the war waged on the banks of the Jumna between the sons of Kuru and the sons of Pandu, but the modern critic prefers to omit several of those remote centuries and to take 600 B C. or thereabouts, as his starting point. At that time much of the country was covered with forest, but the Aryan races, who had entered India from the north, had established in parts a form of civilization far superior to that of the aboriginal savages, and to this day there survive cities, like Benares founded by those invaders. In like manner the Dravidian invaders from an unknown land, who overran the Deccan and the Southern part of the Peninsula, crushed the aborigines, and at a much later period, were themselves subdued by the Aryans. Of these two civilizing forces, the Aryan is the better known, and of the Aryan kingdoms the first of which there is authentic record is that of Magadha, or Bihar, on the Ganges. It was in, or near, this powerful kingdom that Jainism and Buddhism had their origin, and the fifth King of Magadha, Bimbisara by name, was the friend and patron of Gautama Buddha. The King mentioned was a contemporary of Darius, autocrat of Persia (521 to 485 B C.) who annexed the Indus valley and formed from his conquest an Indian satrapy which paid as tribute the equivalent of about one million sterling. Detailed history, however, does not become possible until the invasion of Alexander in 326 B C.

Alexander the Great

That great soldier had crossed the Hindu Kush in the previous year and had captured Aornos, on the Upper Indus. In the spring of 326 he crossed the river at Ohind, received the submission of the King of Taxila, and marched against Porus who ruled the fertile country between the rivers Hydaspes (Jhelum) and

Arasnee (Chenab). The Macedonians carried all before him, defeating Porus at the battle of the Hydaspes, and crossing the Chenab and Ravi. But at the River Hyphasis (Bias) his weary troops mutinied, and Alexander was forced to turn back and retire to the Jhelum where a fleet to sail down the rivers to the sea was nearly ready. The wonderful story of Alexander's march through Mekran and Persia to Babylon, and of the voyage of Nearchus up the Persian Gulf is the climax to the narrative of the invasion but is not part of the history of India. Alexander had stayed nineteen months in India and left behind him officers to carry on the Government of the kingdoms he had conquered, but his death at Babylon, in 323, destroyed the fruits of what has to be regarded as nothing but a brilliant raid, and within two years his successors were obliged to leave the Indian provinces, heavily scarred by war but not hellenized.

The leader of the revolt against Alexander's generals was a young Hindu, Chandragupta, who was an illegitimate member of the Royal Family of Magadha. He dethroned the ruler of that kingdom, and became so powerful that he is said to have been able to place 603,000 troops in the field against Seleucus, to whom Babylon had passed on the death of Alexander. This was too formidable an opposition to be faced, and a treaty of peace was concluded between the Syrian and Indian monarchs which left the latter the first paramount Sovereign of India (321 B C.) with his capital at Pataliputra, the modern Patna and Benares. Of Chandragupta's court and administration a very full account is preserved in the fragments that remain of the history compiled by Megasthenes, the ambassador sent to India by Seleucus. His memorable reign ended in 297 B C. when he was succeeded by his son Bindusara, who in his turn was succeeded by Asoka (269—231 B C.) who recorded the events of his reign in numerous inscriptions. This king, in an unusually bloody war, added to his dominions the kingdom of Kalinga (the Northern Orissa) and then becoming a convert to Buddhism, resolved for the future to abstain from conquest by force of arms. The consequences of the conversion of Asoka were amazing. He was not intolerant of other religions, and did not endeavour to force his creed on his children. But he initiated measures for the propagation of his doctrine with the result that "Buddhism, which had hitherto been a merely local sect in the valley of the Ganges, was transformed into one of the greatest religions of the world—the greatest, probably, if measured by the number of adherents. This is Asoka's claim to be remembered, this it is which makes his reign an epoch, not only in the history of India, but in that of the world." The wording of his edicts reveal him as a great king as well as a great missionary, and it is to be hoped that the ruins excavations now being carried out in the ruins of his palace may throw yet more light on his character and times. On his death the Maurya kingdom fell to pieces. Even during his reign there had been signs of new forces at work on the borderland of India, where the Indo-

pendent kingdoms of Bactria and Parthia had been formed, and subsequent to it there were frequent Greek raids into India. The Greeks in Bactria, however, could not withstand the overwhelming force of the westward migration of the Yueh-chi horde, which, in the first century A. D., also ousted the Indo-Parthian kings from Afghanistan and North-Western India.

The first of these Yueh-chi kings to annex a part of India was Kadphises II (A. D. 85—125), who had been defeated in a war with China, but crossed the Indus and consolidated his power eastward as far as Benares. His son Kanishka (whose date is much disputed) left a name which to Buddhists stands second only to that of Asoka. He greatly extended the boundaries of his empire in the North, and made Peshawar his capital. Under him the power of the Kushan clan of the Yueh-chi reached its zenith and did not begin to decay until the end of the second century, concurrently with the rise in middle India of the Andhra dynasty which constructed the Amaravati stupa, "one of the most elaborate and precious monuments of piety ever raised by man."

The Gupta Dynasty

Early in the fourth century there arose, at Pataliputra, the Gupta dynasty which proved of great importance. Its founder was a local chief, his son Samudragupta, who ruled for some fifty years from A. D. 325, was a king of the greatest distinction. His aim of subduing all India was not indeed fulfilled but he was able to exact tribute from the kingdoms of the South and even from Ceylon, and, in addition to being a warrior, he was a patron of the arts and of Sanskrit literature. The rule of his son, Chandragupta, was equally distinguished and is commemorated in an inscription on the famous iron pillar near Delhi, as well as in the writings of the Chinese pilgrim Fa hien who pays a great tribute to the equitable administration of the country. It was not until the middle of the fifth century that the fortunes of the Gupta dynasty began to wane—in face of the onset of the White Huns from Central Asia—and by 480 the dynasty had disappeared. The following century all over India was one of great confusion, apparently marked only by the rise and fall of petty kingdoms, until a monarch arose, in A. D. 605 capable of consolidating an Empire. This was the Emperor Harsha who, from Thanagar near Ambala, conquered Northern India and extended his territory South to the Nerbudda. Imitating Asoka in many ways, this Emperor yet "felt no embarrassment in paying adoration in turn to Shiva, the Sun, and Buddha at a great public ceremonial." Of his times a graphic picture has been handed down in the work of a Chinese "Master of the Law," Hsuen Tsang by name. Harsha was the last native paramount sovereign of Northern India; on his death in 648 his throne was usurped by a Minister, whose treacherous conduct towards an embassy from China was quickly avenged, and the kingdom so laboriously established lapsed into a state of internecine strife which lasted for a century and a half.

The Andhras and Rajputs.

In the meantime in Southern India the Andhras had attained to great prosperity and

carried on a considerable trade with Greece, Egypt and Rome, as well as with the East. Their domination ended in the fifth century A. D. and a number of new dynasties, of which the Pallavas were the most important, began to appear. The Pallavas made way in turn for the Chalukyas, who for two centuries remained the most important Deccan dynasty, one branch uniting with the Cholas. But the fortunes of the Southern dynasties are so involved, and in many cases so little known, that to recount them briefly is impossible. Few names of note stand out from the record except those of Vikramaditya (11th century) and a few of the later Hindu rulers who made a stand against the growing power of Islam, of the rise of which an account is given below. In fact the history of mediæval India is singularly devoid of unity. Northern India was in a state of chaos from about 650 to 950 A. D. not unlike that which prevailed in Europe of that time, and materials for the history of these centuries are very scanty. In the absence of any powerful rulers the jungle began to gain back what had been wrested from it; ancient capitals fell into ruins from which in some cases they have not even yet been disturbed, and the aborigines and various foreign tribes began to assert themselves so successfully that the Aryan element was chiefly confined to the Doab and the Eastern Punjab. It is not therefore so much for the political as for the religious and social history of this anarchical period that one must look. And the greatest event—if a slow process may be called an event—of the middle ages was the transition from tribe to caste, the final disappearance of the old four fold division of Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and the formation of the new division of pure and impure largely resting upon a classification of occupations. But this social change was only a part of the development of the Hindu religion into a form which would include in its embrace the many barbarians and foreigners in the country who were outside it. The great political event of the period was the rise of the Rajputs as warriors in the place of the Kshatriyas. Their origin is obscure but they appeared in the 8th century and spread, from their two original homes in Rajputana and Oudh, into the Punjab, Kashmir, and the Central Himalayas, assimilating a number of fighting clans and binding them together with a common code. At this time Kashmir was a small kingdom which exercised an influence on India wholly disproportionate to its size. The only other kingdom of importance was that of Kanauj—in the Doab and Southern Oudh—which still retained some of the power to which it had reached in the days of Harsha, and of which the renown extended to China and Arabia.

With the end of the period of anarchy, the political history of India centres round the Rajputs. One clan founded the kingdom of Gujarat, another held Malwa, another (the Chauhanas) founded a kingdom of which Ajmer was the capital, and so on. Kanauj fell into the hands of the Rathors (circa 1040 A.D.) and the dynasty then founded by that branch of the Gaharwaras of Benares became one of the most famous in India. Later in the same century the Chauhanas were united, and by

1168 one of them could boast that he had conquered all the country from the Vindhya to the Himalayas, including Delhi already a fortress a hundred years old. The son of this conqueror was Prithwi Raj, the champion of the Hindus against the Mahomedans. With his death in battle (1192) ends the golden age of the new civilisation that had been evolved out of chaos, and of the greatness of that age there is a splendid memorial in the temples and forts of the Rajput states and in the two great philosophical systems of Sankaracharya (ninth century) and Ramanuja (twelfth century). The triumph of Hinduism had been achieved, it must be added, at the expense of Buddhism, which survived only in Magadha at the time of the Mahomedan conquest and speedily disappeared there before the new faith.

Mahomedan India.

The wave of Mahomedan invaders that eventually swept over the country first touched India, in Sind, less than a hundred years after the death of the Prophet in 632. But the first real contact was in the tenth century when a Turkish slave of a Persian ruler founded a kingdom at Ghazni, between Kabul and Kandahar. A descendant of his, Mahmud (967-1030) made repeated raids into the heart of India, capturing places so far apart as Multan, Kanauj, Gwalior, and Somnath in Kathiawar, but permanently occupying only a part of the Punjab. Enduring Mahomedan rule was not established until the end of the twelfth century, by which time, from the little territory of Ghor, there had arisen one Mahomed Ghorî capable of carving out a kingdom stretching from Peshawar to the Bay of Bengal. Prithwi Raj, the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer, made a brave stand against, and once defeated, one of the armies of this ruler, but was himself defeated in the following year. Mahomed Ghorî was murdered at Lahore (1206) and his vast kingdom, which had been governed by satraps, was split up into what were practically independent sovereignties. Of these satraps, Qutb ud-din, the slave ruler of Delhi and Lahore, was the most famous, and is remembered by the great mosque he built near the modern Delhi. Between his rule and that of the Mughals, which began in 1526, only a few of the many Kings who governed and fought and built beautiful buildings stand out with distinction. One of these was Ala ud-din (1296-1316), whose many expeditions to the south much weakened the Hindu Kings, and who proved himself to be a capable administrator. Another was Firoz Shah, of the house of Tughlaq, whose administration was in many respects admirable, but which ended, on his abdication, in confusion. In the reign of his successor, Mahmud (1398-1413), the kingdom of Delhi went to pieces and India was for seven months at the mercy of the Turkish conqueror Taimur. It was the end of the fifteenth century before the kingdom, under Sikandar Lodi, began to recover. His son, Ibrahim, still further extended the kingdom that had been recreated, but was defeated by Babur, King of Kabul, at Panipat, near Delhi, in 1556, and there was then established in India the Mughal dynasty.

The Mahomedan dynasties that had ruled in capital other than Delhi up to this date

were of comparative unimportance, though some great men appeared among them. In Gujarat, for example, Ahmad Shah, the founder of Ahmedabad, showed himself a good ruler and builder as well as a good soldier, though his grandson, Mahmud Shah Begara, was a greater ruler—acquiring fame at sea as well as on land. In the South various kings of the Bahmani dynasty made names for themselves, especially in the long wars they waged on the new Hindu kingdom that had arisen which had its capital at Vijayanagar. Of importance also was Adil Khan, a Turk, who founded (1490) the Bijapur dynasty of Adil Shahis. It was one of his successors who crushed the Vijayanagar dynasty, and built the great mosque for which Bijapur is famous.

The Mughal Empire

As one draws near to modern times it becomes impossible to present anything like a coherent and consecutive account of the growth of India as a whole. Detached threads in the story have to be picked up one by one and followed to their ending, and although the sixteenth century saw the first European settlements in India, it will be convenient here to continue the narrative of Mahomedan India almost to the end of the Mughal Empire. How Babur gained Delhi has already been told. His son, Humayun, greatly extended his kingdom, but was eventually defeated (1540) and driven into exile by Sher Khan, an Afghan of great capabilities, whose short reign ended in 1545. The Sur dynasty thus founded by Sher Khan lasted another ten years when Humayun, having snatched Kabul from one of his brothers, was strong enough to win back part of his old kingdom. When Humayun died (1556) his eldest son, Akbar, was only 13 years old and was confronted by many rivals. Nor was Akbar well served, but his career of conquest was almost uninterrupted and by 1594 the whole of India North of the Nerbudda had bowed to his authority, and he subsequently entered the Deccan and captured Ahmednagar. This great ruler, who was as remarkable for his religious tolerance as for his military prowess, died in 1605, leaving behind him a record that has been surpassed by few. His son, Jehangir, who married the Persian lady Nur Jahan, ruled until 1627, bequeathing to the admiring posterity some notable buildings—the tomb of his father at Sikandra, part of the palace at Agra, and the palace and fortresses of Lahore. His son, Shahjahan, was for many years occupied with wars in the Deccan, but found time to make his court of incredible magnificence and to build the most famous and beautiful of all tombs, the Taj Mahal, as well as the fort, palace and Juma Masjid at Delhi. The quarrels of his sons led to the deposition of Shahjahan by one of them, Aurangzeb, in 1658. This Emperor's rule was one of constant intrigue and fighting in every direction, the most important of his wars being a twenty-five years' struggle against the Marathas of the Deccan who, under the leadership of Shivaji, became a very powerful faction in Indian politics. His bigoted attitude towards Hinduism made Aurangzeb all the more anxious to establish his Empire on a firm basis in the south, but he was unable to hold his many conquests, and on his death (1707) the

Empire, for which his three sons were fighting, could not be held together. Internal disorder and Maratha encroachments continued during the reigns of his successors, and in 1739 a fresh danger appeared in the person of Nadir Shah, the Persian conqueror, who carried all before him. On his withdrawal, leaving Mahomed Shah on the throne, the old intrigues recommenced and the Marathas began to make the most of the opportunity offered to them by puppet rulers at Delhi and by almost universal discord throughout what had been the Mughal Empire. There is little to add to the history of Mahomedan India. Emperors continued to reign in name at Delhi up to the middle of the 19th century, but their territory and power had long since disappeared, being swallowed up either by the Marathas or by the British.

European Settlements

The voyage of Vasco da Gama to India in 1498 was what turned the thoughts of the Portuguese to the formation of a great Empire in the East. That idea was soon realized, for, from 1500 onwards constant expeditions were sent to India and the first two Viceroyalties in India—Almeida and Albuquerque—laid the foundations of a great Empire and of a great trade monopoly. Goa, taken in 1510, became the capital of Portuguese India and remains to this day in the hands of its captors, and the countless ruins of churches and forts on the shores of Western India, as also farther East at Malacca, testify to the zeal with which the Portuguese endeavoured to propagate their religion and to the care they took to defend their settlements. There were great soldiers and great missionaries among them—Albuquerque, da Cunha, da Castro in the former class, St. Francis Xavier in the latter. But the glory of Empire loses something of its lustre when it has to be paid for, and the constant drain of men and money from Portugal, necessitated by the attacks made on their possessions in India and Malaya, was found almost intolerable. The junction of Portugal with Spain, which lasted from 1580 to 1640, also tended to the downfall of the Eastern Empire and when Portugal became independent again, it was unequal to the task of competing in the East with the Dutch and English. The Dutch had little difficulty in wresting the greater part of their territory from the Portuguese, but the seventeenth century naval wars with England forced them to relax their hold upon the coast of India, and during the French wars between 1795 and 1811 England took all Holland's Eastern possessions, and the Dutch have left in India but few traces of their civilisation and of the once powerful East India Company of the Netherlands.

The first English attempts to reach India date from 1498 when Cabot tried to find the North-West passage, and these attempts were repeated all through the sixteenth century. The first Englishman to land in India is said to have been one Thomas Stephens (1579) who was followed by a number of merchant adventurers, but trade between the two countries really dates from 1600 when Elizabeth incorporated the East India Company which had been formed in London. Factories in India were founded only after Portuguese and Dutch settlements had been overcome, notably in the

sea fight off Swally (Suvali) in 1612. The first factory, at Surat, was for many years the most important English foothold in the East. Its establishment was followed by others, including Fort St. George, Madras, (1640) and Hughli (1651). In the history of these early years of British enterprise in India the cession of Bombay (1661) as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza stands out as a landmark. It also illustrates the weakness of the Portuguese at that date, since in return the King of England undertook to protect the Portuguese in India against their foes—the Marathas and the Dutch. Cromwell, by his treaty of 1654, had already obtained from the Portuguese an acknowledgment of England's right to trade in the East, and that right was now threatened, not by the Portuguese, but by Shivaji and by the general disorder prevalent in India. Accordingly, in 1686, the Company turned its attention to acquiring territorial power, and announced its intention to establish such a policy of civil and military power, and create and secure such a large revenue as may be the foundation of a large, well grounded, sure English dominion in India for all time to come. Not much came of this announcement for some time, and no stand could be made in Bengal against the depredations of Aurangzeb. The foundations of Calcutta (1690) could not be laid by Job Charnock until after a humiliating peace had been concluded with that Emperor and, owing to the difficulties in which the Company found itself in England, there was little chance of any immediate change for the better. The union of the old East India Company with the new one which had been formed in rivalry to it took place in 1703, and for some years peaceful development followed; though Bombay was always exposed by sea to attacks from the pirates, who had many strongholds within easy reach of that port, and on land to attacks from the Marathas. The latter danger was felt also in Calcutta. Internal dangers were numerous and still more to be feared. More than one mutiny took place among the troops sent out from England, and rebellions like that led by Kolgarin in Bombay threatened to stifle the infant settlements. The public health was bad and the rate of mortality was at times appalling. To cope with such conditions strong men were needed, and the Company was in this respect peculiarly fortunate, the long list of its servants, from Oxenden and Aungler to Hastings and Baffles, contains many names of men who proved themselves good rulers and far-sighted statesmen, the finest Empire-builders the world has known.

Attempts to compete with the English were made of course. But the schemes of the Emperor Charles VI to secure a share of the Indian trade were not much more successful than those made by Scotland, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. By the French, who founded Pondicherry and Chandernagore towards the end of the 17th century, much more was achieved, as will be seen from the following outline of the development of British rule.

The French Wars.

When war broke out between England and France in 1744, the French had acquired a

strong position in Southern India, which had become independent of Delhi and was divided into three large States—Hyderabad, Tanjore, and Mysore—and a number of petty states under local chieftains. In the affairs of these States Dupleix, when Governor of Pondicherry, had intervened with success, and when Madras was captured by a French squadron, under La Bourdonnais (1746) Dupleix wished to hand it over to the Nawab of Arcot—a deputy of the Nizams who ruled in the Carnatic. The French, however, kept Madras, repelling an attack by the disappointed Nawab as well as the British attempts to recapture it. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the English. The fighting had shown the Indian powers the value of European troops, and this was again shown in the next French war (1750-54) when Clive achieved enduring fame by his capture and subsequent defence of Arcot. This war arose from Dupleix supporting candidates for the disputed successions at Arcot and Hyderabad while the English at Madras put forward their own nominees. One of Dupleix's officers, the Marquis de Bussy, persuaded the Nizam to take into his pay the army which had established his power, and in return the Northern Circars, between Orissa and Madras, was granted to the French. This territory, however, was captured by the English in the seven years' war (1756-63). Dupleix had by then been recalled to France. Lally, who had been sent to drive the English out of India, captured Fort St. David and invested Madras. But the victory which Colonel (Sir Byre) Coote won at Wandiwash (1760) and the surrender of Pondicherry and Gingee put an end to the French ambitions of Empire in Southern India. Pondicherry passed more than once from one nation to the other before settling down to its present existence as a French colony in miniature.

Battle of Plassey

While the English were fighting the third French war in the South they became involved in grave difficulties in Bengal, where Siraj-ud-Daula had acceded to power. The headquarters of the English at Calcutta were threatened by that ruler who demanded they should surrender a refugee and should cease building fortifications. They refused and he marched against them with a large army. Some of the English took to their ships and made off down the river, the rest surrendered and were cast into the jail known as the "Black Hole." From this small and stifling room 23 persons, out of 146, came out alive the next day. Clive who was at Madras, immediately sailed for Calcutta with Admiral Watson's squadron, recaptured the town (1757), and, as war with the French had been proclaimed, proceeded to take Chandernagore. The Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula then took the side of the French, and Clive, putting forward Mir Jafar as candidate for the Nawab's throne, marched out with an army consisting of 900 Europeans, 2,000 sepoys and a piece of artillery against the Nawab's host of over 50,000. The result was the historic battle of Plassey (June 23) in which Clive, after hesitating on his course to be pursued, routed the Nawab. Mir Jafar was put on the throne

at Murshidabad, and the price of this honour was put at £2,500,000 in addition to the grant to the Company of the land round Calcutta now known as the District of the twenty-four Parganas. In the year after Plassey, Clive was appointed Governor of Bengal and in that capacity sent troops against the French in Madras and in person led a force against the Oudh army that was threatening Mir Jafar, in each case with success. From 1760 to 1765 Clive was in England. During his absence the Council at Calcutta deposed Mir Jafar and, for a price, put Mir Kasim in his place. This ruler moved his capital to Monghyr, organised an army, and began to intrigue with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. He soon found, in a dispute over customs dues, an opportunity of quarrelling with the English and the first shots fired by his followers were the signal for a general rising in Bengal. About 200 Englishmen and a number of sepoys were massacred, but his trained regiments were defeated at Gheria and Oodeynullah, and Mir Kasim sought protection from the Nawab of Oudh. But in 1764, after quelling a sepoy mutiny in his own camp by blowing 24 ring-leaders from the guns, Major (Sir Hector) Munro defeated the joint forces of Shah Alam, the Mughal Emperor, and the Nawab of Oudh in the battle of Buxar. In 1765 Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey) returned as Governor. "Two landmarks stand out in his policy. First, he sought the substance, although not the name, of territorial power, under the fiction of a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Second, he desired to purify the Company's service, by prohibiting illicit gains, and by guaranteeing a reasonable pay from honest sources. In neither respect were his plans carried out by his immediate successors. But our efforts towards a sound administration date from this second Governorship of Clive, as our military supremacy dates from his victory at Plassey. Before Clive left India, in 1767, he had readjusted the divisions of Northern India and had set up a system of Government in Bengal by which the English received the revenues and maintained the army while the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the Nawab. The performance of his second task, the purification of the Company's service, was hotly opposed but carried out. He died in 1774 by his own hand, the House of Commons having in the previous year censured him, though admitting that he did render "great and meritorious services to his country."

Warren Hastings.

The dual system of government that Clive had set up proved a failure and Warren Hastings was appointed Governor, in 1772, to carry out the reforms settled by the Court of Directors which were to give them the entire care and administration of the revenues. Thus Hastings had to undertake the administrative organisation of India, and, in spite of the factious attitude of Philip Francis, with whom he fought a duel and of other members of his Council, he reorganised the civil service, reformed the system of revenue collection, greatly improved the financial position of the Company, and created courts of justice and some semblance of a police force. From 1772 to 1774 he was Governor of Bengal, and from 1774 to 1780

he was the first Governor-General, nominated under an Act of Parliament passed in the previous year. His financial reforms, and the forced contributions he enacted from the rebellious Chet Singh and the Begam of Oudh, were interpreted in England as acts of oppression and formed, together with his action in the trial of Nuncumar for forgery, the basis of his seven years' trial before the House of Lords which ended in a verdict of not guilty on all the charges. But there is much more for which his administration is justly famous. The recovery of the Marathas from their defeat at Panipat was the cardinal factor that influenced his policy towards the native states. One frontier was closed against Maratha invasion by the loan of a British brigade to the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, for his war against the Rohillas, who were intriguing with the Marathas. In Western India he found himself committed to the two Maratha wars (1775-82) owing to the ambition of the Bombay Government to place its own nominee on the throne of the Peshwa at Poona, and the Bengal troops that he sent over made amends, by the conquest of Gujarat and the capture of Gwalior, for the disgrace of Wadgaon where the Marathas overpowered a Bombay army. In the South—where interference from Madras had already led (1769) to what is known as the first Mysore war, a disastrous campaign against Hyder Ali and the Nizam—he found the Madras Government again in conflict with those two potentates. The Nizam he won over by diplomacy, but against Hyder Ali he had to despatch a Bengal army under Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder Ali died in 1782 and two years later a treaty was made with his son Tipu. It was in these acts of intervention in distant provinces that Hastings showed to best advantage as a great and courageous man, cautious, but swift in action when required. He was succeeded, after an interregnum, by Lord Cornwallis (1786-98) who built on the foundations of civil administration laid by Hastings, by entrusting criminal jurisdiction to Europeans and establishing an Appellate Court of Criminal Judicature at Calcutta. In the Civil Service he separated the functions of the District Collector and Judge and organized the "writers" and "merchants" of the Company into an administrative Civil Service. This system was subsequently extended to Madras and Bombay. Lord Cornwallis is better known for his introduction, on orders from England, of the Permanent Settlement in Bengal (See article on Land Revenue). A third Mysore war was waged during his tenure of office which ended in the submission of Tipu Sultan. Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth), an experienced Civil Servant, succeeded Lord Cornwallis, and, in 1798, was followed by Lord Wellesley, the friend of Pitt, whose projects were to change the map of India.

Lord Wellesley's Policy

The French in general, and "the Cornican" in particular, were the enemy most to be dreaded for a few years before Lord Wellesley took up his duties in India, and he formed the scheme of definitively ending French schemes in Asia by placing himself at the head of a great Indian confederacy. He started by obtaining from the Nawab of Oudh the cession of

large tracts of territory in lieu of payments overdue as subsidies for British troops, he then won over the Nizam to the British side, and, after exposing the intrigues of Tipu Sultan with the French, embarked on the fourth Mysore war which ended (1799) in the fall of Seringapatam and the gallant death of Tipu. Part of Mysore, the Carnatic, and Tanjore roughly constituting the Madras Presidency of to-day then passed to British rule. The five Maratha powers—the Peshwa of Poona, the Gaekwar of Baroda, Sindhia of Gwalior, Holkar of Indore and the Raja of Nagpur—had still to be brought into the British net. The Peshwa, after being defeated by Holkar, fled to British territory and signed the Treaty of Bassem which led to the third Maratha war (1802-04) as it was regarded by Sindhia and the Raja of Nagpur as a betrayal of Maratha independence. In this the most successful of British campaigns in India, Sir Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington) and General (Lord) Lake carried all before them, the one by his victories of Assaye and Argaum and the other at Aligarh and Laswari. Later operations, such as Colonel Monson's retreat through Central India were less fortunate. The great acquisitions of territory made under Lord Wellesley proved so expensive that the Court of Directors, becoming impatient, sent out Lord Cornwallis a second time to make peace at any price. He, however, died soon after his arrival in India; and Sir George Barlow carried on the government (1805-7) until the arrival of a stronger ruler, Lord Minto. He managed to keep the peace in India for six years, and to add to British dominions by the conquest of Java and Mauritius. His foreign policy was marked by another new departure, inasmuch as he opened relations with the Punjab, Persia, and Afghanistan, and concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh, at Lahore, which made that Sikh ruler the loyal ally of the British for life.

The successor of Lord Minto was Lord Moira who found himself obliged almost at once to declare war on the Gurkhas of Nepal, who had been encroaching on British territory. After initial reverses, the English, under General Ochterlony, were successful and the Treaty of Sagauli (1816) was drawn up which defines British relations with Nepal to the present day. For this success Lord Moira was made Marquis of Hastings. In the same year he made preparations for the last Maratha war (1817-18) which was made necessary by the lawless conduct of the Pindaris, gangs of Pathan or Rohilla origin, whose chief patrons were the rulers of Native States. The large number of 120,000 that he collected for this purpose destroyed the Pindaris, annexed the dominions of the rebellious Peshwa of Poona, protected the Rajput States, made Sindhia enter upon a new treaty, and compelled Holkar to give up part of his territory. Thus Lord Hastings established the British power more firmly than ever, and when he resigned, in 1823, all the Native States outside the Punjab had become parts of the political system and British interests were permanently secured from the Persian Gulf to Singapore. Lord Amherst followed Lord Hastings, and his five years' rule (1823-28) are memorable for the first Burmese war and the capture of Bhamo. The former success

tion was undertaken owing to the insistent demands and raids of the Burmese, and resulted in the Burmese ceding Assam, Arakan, and the coast of Maritaban and their claims to the lower provinces. The capture of Bharatpur by Lord Combermere (1826) wiped out the repulse which General Lake had received there twenty years earlier. A disputed succession on this occasion led to the British intervention.

Social Reform.

A former Governor of Madras, Lord William Bentinck, was the next Governor-General. His epitaph by Macaulay, says: "He abolished cruel rites, he effaced humiliating distinctions, he gave liberty to the expression of public opinion, his constant study was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the nations committed to his charge."

Some of his financial reforms, forced on him from England, and his widening of the gates by which educated Indians could enter the service of the Company, were most unpopular at the time, but were eclipsed by the acts he took for the abolition of Sati, or widow burning, and the suppression—with the help of Captain Sleeman—of the professional hereditary assassins known as *Thugs*. In 1832 he annexed Cutch, and, two years later, Coorg. The incompetence of the ruler of Mysore forced him to take that State also under British administration—where it remained until 1881. His rule was marked in other ways by the despatch of the first steamship that made the passage from Bombay to Suva, and by his settlement of the long educational controversy in favour of the advocates of instruction in English and the vernacular. Lord William Bentinck left India (1835) with his programme of reforms unfinished. The new Charter Act of 1833 had brought to a close the commercial business of the Company and emphasized their position as rulers of an Indian Empire in trust for the Crown. By it the whole administration, as well as the legislation of the country, was placed in the hands of the Governor-General in Council, and authority was given to create a Presidency of Agra. Before his retirement Bentinck assumed the statutory title of Governor-General of India (1834), thus marking the progress of consolidation since Warren Hastings in 1774 became the first Governor-General of Fort William. Sir Charles Metcalfe, being senior member of Council, succeeded Lord William Bentinck, and during his short tenure of office carried into execution his predecessor's measures for giving entire liberty to the press.

Afghan Wars.

With the appointment of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (1836-42) there began a new era of war and conquest. Before leaving London he announced that he looked with exultation to the prospect of "promoting education and knowledge, and of extending the blessings of good Government and happiness to millions in India," but his administration was almost exclusively comprised in a fatal expedition to Afghanistan, which dragged in the train the annexation of Sind, the Sikh wars, and the Jackson of Baluchistan in the protectorate of India. The first Afghan war was undertaken partly to counter the Russian advance

in Central Asia and partly to place on the throne at Kabul the deposed ruler Shah Shuja in place of Dost Mahomed. The latter object was easily attained (1839) and for two years Afghanistan remained in the military occupation of the British. In 1841 Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated in Kabul and Sir William Macnaghten suffered the same fate in an interview with the son of Dost Mahomed. The British Commander in Kabul, Gen. Elphinstone, was old and feeble, and after two months' delay he led his army of 4,500 and 12,000 camp followers back towards India in the depth of winter. Between Kabul and Jallalabad the whole force perished, either at the hands of the Afghans or from cold, and Dr. Brydon was the only survivor who reached the latter city. Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord Auckland and was persuaded to send an army of retribution to relieve Jallalabad. One force under Gen. Pollock relieved Jallalabad and marched on Kabul, while Gen. Nott, advancing from Kandahar, captured Ghazni and joined Pollock at Kabul (1842). The bazaar at Kabul was blown up, the prisoners rescued, and the army returned to India leaving Dost Mahomed to take undisputed possession of his throne. The drama ended with a bombastic proclamation from Lord Ellenborough and the parade through the Punjab of the (apocryphal) gates of Somnath taken from the tomb of Mahmud of Ghazni.

Sikh Wars

Lord Ellenborough's other wars—the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier and the suppression of an outbreak in Gwalior—were followed by his recall, and the appointment of Sir Henry (1st Lord) Hardinge to be Governor-General. A soldier Governor-General was not unacceptable, for it was felt that a trial of strength was imminent between the British and the remaining Hindu power in India, the Sikhs. Ranjit Singh, the founder of the Sikh Kingdom, had died in 1839, loyal to the end to the treaty he had made with Metcalfe thirty years earlier. He left no son capable of ruling, and the *Khalas*, or central council of the Sikh army, was burning to measure its strength with the British sepoy. The intrigues of two men, Lal Singh and Pei Singh, to obtain the supreme power led to their crowning the Sutlej and invading British territory. Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, and the Governor-General hurried to the frontier, and within three weeks four pitched battles were fought—at Mudki, Ferozshah Aliwal, and Sobrasan. The Sikhs were driven across the Sutlej and Lahore surrendered to the British, but the province was not annexed. By the terms of peace the infant Duleep Singh was recognized as Rajah, Major Henry Lawrence was appointed Resident, to assist the Sikh Council of Regency, at Lahore, the Jallundur Doab was added to British territory, the Sikh army was limited, and a British force was sent to garrison the Punjab on behalf of the child Rajah. Lord Hardinge returned to England (1848) and was succeeded by Lord Dalhousie, the greatest of Indian proconsuls.

Dalhousie had only been in India a few months when the second Sikh war broke out. In the attack on the Sikh position at Chillianwala the British lost 2,400 officers, and men

besides four guns and the colours of three regiments; but before reinforcements could arrive from England, bringing Sir Charles Napier as Commander-in-Chief, Lord Gough had restored his reputation by the victory of Gujrat which absolutely destroyed the Sikh army. As a consequence the Punjab was annexed and became a British province (1849) its pacification being so well carried out, under the two Lawrences that on the outbreak of the Mutiny eight years later it remained not only quiet but loyal. In 1852 Lord Dalhousie had again to embark on war, this time in Burma, owing to the ill-treatment of British merchants in Rangoon. The lower valley of the Irrawaddy was occupied from Rangoon to Prome and annexed, under the name of Pegu, to those provinces that had been acquired in the first Burmese war. British territories were enlarged in many other directions during Lord Dalhousie's tenure of office. His "doctrine of lapse" by which British rule was substituted for Indian in States where continued misrule on the failure of a dynasty made this change possible, came into practice in the cases of Satara, Jhansi, and Nagpur (which last-named State became the Central Provinces) where the rulers died without leaving male heirs. Oudh was annexed on account of its misrule. Dalhousie left many other marks on India. He reformed the administration from top to bottom, founded the Public Works Department, initiated the railways, telegraphs and postal system, and completed the great Ganges canal. He also detached the Government of Bengal from the charge of the Governor-General, and summoned representatives of the local Governments to the deliberations of the Government of India. Finally, in education he laid down the lines of a department of public instruction and initiated more practical measures than those devised by his predecessors. It was his misfortune that the mutiny, which so swiftly followed his resignation, was by many critics in England attributed to his passion for change.

The Sepoy Mutiny

Dalhousie was succeeded by Lord Canning in 1856, and in the following year the sepoys of the Bengal army mutinied and all the valley of the Ganges from Delhi to Patna rose in rebellion. The causes of this convulsion are difficult to estimate, but are probably to be found in the unrest which followed the progress of English civilisation, in the spreading of false rumours that the whole of India was to be subdued, in the confidence the sepoy troops had acquired in themselves under British leadership, and in the ambition of the educated classes to take a greater share in the government of the country. Added to this, there was in the deposed King of Delhi, Bahadur Shah, a centre of growing disaffection. Finally there was the story—not devoid of truth—that the cartridges for the new Enfield rifle were greased with fat that rendered them unclean for both Hindus and Mahomedans. And when the mutiny did break out it found the Army without many of its best officers who were employed in civil work, and the British troops reduced, in spite of Lord Dalhousie's warnings, below the number he considered essential for safety. On May 10

the sepoys at Meerut rose in mutiny, cut down a few Europeans, and, unchecked by the large European garrison, went off to Delhi where next morning the Mahomedans rose. From that centre the mutiny spread through the North-Western Provinces and Oudh into Lower Bengal. Risings in the Punjab were put down by Sir John Lawrence and his subordinates, who armed the Sikhs, and with their help reduced the sepoys, and Lawrence was subsequently able to send a strong body of Sikhs to aid in the siege of Delhi. The native armies of Madras and Bombay remained for the most part true to their colours. In Central India, the contingents of some of the great chieftains joined the rebels, but Hyderabad was kept loyal by the influence of its minister, Sir Saif Jung.

The interest of the war centres round Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow, though in other places massacres and fighting occurred. The siege of Delhi began on June 8 when Sir Henry Barnard occupied the Ridge outside the town. Barnard died of cholera early in July, and Thomas Reed, who took his place, was obliged through illness to hand over the command to Archdale Wilson. In August Nicholson arrived with a reinforcement from the Punjab. In the meantime the rebel forces in Delhi was constantly added to by the arrival of new bodies of mutineers, attacks were frequent and the losses heavy. Cholera and sunstroke carried off many victims on the Ridge and when the final assault was made in September the Delhi Army could only parade 4,720 infantry, of whom 1,960 were Europeans. The arrival of siege guns made it possible to advance the batteries on September 8, and by the 13th a breach was made. On the following day three columns were led to the assault, a fourth being held in reserve. Over the ruins of the Kashmir Gate, blown in by Horse and Salkeld, Col Campbell led his men and Nicholson formed up his troops within the walls. By nightfall the British, with a loss of nearly 1,900 killed and wounded, had only secured a foothold in the city. Six days' street fighting followed and Delhi was won, but the gallant Nicholson was killed at the head of a storming party. Bahadur Shah was taken prisoner, and his two sons were shot by Captain Hudson.

Massacre at Cawnpore.

At Cawnpore the sepoys mutinied on June 27 and found in Nana Sahib, the heir of the last Peshwa a willing leader in spite of his former professions of loyalty. There a European force of 240 with six guns had to protect 870 non-combatants, and held out for 22 days, surrendering only on the guarantee of the Nana that they should have a safe conduct as far as Allahabad. They were embarking on the boats on the Ganges when fire was opened on them, the men being shot or hacked to pieces before the eyes of their wives and children and the women being mutilated and murdered in Cawnpore to which place they were taken back. Their bodies were thrown down a well just before Havelock, having defeated the Nana's forces, arrived to the relief. In Lucknow a small garrison held out in the Residency from July 3 to September 25 against tremendous odds and enduring the most fearful hardships. The relieving force, under Havelock and Outram, was itself invested, and the garrison was

he finally delivered until Sir Colin Campbell arrived in November. Fighting continued for months in Oudh, which Sir Colin Campbell finally reduced, and in Central India, where Hugh Rose waged a brilliant campaign against the disheartened Rani of Jhansi—who led at the head of her troops—and Tantia Topi.

Transfer to the Crown.

With the end of the mutiny there began a new era in India, strikingly marked at the outset by the Act for the Better Government of India (1858) which transferred the entire administration from the Company to the Crown, so that Act India was to be governed by, and in the name of, the Sovereign through a Secretary of State, assisted by a Council of fifteen members. At the same time the Governor-General received the title of Viceroy. The European troops of the Company numbering about 24,000 officers and men were—greatly resenting the transfer—marginalized with the loyal service, and the Indian Navy was abolished. On November 1, 1858, the Viceroy pronounced in Durbar at Allahabad that Queen Victoria had assumed the Government of India, and proclaimed a policy of justice and religious toleration. A principle already enunciated in the Charter Act of 1833 was reinforced, and all, of every race or creed, were to be admitted as far as possible to those offices in the Queen's service for which they might be qualified. (The aim of the Government was to be the benefit of all her subjects in India—"In their prosperity will be our strength, in their contentment our security, and in their gratitude our best reward.") Peace was proclaimed in July 1859, and in the cold weather Lord Canning went on tour in the northern provinces to receive the homage of loyal chiefs and to assure them that the "policy of lapse" was at an end. A number of other important reforms marked the closing years of Canning's Viceroyalty. The India Councils Act (1861) augmented the Governor-General's Council, and the Councils of Madras and Bombay by adding non-official members, European and Indian, for legislative purposes only. By another Act of the same year High Courts of Judicature were constituted. To deal with the increased debt of India, Mr James Wilson was sent from England to be Financial Member of Council, and to him are due the customs system, income tax, license duty, and State paper currency. The cares of office had broken down the Viceroy's health. Lady Canning died in 1862 and this hastened his departure for England where he died in June of that year. His successor, Lord Elgin, lived only a few months after his arrival in India, and was succeeded by Sir John (afterwards Lord) Lawrence, the "saviour of the Punjab."

Sir John Lawrence.

The chief task that fell to Sir John Lawrence was that of reorganizing the Indian military system, and of reconstructing the Indian army. The latter task was carried out on the principle that in the Bengal army the proportion of Europeans to Indians in the infantry and cavalry should be one to two, and in the Madras and Bombay armies one to three; the artillery was to be almost wholly European. The re-organization was effected only in spite of

financial difficulties and the ending of Indian revenue with the cost of a war in Abyssinia with which India had no direct concern, but operations in Bhutan were all the drain made on the army in India while the re-organizing process was being carried on. Two severe famines—in Orissa (1866) and Bundelkhand and Upper Hindustan (1868-9)—occurred, while Sir John Lawrence was Viceroy, and he laid down the principle for the first time in Indian history, that the officers of the Government would be held personally responsible for taking every possible means to avert death by starvation. He also created the Irrigation Department under Col. (Sir Richard) Strachey. Two commercial crises of the time have to be noted. One seriously threatened the tea industry in Bengal. The other was the consequence of the wild gambling in shares of every description that took place in Bombay during the years of prosperity for the Indian cotton industry, caused by the American Civil War. The "Share Mania" however, did no permanent harm to the trade of Bombay, but was, on the other hand, largely responsible for the series of splendid buildings begun in that city during the Governorship of Sir Bartle Frere. Sir John Lawrence retired in 1869, having passed through every grade of the service from an Assistant Magistracy to the Viceroyalty. Lord Mayo, who succeeded him, created an Agricultural Department and introduced the system of Provincial Finance, thus fostering the impulse to local self-government. He also laid the foundation for the reform of the salt duties, thereby enabling his successors to abolish the inter-provincial customs lines. Unhappily his vast schemes for the development of the country by extending communications of every kind were not carried out to the full by him, for he was murdered in the convict settlement of the Andaman Islands, in 1872. Lord Northbrook (Viceroy 1872-6) had to exercise his abilities chiefly in the province of finance. A severe famine which threatened Lower Bengal in 1874 was successfully warded off by the organization of State relief and the importation of rice from Burma. The following year was notable for the deposition of the Gaikwar of Baroda for misgovernment, and for the tour through India of the Prince of Wales (the late King Edward VII). The visit of the Duke of Edinburgh to India when Lord Mayo was Viceroy had given great pleasure to those with whom he had come in touch, and had established a kind of personal link between India and the Crown. The Prince of Wales' tour aroused unprecedented enthusiasm for and loyalty to the British Raj, and further encouragement was given to the growth of this spirit when, in a durbar of great magnificence held on January 1st, 1877, on the famous Ridge at Delhi, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. The Viceroy of that time, Lord Lytton, had, however, to deal with a situation of unusual difficulty. Two successive years of drought produced, in 1877-78, the worst famine India had known. The most strenuous exertions were made to mitigate its effects, and eight crores of rupees were spent in importing grain, but the loss of life was estimated at 21 millions. At this time also Afghan affairs once more became prominent.

Second Afghan War.

The Amir, Sher Ali, was found to be intriguing with Russia and that fact, coupled with his repulse of a British mission led to the second Afghan War. The British forces advanced by three routes—the Khyber, the Kurram, and the Bolan—and gained all the important vantage points of Eastern Afghanistan. Sher Ali died and a treaty was made with his son Yakub Khan, which was promptly broken by the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari who had been sent as English envoy to Kabul. Further operations were thus necessary, and Sir F. (now Lord) Roberts advanced on the capital and defeated the Afghans at Charasia. A rising of the tribes followed, in spite of Sir D. Stewart's victory at Ahmed Kheyl and his advance from Kabul to Kandahar. A pretender, Sirdar Ayub Khan, from Herat prevented the establishment of peace, defeated Gen. Burrows' brigade at Maiwand, and invested Kandahar. He was routed in turn by Sir F. Roberts who made a brilliant march from Kabul to Kandahar. After the British withdrawal fighting continued between Ayub Khan and Abdur Rahman, but the latter was left undisputed Amir of Afghanistan until his death in 1901.

In the meantime Lord Lytton had resigned (1880) and Lord Ripon was appointed Viceroy by the new Liberal Government. Lord Ripon's administration is memorable for the freedom given to the Press by the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, for his scheme of local self-government which developed municipal institutions, and for the attempt to extend the jurisdiction of the criminal courts in the Districts over European British subjects, independently of the race or nationality of the presiding judge. This attempt, which created a feeling among Europeans in India of great hostility to the Viceroy, ended in a compromise in 1884. Other reforms were the re-establishment of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, the appointment of an Education Commission with a view to the spread of popular instruction on a broader basis, and the abolition by the Finance Minister (Sir Evelyn Baring, now Lord Cromer) of a number of customs duties. Lord Dufferin, who succeeded Lord Ripon in 1884, had to give his attention more to external than internal affairs. One of his first acts was to hold a durbar at Rawalpindi for the reception of the Amir of Afghanistan which resulted in the strengthening of British relations with that ruler. In 1886 a third Burmese war became necessary owing to the truculent attitude of King Thibaw and his intrigues with foreign Powers. The expedition, under General Prendergast, occupied Mandalay without difficulty and King Thibaw was exiled to Rangoon, where he died on 16th December 1916. His dominions of Upper Burma were annexed to British India on the 1st of January, 1886.

The Russian Menace

Of greater importance at the time were the measures taken to meet a possible, and as it then appeared a probable, attack on India by Russia. These preparations, which cost over two million sterling, were hurried on because of a collision which occurred between Russian and Afghan troops at Peshawar, during the delimitation of the Afghan frontier

towards Central Asia, and which seemed likely to lead to a declaration of war by Great Britain. War was averted, but the Peshawar incident had called attention to a menace that was to be felt for nearly a generation more, it had also served to elicit from the Princes of India an unanimous offer of troops and money in case of need. That offer bore fruit under the next Viceroy, Lord Lansdowne, when the present system of Imperial Service Troops was organised. Under Lord Lansdowne's rule also the defences of the North-Western Frontier were strengthened, on the advice of Sir Frederick (now Earl) Roberts, who was then Commander-in-Chief in India. Another form of precautionary measure against the continued aggression of Russia was taken by raising the annual subsidy paid by the Indian Government to the Amir from eight to twelve lakhs.

On the North Eastern Frontier there occurred (1891) in the small State of Manipur a revolution against the Raja, that necessitated an inquiry on the spot by Mr. Quinton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam. Mr. Quinton, the commander of his escort, and others, were treacherously murdered in a conference and the escort ignominiously retreated. This disgrace to British arms led to several attacks on frontier outposts which were brilliantly defeated. Manipur was occupied by British troops and the government of the State was reorganised under a Political Agent. Lord Lansdowne's term of office was distinguished by several other events, such as the passing of the Parliamentary Act (Lord Cross' Act, 1892), which increased the size of the Legislative Council as well as the number of non-officials in them; legislation aimed at social and domestic reform among the Hindus; and the closing of the Indian Mints to the free coinage of silver (1893). In Burma great progress was made, under Sir Alexander Mackenzie, as Chief Commissioner, comparative order was established, and large schemes for the construction of railways, roads, and irrigation works were put in hand. (The Province was made a Lieutenant-Governorship in 1897).

Frontier Campaigns.

Lord Elgin, who succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1894, was confronted at the outset with a deficit of Rs. 24 crores, due to the fall in exchange. (In 1895 the rupee fell as low as 1s. 1d.). To meet this the old five per cent. import duties were reimposed on a number of commodities, but not on cotton goods and within the year the duty was extended to piece-goods, but not to yarn. The reorganisation of the Army, which involved the abolition of the old system of Presidency Armies, had hardly been carried out when a number of risings occurred along the North-West Frontier. In 1895 the British Agent in Chitral—which had come under British influence two years previously when Sir H. M. Durand had demarcated the southern and eastern boundaries of Afghanistan—was besieged and had to be rescued by an expeditionary force. Two years later the Wazirs, Swatis, and Mohmands attacked the British positions in Malakand, and the Afridis closed the Khyber Pass. Peace was only established after a protracted campaign (the Tirah campaign) in which 40,000 troops were employed, and over 1,000 officers

and men had been lost. This was in itself a heavy burden on the finances of India, which was increased by the serious and widespread famine of 1896-97 and by the appearance in India of bubonic plague. The methods taken to prevent the spread of that disease led, in Bombay, to rioting, and elsewhere to the appearance in the vernacular press of seditious articles which made it necessary to make more stringent the law dealing with such writings.

Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty

With famine and plague Lord Curzon also, who succeeded Lord Elgin in 1899, had to deal. In 1901 the cycle of bad harvests came to an end, but plague increased, and in 1904 deaths from it were returned at over one million. Of the many problems to which Lord Curzon directed his attention, only a few can be mentioned here — some indeed claim that his greatest work in India was not to be found in any one department but was in fact the general gearing up of the administration which he achieved by his unceasing energy and personal example of strenuous work. He had at once to turn his attention to the North-West Frontier. The British garrisons beyond our boundary were gradually withdrawn and replaced by tribal levies, and British forces were concentrated in British territory behind them as a support. An attempt was made to check the arms traffic and work on strategic railways was pushed forward. The fact that in seven years he only spent a quarter of a million upon repressive measures and only found it necessary to institute one blockade (against the Mahsud Waziris) is the justification of this policy of compromise between the Lawrence and Forward schools of thought. In 1901 the trans-Indus districts of the Punjab were separated from that Province, and together with the political charges of the Malakand, the Khyber, Kurram, Tochi and Wana were formed into the new North-West Frontier Province, under a Chief Commissioner directly responsible to the Government of India. That year also witnessed the death of Abdur Rahman, the Amir of Afghanistan, and the establishment of an understanding with his successor Habibullah. In 1904 the attitude of the Dalai Lama of Tibet being pro-Russian and anti-British, it became necessary to send an expedition to Lhasa under Colonel (Sir Francis) Younghusband. The Dalai Lama abdicated and a treaty was concluded with his successor.

In his first year of office Lord Curzon passed the Act which, in accordance with the recommendations of the Fowler Commission, practically fixed the value of the rupee at 1s 4d, and in 1900 a Gold Reserve fund was created. The educational reforms that marked this Viceroyalty are dealt with elsewhere chief among them was the Act of 1904 reorganizing the governing bodies of Indian Universities. Under the head of agrarian reform must be mentioned the Punjab Land Alienation Act, designed to free the cultivators of the soil from the clutches of money-lenders, and the institution of Agricultural banks. The efficiency of the Army was increased (Lord Kitchener was Commander-in-Chief) by the re-arrangement of the Indian Army, the strengthening of the artillery, and the reorganization of the transport service. In his relations with the Fonda-

tory Chiefs, Lord Curzon emphasized their position as partners in administration, and he founded the Imperial Cadet Corps to give a military education to the sons of ruling and aristocratic families. In 1902 the British Government obtained from the Khizam a perpetual lease of the Assigned Districts of Bham in return for an annual payment of 25 lakhs. The accession of King Edward VII was proclaimed in a splendid Durbar on January 1, 1903.

In 1904 Lord Curzon returned to England for a few months but was re-appointed to a second term of office, Lord Amherst, Governor of Madras, having acted as Viceroy during his absence. The chief act of this second term was the partition of Bengal and the creation of a new Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam—a reform, designed to remove the systematic neglect of the trans-Gangetic areas of Bengal, which evoked bitter and prolonged criticism. In 1906 Lord Curzon resigned, being unable to accept the proposals of Lord Kitchener for the re-adjustment of relations between the Army headquarters and the Military Department of the Government, and being unable to obtain the support of the Home Government. Lord Curzon was succeeded by Lord Minto, the grandson of a former Governor-General. It was a stormy heritage to which Lord Minto succeeded, for the unrest which had long been noticed developed in one direction into open sedition. The occasion of the outbreak in Bengal was the partition of that province. The causes of the flood of seditious writings and speeches, of the many attempts at assassination, and of the boycott of British goods are less easily definable. The mainspring of the unrest was "a deep-rooted antagonism to all the principles upon which Western society, especially in a democratic country like England, has been built up."

Outside Bengal attempts to quell the disaffection by the ordinary law were fairly successful. But scarcely any province was free from disorder of some kind and, though recourse was had to the deportation of persons without reason assigned under an Act of 1818, special Acts had to be passed to meet the situation, viz.—an Explosives Act, a Prevention of Seditious Meetings Act, and a Criminal Law Amendment Act which provides for a magisterial inquiry in private and a trial before three judges of the High Court without a jury. Concurrently with these legislative measures steps were taken to extend representative institutions. In 1907 a Hindu and a Mahomedan were appointed to the Secretary of State's Council, and in 1909 a Hindu was appointed for the first time to the Viceroy's Council. The Indian Councils Act of 1909 carried this policy farther by reconstituting the legislative councils and conferring upon them wider powers of discussion. The executive councils of Madras and Bombay were enlarged by the addition of an Indian member.

As regards foreign policy, Lord Minto's Viceroyalty was distinguished by the conclusion (1907) between Great Britain and Russia of an agreement on questions likely to disturb the friendly relations of the two countries in Asia generally, and in Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet in particular. Two expeditions had to be undertaken on the North-West frontier, against the Saidu Khans and the Mohmands,

and ships of the East India Squadron were frequently engaged off Maskat and in the Persian Gulf in operations designed to check the traffic in arms through Persia and Mekran to the frontier of India.

Visit of the King and Queen.

Sir Charles (Lord) Hardinge was appointed to succeed Lord Minto in 1910. His first year in India was marked by the visit to India of the King Emperor and the Queen, who arrived at Bombay on December 2, 1911. From there they proceeded to Delhi where, in the most magnificent durbar ever held in India, the coronation was proclaimed and various boons, including an annual grant of 50 lakhs for popular education, were announced. At the same ceremony His Majesty announced the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi, the reversion of the two Bengals under a Governor in Council, the formation of a new Lieutenant Governorship for Behar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa, and the restoration of Assam to the charge of a Chief Commissioner.

In August, 1913, the demolition of a lavatory attached to a mosque in Cawnpore was made the occasion of an agitation among Indian Mahomedans and a riot in Cawnpore led to heavy loss of life. Of those present at the riot, 106 were put on trial but subsequently released by the Viceroy before the case reached the Sessions, and His Excellency was able to settle the mosque difficulty by a compromise which was acceptable to the local and other Mahomedans.

Still more serious trouble occurred in September, 1914, when a riot at Budge-Budge among a number of Sikh emigrants returned from Canada gave a foretaste of the revolutionary plans entertained by those men. The sequel, revealed in two conspiracy trials at Lahore, showed that the "Ghadr" conspiracy was widespread and had been consistently encouraged by Germany.

Lord Chelmsford as Viceroy

Lord Hardinge, whose great services had been rewarded with the Knighthood of the Garter, left India in 1916 and was succeeded by Lord Chelmsford, whose tenure of office was destined to be one of the most eventful in the modern history of India. The part played by India in the war was developed in every possible way. Not only was the Indian Army increased but the resources of the country were developed with the help of the Munitions Board and India assumed responsibility for 100 millions of the war debt. The share of India in the Imperial burden of the war was emphasised in another and very significant way by her representation in the Imperial War Cabinet in London by His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner and Sir S. P. (Lord) Sinha. On the Frontier, where there had been numerous though comparatively slight disturbances in 1914-15, a punitive expedition had to be undertaken against the Mahomeds.

In 1917 Mr. Montagu, who had succeeded Mr. Chamberlain as Secretary of State, carried out the latter's intention of visiting India. The result of the visit was shown in the following year when a report was issued containing what is known as the joint scheme of reform evolved by the Secretary of State and the Viceroy. Shortly after this report there was

issued a report by the Special Committee of Inquiry, over which Mr. Justice Rowlatt presided, into seditious crimes in India. That report and the legislation which followed in consequence of it, together with the announcement of the proposed reform scheme, led to a renewal of political discussion and agitation which had to a great extent been in abeyance during the early years of the war.

Early in 1919 prolonged strikes in Bombay and elsewhere showed that India, though comparatively little affected by the economic results of the war, was confronted by industrial and economic problems which were none the less grave. The gravity of those problems was increased by the ravages of influenza which is supposed to have caused 6,000,000 deaths during the winter months of 1917-18. Disturbances broke out in April as a sequel to the passive resistance movement against the Rowlatt Act (the Satyagraha Movement) which produced a situation to which there has been no parallel since the Mutiny. It is sufficient here to state that in Ahmedabad, Viramgam, Delhi, Lahore, Amritsar, Gujranwala and other places the crowd by attacking life and property and by train wrecking and tearing up railway lines and telegraph wires, provoked a situation which could only be met by the proclamation of martial law and the enforcement of military measures for the protection of law-abiding subjects and for the suppression of disorder.

Exaggerated reports of those riots and of the effect of the Rowlatt Act may be presumed to have had some influence on the Amir of Afghanistan when he declared war and invaded British territory. Amir Habibullah Khan, who had been loyal to his treaty obligations throughout the war, was murdered in February and, after a brief occupation of the throne by his brother Nasrullah Khan, his son Amanullah had been declared Amir. A sequel to this war was the renewal of trouble along a great part of the North Western frontier where the tribesmen, who had at first appeared to be impressed by the British successes, took the offensive against our advance posts especially in southern Waziristan. The operations which necessarily followed and the severity of the fighting were on a scale never previously reached in frontier war, and made the campaign of unusual length.

The Government of India Bill, embodying Mr. Montagu's proposals for the popularisation of the system of Government, was passed in December.

The next year, 1920, more than any which preceded it, was distinguished by political agitation. The cause of this was in part the indignation created by the facts disclosed in the report of the Hunter Commission on the outbreaks of 1919 in the Punjab and elsewhere, and the stimulus given to the Khilafat agitation by the terms of the Peace treaty with Turkey.

Lord Reading's Viceroyalty.

The fruits of agitation were reaped in plenty in 1921, the first year of Lord Reading's term of office. Murders and outbreaks at Malacca, Dharwar and elsewhere were followed by a rebellion of the Morichs in Malabar which assumed the most serious proportions and necessitated prolonged military operations.

It had been arranged that H. R. H. the Prince of Wales should visit India at the end of 1920 and should open the new Councils in 1921, but, for reasons of health, that visit had to be postponed, and H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught came to India early in 1921 in order to open the new Councils. The Prince's visit took place in 1921-22 and was essentially non-political.

The enthusiasm with which the Prince was greeted during his tour was very marked. But simultaneously with the loyal display riots broke out in more than one of the cities which he visited. But after the imprisonment of some of the leading agitators in the early part of 1922 the country enjoyed comparative quiet, except in the Punjab where the Akali movement among the Sikhs, which had started as a puritan religious movement, developed into a political movement attended by constant and widespread disorder. The enhanced position of India in the Empire and the position of India as a nation entering actively into the work of the League of Nations, were emphasised during the year by the tour of the Dominions undertaken by the Hon B. Sastri.

The Salt Tax

Early in 1923 a great deal of criticism was excited by Lord Reading's certification of the doubling of the salt tax, under the powers conferred by the Reformed constitution, in opposition to the clearly expressed will of the Legislative Assembly. Objection was taken to this step not so much because an increase in the Salt Tax had always been looked upon as a measure to which resort should be made only in grave emergencies, as because the financial powers of the elected chambers, much emphasised in the Montagu Chelmsford Report, were thus shown to be capable of restriction.

Break up of non-co-operation

Two causes combined during the year to weaken the position of the extremists. The first was the split in the Congress, the second the rise of communal feeling between Hindus and Mahomedans. The Congress split was brought about by Mr C. R. Das, who, realising no doubt that Mr Gandhi had failed and it was unlikely that any other man would have greater success by a rigid adherence to his methods declared in favour of standing for the Councils.

The other cause was the disappearance of the surface unity between Hindus and Mahomedans which Mr Gandhi helped by strong feeling among Mahomedans on the Turkish question, had temporarily contrived. The Lausanne Treaty almost completely satisfied the wishes of Indian Mahomedans on this point and in certain quarters there was a deep feeling of gratitude to the Viceroy for the part he was known to have taken in bringing about the popular settlement. Mahomedans ceased to need Congress help. This was itself enough to make them objects of suspicion to extremist Hindus, and the feeling of uneasiness was heightened by the rejoicings over the Treaty in which Mahomedans indulged throughout India. There was also among Hindus the memory of the atrocities committed by the Moplahs in Malabar, and a movement started by the Mahomedan Minister of

Education in the Punjab, with the object of ensuring that the Punjab Mahomedans, as the largest community in the Province should have the greatest voice in its control, added to Hindu alarm and resentment. In the United Provinces Hindus were thunderstruck to find from the census returns that in comparison with the Mahomedans they were declining in numbers. Consequently two pan-Hindu movements were started. The Shuddhi movement announced by Swami Shradhanand which aimed at the re-conversion to Hinduism of the Malkhana Rajputs and other low class occupants of the fringe of Islam, and the Sangathan movement, of which Pandit Malaviya was the sponsor, and which aimed at teaching Hindus physical exercises and sword play, so that they might be the better able to protect themselves. These two movements greatly irritated the Mahomedans, and during the year there were between fifteen and twenty serious Hindu Mahomedan riots, occurring in all parts of India. In consequence, when the A.I. brothers were released from jail they were unable to take any clear line they did not wish to take the popular course and abuse the Hindus, and on the other hand they would have had few followers if they had begun another bitter campaign against the Government.

Kenya and the Imperial Conference

Considerable feeling all over India was aroused by the terms of the Kenya settlement, which did not confer on Indians complete equality with the white settlers. The points particularly resented were the reservation of the highlands for Europeans, the restriction of the franchise and the rules concerning immigration, which it was thought might be used so as to operate unfairly against Indians. After the Imperial Conference, at which India was represented by H. H. the Maharaja of Alwar and Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, feeling on this point improved slightly for though no very great gains were made at the Conference, the fullest possible statement of the Indian case was given to the entire world, and the general attitude of the various premiers at the Conference was friendly.

Violent Movements.

In the Punjab the Akali movement showed an increasing tendency to forget the teachings of Mr Gandhi. The Babar Akalis murdered several of their co-religionists whose political views they did not approve, and the Akali Dal became a more definitely military organisation acting directly under the orders of the Shrinis Committee. After a career of misgovernment and intrigue against the neighbouring state of Patiala the Maharaja of Nabha voluntarily abdicated. Somewhat ludicrously the Akalis turned him into a martyr and the movement became sufficiently formidable for both the Akali Dal and the Shrinis Committee to be declared illegal associations. Many arrests were made but, owing to the lack of unity in the extremist camp, an attempt of the Congress to secure all India support for the Akalis had a meagre result.

During the year there were an unusual number of frontier outrages. Several officers were shot, and worldwide attention was attracted by the kidnapping of Miss M. K. M. after the

murder of her mother, and by her heroic rescue by Mrs. Starr. Coupled with the slow rate of progress of the operations in Waziristan, these continued incidents provoked some comment.

There was also a sensational revival of the pre-war anarchical societies in Bengal, but the range of their achievements was small.

India in 1924

Mr. Gandhi's premature release from Yerowda jail in consequence of an operation for appendicitis temporarily revived the drooping hopes of the extremists, but any idea that he would organize another huge anti Government movement was rapidly shattered. The breach between him and Mr. Das steadily widened and the belief of Hindu politicians in Mr. Gandhi's common sense diminished though their esteem for his character remained as high as ever. Moreover the feeling between Hindus and Mahomedans which had suddenly appeared the previous year darkened the whole face of the country. With the abolition of the Khilafat by Mustapha Kemal in March the *raison d'être* of the famous pact between Mr. Gandhi and the Alikas was destroyed and animosity no longer felt the restraint of political expediency. The Hindu conversion and organization movements of *Shuddhi* and *Sangathan* were opposed by exactly parallel Mahomedan movements *Tabligh* and *Tanzim*; rumours were frequent that some mysterious All India Mahomedan clique was planning aggressive action against Hindus and excitement was brought to fever heat by the riots in the Frontier Province, the Punjab, the United Provinces, Delhi, Calcutta, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad which broke out during the autumn season of religious festivals. In September Mr. Gandhi decided on a 21 days fast, which he successfully accomplished, partly as an expiation for his share in the bad feeling and partly to draw the attention of the country to the urgency of the problem. Simultaneously a conference of representatives of all communities including the Metropolitan and other English visitors was called at Delhi to decide what steps could be taken to bring about a better state of affairs. The conference passed some excellent resolutions but on the very day when Mr. Gandhi's fast ended riots again broke out and what gave the matter a grave aspect was that the date of the riot had been predicted and it was commonly said that they had been carefully planned for that very day.

Reforms Imperilled.

The year saw the final collapse of non-co-operation. Though Mr. Gandhi and a dwindling band of followers clung to *khaddar* and the triple boycott, lawyers returned to their practices, schoolboys and students finally despaired of national education and the best brains of non-co-operation followed Mr. Das into the Councils. The programme announced by Mr. Das was to wreck the Reforms, and in this ambition he was reasonably near success. Obstructive tactics effected the resignation of the Ministers in the Central Provinces and Bengal and left these two provinces to be administered by Governors without

democratic help, but in other parts of India the Councils did well in the circumstances.

Underground the revolutionary movement continued. A series of assassinations took place in Bengal, and Mr. Das incurred bitter criticism by associating himself with the murderer of an incensed Englishman in Calcutta.

Religious Agitation.

The rise of sectarianism in religious which had been noticed for some years was again to the fore. The Akali movement, now nominally centring round the abdication of the Maharajah of Nabha seemed to have passed its most dangerous phase but still gave the Punjab Government much anxiety. A series of processions of Akalis into Nabha State finally led to the inevitable affray, in which some fifty casualties were recorded but from this point there were signs of growing opposition to the Akalis among the Sikhs and the announcement of Sir Malcolm Hailey on assuming control of the province that Government was determined to preserve peace and order was widely supported.

That the Sikhs were not alone in desiring more democratic control of religious institutions was shown by two agitations, one at the famous Saivite shrine of Tarakeswar in Bengal and the other at Valikom in Travancore. At Tarakeswar the demand was that the income of the temple property should be administered by a trust and not regarded as the private concern of the *mahad* while at Valikom the trouble was caused by a demand of the untouchables that they should be allowed access to temples. Both incidents created great interest in various parts of the country.

Inquiries

The investigations of the Tariff Board appointed by Government to inquire which industries were suited for the application of the official policy of Protection were continued. It was decided to give protection to coal and steel as two staple industries without which India could never become a great industrial country.

Another inquiry of great importance was that conducted by the Lee Commission under the chairmanship of Lord Lee of Fareham. The Commission which was appointed to investigate the working of the Reforms, issued a report which had as favourable a reception as could be expected. The report made certain recommendations for increasing the speed of Indianization and provincialisation and also proposed some slight increases in the pay of officials.

The third attempt to climb Everest came very near to success. A height 600 feet from the top was reached, but in an effort to accomplish the last stretch Mallory and Irvine were killed. It was not established whether they had or had not reached the top.

Despite the proclamation of a boycott by the non-co-operators, India participated successfully in the Empire Exhibition at Wembley. India was also represented for the first time in the Olympic Games.

The Government of India.

The impulse which drove the British to India was not conquest but trade. The Government of India represents the slow evolution from conditions established to meet trading requirements. On September 24, 1599, a few years before the deaths of Queen Elizabeth and Akbar, the merchants of London formed an association for the purpose of establishing direct trade with the East and were granted a charter of incorporation. The Government of this Company in England was vested in a Governor with a General Court of Proprietors and a Court of Directors. The factories and affairs of the Company on the East and West Coast of India, and in Bengal, were administered at each of the principal settlements of Madras (Fort St. George), Bombay and Calcutta (Fort William), by a President or Governor and a Council consisting of the senior servants of the Company. The three Presidencies were independent of each other and subordinate only to the Directors in England.

Territorial Responsibility Assumed.

The collapse of government in India consequent on the decay of Moghul power and the intrigues of the French on the East Coast forced the officers of the Company to assume territorial responsibility in spite of their own desires and the insistent orders of the Directors. Step by step the Company became first the dominant, then the paramount power in India. In these changed circumstances the system of government by mutually independent and unwieldy councils of the merchants at the Presidency towns gave rise to grave abuses. Parliament intervened, and under the Regulating Act of 1773, a Governor-General and four councillors were appointed to administer the Presidency of Fort William (Bengal), and the supremacy of that Presidency over Madras and Bombay was for the first time established. The subordinate Presidencies were forbidden to wage war or make treaties without the previous consent of the Governor-General of Bengal in Council, except in cases of imminent necessity. Pitt's Act of 1784, which established the Board of Control in England, vested the administration of each of the three Presidencies in a Governor and three councillors, including the Commander-in-Chief of the Presidency Army. The control of the Governor-General-in-Council was somewhat extended, as it was again by the Charter Act of 1793. Under the Charter Act of 1833 the Company was compelled to close its commercial business,

and it became a political and administrative body holding its territories in trust for the Crown. The same Act vested the direction of the entire civil and military administration and sole power of legislation in the Governor-General-in-Council, and defined more clearly the nature and extent of the control to be extended over the subordinate governments. After the Mutiny, there was passed, in 1858, an Act transferring the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. This Act made no important change in the administration in India, but the Governor-General, as representing the Crown, became known as the Viceroy. The Governor-General is the sole representative of the Crown in India; he is assisted by a Council, composed of high officials, each of whom is responsible for a special department of the administration.

Functions of Government

The functions of the Government in India are perhaps the most extensive of any great administration in the world. It claims a share in the produce of the land and in the Punjab and Bombay it has restricted the alienation of land from agriculturists to non-agriculturists. It undertakes the management of landed estates where the proprietor is disqualified. In times of famine it undertakes relief work and other remedial measures on a great scale. It manages a vast forest property and is the principal manufacturer of salt and opium. It owns the bulk of the railways of the country, and directly manages a considerable portion of them. It has constructed and maintains most of the important irrigation works. It owns and manages the post and telegraph systems. It has the monopoly of the Note issue, and it alone can set the mints in motion. It lends money to municipalities, rural boards, and agriculturists and occasionally to owners of historic estates. It controls the sale of liquor and intoxicating drugs and has direct responsibilities in respect to police, education, medical and sanitary operations and ordinary public works of the most intimate character. The Government has also close relations with the Indian States which collectively cover more than one-third of the whole area of India and comprise more than one-fifth of its population. The distribution of these great functions between the Government of India and the provincial administrations has fluctuated and was definitely regulated by the Reform Act of 1919.

THE REFORMS OF 1919.

Great changes were made in the system of government in British India by the Government of India Act, 1919, which, together with the rules framed under it, almost as important as their provisions as the Act itself—came into general operation in January 1921. The Act

was the outcome of an inquiry conducted in India in the winter of 1917-18 by the Secretary of State (Mr. Montagu) and the Viceroy (Lord Chelmsford), the results of which were embodied in their Report on Indian Constitutional Reform issued in the spring of 1918.

The recommendations in this report were supplemented by those of two Committees which toured India in the winter of 1918-19, and which issued their Reports in the spring of 1919. A third Committee was appointed during the latter year to make recommendations for the modification of the system of administration of Indian affairs in the United Kingdom, and issued their Report while the Government of India Bill was under examination by a Joint Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament. The Joint Select Committee in their turn issued an exhaustive Report on the Bill, which was passed in a form practically identical with that recommended by the Joint Committee and received the Royal Assent on the 23rd December 1919.

The Divisions.—British India for administrative purposes is divided into 15 provinces, each with its separate Local Government or administration. In nine of the provinces—the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa—the Central Provinces, Burma, and Assam—the Local Government consists of a Governor, an Executive Council of not more than four members, and two or more Ministers. In 1922 Burma, which was excluded from the original scheme was brought into line with it. An Act of Parliament was passed, constituting Burma a Governor's Province, with a Governor, an Executive Council and Ministers, and a Legislative Council elected on a very democratic franchise, which gave the vote to women. The remaining six provinces are directly administered by Chief Commissioners, who are technically mere agents of the Central Government of India. No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the system of administration in these six minor provinces.

Dynarchy.—In these nine provinces the executive Government is a dual organism which owes its unity to the Governor. One half of the organism consists of the Governor and his executive Council all of whom are appointed by the King. This body is responsible for the administration of those subjects which are reserved. The other half of the executive organism is the Governor acting with the advice of Ministers who are appointed by him, hold office during his pleasure, and must be elected members of the Provincial Legislative Council. To the Governor acting with Ministers is entrusted the administration of "transferred" subjects.

The Object.—The framers of the Act of 1919 had a twofold object in view. Their primary object was to devise a plan which would render possible the introduction by successive stages of a system of responsible government in British India in modification of the previous system under which the Government in India, both central and provincial, received their mandates from the British Parliament acting through the Secretary of State for India, the Cabinet Minister responsible to Parliament for the administration of Indian affairs.

The Provinces.—Starting from the premise that it was in the provinces that the first substantial steps must be taken towards the development of a system of responsible government, the framers of the Act of 1919 provided for a statutory demarcation of the functions to be exercised by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments respectively, in their administrative capacity. No attempt was made in this connection to limit the field open to the Indian Legislature, which still retains a concurrent (though not an overriding) power of legislation for the affairs of the provinces in general and of individual provinces but the rules under the Act provide specifically for the exercise of this right in certain specified provincial matters, and the theory upon which the Act proceeds assumes that a convention will be established and rigorously observed which will confine intervention by the Indian Legislature in provincial affairs to matters so specified.

Finance.—The "revenues of India"—or rather, their sources—are definitely divided between the Central and Provincial Governments, the Provincial Governments have now almost complete control over the administration of their "allocated" revenues, they have power to supplement them by raising loans on the security of these revenues, and their right, subject in certain cases to the Governor General's sanction to initiate new taxation measures is formally recognised.

It was found impossible to devise any scheme of allocation of revenues between the Central and Provincial Governments which did not leave the former with a deficit. This deficit is to be met in part by an annual contribution from seven of the eight Governor's provinces the province of Bihar and Orissa owing to the comparative exiguousness and inelasticity of its own revenues, having been exempted from this contribution. The aggregate sum thus due from the provinces to the Government of India at the outset is Rs. 983 lakhs, of which Madras contributes Rs. 343 lakhs, the United Provinces Rs. 240 lakhs, the Punjab Rs. 176 lakhs, and the other four provinces sums ranging from Rs. 15 lakhs to Rs. 64 lakhs. The annual contribution is in no case to be subject to increase in the future and if reduction of the aggregate is found possible by the Government of India reductions are to be made in fixed proportions from the quota of the several provinces.

Responsibility.—The first steps towards responsibility were to transform the Provincial Legislative Council into a body of sufficient size and with a sufficiently large elected majority (which the Act fixes at 70 per cent as a minimum) to represent adequately public opinion in the province, and to create an electorate. The first franchise rules have given the vote to about 5,000,000 of the adult male population, and have enabled the Legislative Council of any "Governor's province" to extend the franchise to women. The

Of the 94 constituencies in Bengal, all but nine (those representing the University and Commerce and Industry) are arranged on a territorial basis, i.e., each constituency consists of a group of electors, having the prescribed qualifications which entitle them to vote in a constituency of that class, who inhabit a particular area. The normal area for a "Muhammadan" or "non-Muhammadan" constituency is a district (or where districts are large and populous, half a district) in the case of rural constituencies, and, in the case of urban constituencies, a group of adjacent municipal towns. Some large towns form urban constituencies by themselves, and the City of Calcutta provides eight separate constituencies, six "non-Muhammadan" and two "Muhammadan" the latter of course, being coterminous with the former.

Throughout the electoral rules there runs a general classification of the various kinds of constituencies into two broad categories, those which are designed to represent special interests, such as Landholders, Universities, Planters or Commerce being described as "special" constituencies, and those which are based on a racial distinction—Muhammadan, European, Sikh, etc.—being known as "general" constituencies.

POWERS OF PROVINCIAL

In origin the legislative authority in British India was a meeting of the Governor-General (or, in the case of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, of the Governor) with his Executive Council, "for the purpose of legislation." When met for this purpose there were added to the Executive Council certain "additional members," at first very few in number, and those few all nominated by the Governor-General or the Governor, as the case might be. A Council so constituted had originally no powers or duties beyond those immediately arising out of the discussion of the particular legislative measure which at the time was engaging its attention, and its functions were confined strictly to the discussion and enactment of legislative measures. In course of time the number of "additional" members, and the proportion of those who were non-official Indians, were steadily increased, the principle of election was gradually substituted for nomination as the means of selecting non-official members, and the functions of the Councils were extended so as to include the right of interpellation, of the discussion of matters of general public interest, and of criticising and discussing the budget proposals of the Executive Government. This extension of the powers of the Councils was in the main the result of the Morley-Minto Act of 1909. The Indian Councils Act of 1892 had given power to discuss the budget but not to divide the Council upon it. Lord Morley's Act went further and provided that, notwithstanding the terms of the Indian Councils Act of 1891 which had restricted the powers of all Councils to the discussion of legislative measures, the Local Government might make rules authorising the discussion of the annual financial statement, of any matter of general public interest, and the asking of questions under such conditions and restrictions as might be imposed by the rules, and these rules

Voters' Qualifications—The qualifications for electors (and consequently for candidates) vary in detail from province to province, chiefly on account of variations in the laws and regulations which form the basis of assessment of income or property values. Generally speaking, both in rural and urban areas the franchise is based on a property qualification as measured by the payment of a prescribed minimum of land revenue or of its equivalent, or of income tax, or of municipal taxes, but in all provinces retired, pensioned or discharged officers and men of the regular army are entitled to the vote, irrespective of the amount of their income or property. The actual number of voters registered in each province on the rolls prepared under the new Act are shown in the following table—

	1920	1923
Madras	1,258,156	1,283,928
Bombay	548,419	630,478
Bengal	1,021,418	1,044,166
United Provinces	1,847,278	1,609,127
Punjab	505,361	627,513
Bihar and Orissa	327,664	338,507
Central Provinces	144,737	162,568
Assam	203,191	224,063

LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS.

recognised the right of the Councils to vote on motions thus submitted for their discussion. The other results of the Act of 1909 were definitely to recognise the principle of election as the means of selecting non-official members of all Councils (although the method adopted was mainly that of indirect election), a considerable increase in the number of both non-official and official members, and the setting up in every province of a non-official (though not, save in one province, an elected) majority. A further important, though indirect, result of the Morley-Minto Act was the appointment of an Indian member to the Executive Council of the Governor-General, and to such Provincial Executive Councils as were then in existence and subsequently created.

Old System—But although the Legislative Councils (which, originally created in two provinces only in addition to the Governor-General's Legislative Council, existed in 1919 in nine provinces) had steadily acquired a more and more representative character and a large share of the normal functions of a legislative assembly as generally understood, they still remained in theory up to the passing of the Act of 1919 mere accessories to the Executive Government of the provinces for the purpose of advising on, and enacting, legislation. It is true that the non-official element in the Provincial Councils as constituted by Lord Morley's Act of 1909 had acquired a considerable measure of control over legislation, in view of the fact that in most provinces that Act and the rules framed under it placed the non-official members in a slight majority over their official colleagues, but for various reasons this control even in the sphere of legislation, can hardly be described as definite popular control, and over matters outside the legislative sphere the Councils had no controlling voice at all.

The Changes.—The most important changes made by the Act of 1919 in the powers of the Provincial Councils were—

(i) the power to vote (and consequently to withhold) supplies.

(ii) a greatly enhanced freedom of initiation in the matter of legislation, and

(iii) power to frame their own rules of procedure in matters of detail, subject to the Governor's concurrence.

A further right which the Councils will acquire after four years from the time of their commencement is the right to elect their own President. At the outset the President is nominated by the Governor, but from the start every Council has an elected Deputy President. The Governor (who formerly was *ex officio* President of his Legislative Council) no longer has any direct connection with its proceedings. The first-named of these newly acquired powers is of sufficient importance to require a detailed explanation of its scope, which can best be given in the terms of the Act itself, (section 72D)

72D—(1) The provisions contained in this section shall have effect with respect to business and procedure in governors' legislative councils

(2) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the province shall be laid in the form of a statement before the Council in each year, and the proposals of the local government for the appropriation of provincial revenues and other moneys in any year shall be submitted to the vote of the Council in the form of demand for grants. The Council may assent, or refuse its assent, to a demand, or may reduce the amount therein referred to either by a reduction of the whole grant or by the omission or reduction of any of the items of expenditure of which the grant is composed —

Provided that—

(a) the local government shall have power, in relation to any such demand, to act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, if the demand relates to a reserved subject, and the governor certifies that the expenditure provided for by the demand is essential to the discharge of his responsibility for the subject, and

(b) the governor shall have power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may be in his opinion necessary for the safety or tranquillity of the province, or for the carrying on of any department, and

(c) no proposal for the appropriation of any such revenues or other moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the governor, communicated to the Council.

(3) Nothing in the foregoing sub-section shall require proposals to be submitted to the Council relating to the following heads of expenditure :—

(i) Contributions payable by the local government to the Governor General in Council, and

(ii) Interest and sinking fund charges on loans, and

(iii) Expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law; and

(iv) Salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council; and

(v) Salaries of judges of the high court of the province and of the advocate-general.

If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of moneys does or does not relate to the above heads of expenditure, the decision of the governor shall be final.

Executive and Legislature.—In the light of these facts it is now possible to explain more exactly the relationship between the provincial executive and the provincial legislature. The dual character of the former has already been mentioned, and the corresponding bifurcation of provincial subjects into "reserved" and "transferred" categories. The rules under the act prescribe a list of 20 subjects which are transferred to the administration of the Governor acting with Ministers, the more important of which are Local Self Government, Medical Administration, Public Health, Education (with certain reservations), Public Works, Agriculture, Excise, and Development of Industries. The "reserved" subjects comprise all those in the list of "provincial" (as distinct from "central") subjects which are not transferred.

Machinery.—No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the machinery and methods of administration by the Governor in Council, decisions are taken at the Council Board, as before, by a majority vote, and the Governor is entitled, as before, to overrule such a vote in certain specified circumstances if he disagrees with it. For such decisions the Governor in Council remains, as before, responsible to the Secretary of State and Parliament, and on questions of legislation and supply he has the power of enforcing them despite opposition by a majority of the Legislative Council. But, the whole spirit of the Act and the existence of a large non official elected majority in every Provincial Legislative Council is an important factor in determining the policy to be pursued by the official half of the Government in its administration of reserved subjects. A further and not less important factor is the existence in the Government, side by side with the Executive Council, of two or more Ministers appointed from the elected members of the legislature, who, though they are not charged by law with, and in fact are legally absolved from, any responsibility for decisions on matters outside the transferred sphere, will necessarily be able, and in fact are expected, to make their opinions felt by their colleagues in the Executive Council. But these factors, while they will doubtless lead to constant endeavour on the part of the official half of the Government to accommodate its policy to the wishes of its ministerial colleagues and of the majority of the legislature, and to avoid situations which involve resort to the enforcement of its decisions in the face of popular opposition, are not intended to obscure the responsibility to Parliament in the last resort of the Governor in Council for the administration of reserved subjects and the right of His Majesty's Government, and of the Secretary of State as a member thereof, to lay down and require the observance of any principles which they regard as having the support of Parliament and, in the last resort of the British electorate,

Transfer of Control.—With regard to transferred subjects the position is very different. Here there has been an actual transfer of control from the British elector and the British Parliament to the elector and the Legislative Council in the Indian province. The provincial subjects of administration are grouped into portfolios, and just as each member of the Executive Council has charge of a portfolio consisting of a specified list of 'reserved' subjects or 'departments,' so each Minister is directly responsible for the administration of those particular transferred 'departments' which are included in his portfolio. But his responsibility lies, not, as in the case of a member of the Executive Council, to the Government of India, the Secretary of State and Parliament, but to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he is an elected member and from which he is selected by the Governor as commanding or likely to command the support of the majority of that body. He holds office during the Governor's pleasure, but his retention of office is contingent on his ability to retain the confidence not only of the Governor, but also of the Legislative Council, upon whose vote he is directly dependent for his salary. Further, the control of the Legislative Council over transferred subjects, both as regards supplies and legislation, is almost entirely free from the restrictions just noticed which necessarily qualify its control over the 'reserved' subjects. It is thus within the power of the Provincial Council to insist on the pursuit of a policy of its own choice in the administration of transferred subjects by withdrawing its confidence from a Minister who departs from that policy and bestowing it only on a successor who will follow its mandate, and this power is dependent on the provincial elector in virtue of his freedom to control the composition of the Legislative Council by the use which he makes of his vote. No doubt this statement requires some qualification before it can be accepted as literally accurate, for, technically, the authority charged with the administration of transferred subjects is "the Governor acting with Ministers appointed under this Act," not the Ministers acting on their own initiative, and, further, the Governor, who is not, of course, subject to removal from office by the Legislative Council is charged personally with responsibility for the peace and tranquillity of his province, and would be entitled, and indeed bound, to recommend the removal of a department from the transferred list if he found the legislature bent on pursuing a policy in its administration which, in his judgment, was incompatible with the maintenance of peace and tranquillity, yet the powers of control vested in the Legislative Council over the transferred sphere are undoubtedly great, and it was the opinion at all events of the Joint Select Committee that legislature and Ministers should be allowed to exercise them with the greatest possible freedom. "If after hearing all the arguments," observed the Committee, "Ministers should decide not to adopt his advice, then in the opinion of the Committee the Governor should ordinarily allow Ministers to have their way, fixing the responsibility upon them, even if it may subsequently be necessary for him to vote any particular piece of legislation. It

"is not possible but that in India, as in all other countries, mistakes will be made by Ministers acting with the approval of a majority of the Legislative Council, but there is no way of learning except through experience and the realisation of responsibility."

Provision of Funds.—The terms of the Act leave the apportionment of the provincial revenues between the two halves of the executive for the financing of reserved and transferred subjects respectively to be settled by rules, merely providing that rules may be made "for the allocation of revenues or moneys for the purpose of such 'administration' i.e., the administration of transferred subjects by the Governor acting with Ministers." Probably the best description available of the method adopted by the rules for the settlement of this matter is the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee whose proposals have been followed with one modification only to enable the Governor to revoke at any time, at the desire of his Council and Ministers an "order of allocation" or to modify it in accordance with their joint wishes. The passage is as follows—

"The Committee have given much attention to the difficult question of the principle on which the provincial revenues and balances should be distributed between the two sides of the provincial governments. They are confident that the problem can readily be solved by the simple process of common sense and reasonable give-and-take, but they are aware that this question might, in certain circumstances, become the cause of much friction in the provincial government, and they are of opinion that the rules governing the allocation of these revenues and balances should be framed so as to make the existence of such friction impossible. They advise that, if the Governor, in the course of preparing either his first or any subsequent budget, finds that there is likely to be a serious or protracted difference of opinion between the Executive Council and his Ministers on this subject he should be empowered at once to make an allocation of revenue and balances between the reserved and transferred subjects which should continue for at least the whole life of the existing Legislative Council. The Committee do not endorse the suggestion that certain sources of revenue should be allocated to reserved and certain sources to transferred subjects, but they recommend that the Governor should allocate a definite proportion of the revenue, say, by way of illustration, two-thirds to reserved and one-third to transferred subjects, and similarly a proportion, though not necessarily the same fraction of the balances. If the Governor desires assistance in making the allocation, he should be allowed at his discretion to refer the question to be decided to such authority as the Governor General shall appoint. Further, the Committee are of opinion that it should be laid down from the first that, until an agreement which both sides of the Government will equally support has been reached, or until an allocation has been made by the Governor, the total provisions of the different expenditure heads in the budget of the province for the preceding financial year shall hold good."

The Committee desire that the relation of the two sides of the Government in this matter as in all others, should be of such mutual sympathy that each will be able to assist and influence for the common good the work of the other, but not to exercise control over it. The budget should not be capable of being used as a means for enabling Ministers or a majority

of the Legislative Council to direct the policy of reserved subjects, but on the other hand the Executive Council should be helpful to Ministers in their desire to develop the departments entrusted to their care. On the Governor personally will devolve the task of holding the balance between the legitimate needs of both sets of his advisers."

THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

The structural changes made by the Act of 1919 in the system of government outside the nine "Governors' provinces" are of comparatively minor scope, though the spirit of the Act requires, as has already been shown, considerable modification of the relationship hitherto subsisting between the Provincial Governments on the one hand and the Government of India and the Secretary of State in Council on the other. The only concrete changes made in the constitution of the Central Government are the removal of the statutory bar to the appointment of more than six members of the Governor General's Executive Council (which, however, has had the far-reaching consequence that three of the eight members of the Council are now Indians), and the reconstitution in a much more enlarged, representative and independent form of the central legislature. It has already been observed that this body was, in origin, like all other legislative bodies in India, the Governor General's Executive Council with the addition of certain "additional members" appointed to assist the Executive Council in the formulation of legislation. Despite its steady growth in size and influence, and despite the introduction of the elective system, the existence of "additional members, who of course under Lord Morley's Act greatly preponderated in numbers over the members proper, i.e., the Executive Councilors, still persisted up to the passing of the Act of 1919. That Act, however, has entirely remodelled the "Indian Legislature," as it is now called which has become like the Legislative Council in a Governor's province a legislature with all the inherent powers ordinarily attributed to such a body save such as are specifically withheld by the terms of the Act. It consists of two Chambers. The Council of State "contains 60 members, of whom 34 are elected (including one member to represent Berar, who, though technically nominated, is nominated as the result of elections held in Berar) and 26 nominated, of whom not more than 20 may be officials. The 'Legislative Assembly' consists of 144 members, of whom 104 are elected (including in the case of the Council of State, one Berar member, who, though actually elected, is technically a nominee). Of the 40 nominated members, 26 are required to be officials. The members of the Governor General's Executive Council are not *ex-officio* members of either chamber, but each of them has to be appointed a member of one or other Chamber, and can vote only in the Chamber of which he is a member. Any member of the Executive Council may, however, speak in either Chamber. The President of the Upper Chamber is a member of the Governor-General, as also, for the first four years after the constitution of the

Chamber, is the President of the Legislative Assembly. But after that period the Lower Chamber is to elect its own President, and it elects its own Deputy President from the outset. The normal lifetime of each Council of State is five years, and of each Legislative Assembly three years, but either Chamber, or both simultaneously, may be dissolved at any time by the Governor General.

Election.—The method of election for both Chambers is direct, and although the number of electors is considerably smaller than for the Provincial Councils, it is a great advance on the very restricted and for the most part indirect franchise established under the Act of 1909 for the unicameral central legislature which no longer exists. Generally speaking, the electoral scheme for the Lower Chamber is on the same model as that for the Provincial Councils already described, except that, *firstly*, the property qualification for voters (and consequently for candidates) is higher in order to obtain manageable constituencies, and *secondly*, that the constituencies necessarily cover a considerably larger area than constituencies for the Provincial Council. The distribution of seats in both Chambers, and the arrangement of constituencies, are on a provincial basis, that is a fixed number of the elective seats in each Chamber is assigned to representatives of each province, and these representatives are elected by constituencies covering an assigned area of the province.

The following table shows the allotment of the elective seats —

	Legislative Council of Assembly State	
Madras	18	5
Bombay	16	6
Bengal	17	6
United Provinces	16	5
Punjab	12	4
Bihar and Orissa	12	3
Central Provinces	6	2
Assam	4	1
Burma	4	2
Delhi	1	—
	104	34

Since the area which returns perhaps 80 members to a Provincial Council is the same as the area which returns perhaps 12 members to the Legislative Assembly—namely, the entire province in each case—it follows that on the direct election system this area must be split into constituencies which are much

arger than the constituencies for the local Councils, and just as it is generally correct to say that the normal area unit for those rural constituencies for the latter which are arranged on a territorial basis is the district, it may be said that the normal area unit in the case of the Legislative Assembly is the Division (the technical term for the administrative group of districts controlled by a Divisional Commissioner).

The Franchise—The general result of the first franchise arrangements under the Act is thus that there is in each province a body of electors qualified to vote for, and stand for election to, the Provincial Council, and that a selected number of those voters are qualified to vote for and stand for election to those seats in the Legislative Assembly which are assigned to the province. The qualifications for candidature for the Legislative Assembly are the same in each province, *mutatis mutandis*, as for candidature for the Provincial Council, except that in all provinces, so long as the candidate can show that he resides somewhere within the province, no closer connection with his particular constituency is insisted upon.

The franchise for the Council of State differs in character from that for the Provincial Council and the Legislative Assembly. The concern of the framers of the Act and rules was to secure for the membership of this body a character as closely as possible approximating to a Senate of Elder Statesmen and thus to constitute a body capable of performing the function of a "true revising Chamber." With this object, in addition and as an alternative to a high

property qualification—adopted as a rough and ready method of enfranchising only persons with a stake in the country—the rules admit as qualifications certain personal attributes which are likely to connote the possession of some past administrative experience or a high standard of intellectual attainment. Examples of these qualifications are past membership of either Chamber of the Legislature as now constituted, or of its predecessor, or of the Provincial Council, the holding of high office in local bodies (district boards, municipalities and corporations), membership of the governing bodies of Universities, and the holding of titles conferred in recognition of Indian classical learning and literature.

Powers—The powers and duties of the Indian legislature differ but little in character within the central "sphere" from those of the provincial Councils within their provincial sphere, and it has acquired the same right of voting supplies for the Central Government. But as no direct attempt has yet been made to introduce responsible government at the centre, the step in that direction having been avowedly confined to the provinces, and as consequently the Executive Government of India remains legally responsible as a whole for the proper fulfilment of its charge to the Secretary of State and Parliament, it follows that the powers conferred on provincial Governors to disregard an adverse vote of the Legislative Council on legislation or supplies are, as conferred on the Governor-General in his relationship with the Indian Legislature, less restricted in their operation than in the provinces, that is to say, they cover the whole field and are not confined in their application to categories of subjects.

THE INDIA OFFICE.

The Act makes no structural changes in the part played by the India Office in the administration of Indian affairs. Slight alterations have been effected in the number and tenure of office of the members of the Secretary of State's Council and some relaxations have been made in the statutory rigidity which formerly bound their procedure and that of the Office in general. But provisions now exist which will undoubtedly as time goes on have a material effect on the activities of the Office as it is now constituted. A High Commissioner for India has been appointed for the purpose of taking over as the direct agent of the Government of India, that portion of India Office functions which is of the nature of agency, as distinct from administrative supervision and control. The process of separation of staff and functions for the purpose of this transfer will necessarily be somewhat slow, but a substantial beginning has been made by handing over to the direct control of the High Commissioner the large departments which are concerned with the ordering and supply of stores and stationery in England for Government use in India, with the payment of pensions to retired members of Indian services resident in the United Kingdom, and with the assistance of

Indian students in England. Concurrently with this change, it is now possible to defray from British revenues the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary and that portion of the cost of salaries of India Office staff and general maintenance which is attributable to the exercise of its administrative as distinct from purely agency functions.

In due course the apportionment to British estimates will be the cost of the India Office as it exists after the transfer of functions to the High Commissioner has been completely effected, then the salaries of the High Commissioner and his staff will be the only expenses in the United Kingdom chargeable to Indian revenues. Until that time arrives, however, an estimate was the only basis for settlement, and for five years from 1920-21 the cost of the India Office payable from British revenues has been fixed at £36,500, which includes the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary and a contribution of £4,000, which has for some years been made by the Treasury towards Indian expenditure, as the result of the recommendations of the Welby Commission.

THE FUTURE.

The Act of 1919 and its provisions will enable "the progressive realisation of responsible Government in British India as an integral part of the Empire." This feature of the Act was clearly expressed in its Preamble

but although the Preamble finds no place in the law as amended by the Act of 1919, that law now contains provision for the appointment, after a period of 10 years' trial of the law in its amended form, of a Parliamentary Commission for the purpose of inquiring into the working of the system of government, the growth of education, and the development of representative institutions in British India, and matters connected therewith, and such a Commission, when appointed, is directed to 'report as to whether it is desirable to establish the principle of responsible government, or to extend, modify, or restrict the degree of responsible government then existing' in British India. Had it been possible to legislate more exactly for a process of evolution, the Act would doubtless have provided for a series of such Commissions, as the

means of affording to Parliament criteria for determining "the time and manner of each advance" in "progress by successive stages" towards attainment of the "declared policy," of which the Preamble speaks. But it will be the task of a future Parliament to decide what changes, by further legislation or by amendment of the existing statutory rules, it is expedient to adopt in the light of the first Statutory Commission's enquiry and in taking its decisions that Parliament will, in the main, be "guided" (as its predecessor of 1919 forecasted) by the co-operation received from those on whom new opportunities for service have been "conferred and by the extent to which it is found that confidence can be reposed in their sense of responsibility."

PERSONNEL AND PROCEDURE.

The Governor-General and the "Executive" members of his Council are appointed by the Crown. No limit of time is specified for their tenure of office, but custom has fixed it at five years. There are seven Executive Members of Council. These Members hold respectively the portfolios of Education, Health and Lands, Home, Finance, Commerce, Industries and Labour. Law. The Viceroy acts as his own member in charge of Foreign affairs. Railways are administered by a Chief Commissioner, with the assistance of a Railway Board and are for administrative purposes grouped under the wings of the Commerce Department. The Commander-in-Chief may also be and in practice always is, an "extraordinary" member of the Council. He holds charge of the Army Department. The Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal become "extraordinary" members if the Council meets within their Provinces. The Council may assemble at any place in India which the Governor-General appoints, in practice it meets only in Delhi and Simla.

In regard to his own Department each Member of Council is largely in the position of a Minister of State, and has the final voice in ordinary departmental matters. But any question of special importance, and any matter in which it is proposed to over-rule the views of a Local Government, must ordinarily be referred to the Viceroy. Any matter originating in one department which also affects another must be referred to the latter, and in the event of the Departments not being able to agree, the case is referred to the Viceroy. The Members of Council meet periodically as a Cabinet—ordinarily

once or twice a week—to discuss questions which the Viceroy desires to put before them, or which a member who has been over-ruled by the Viceroy has asked to be referred to Council. If there is a difference of opinion in the Council the decision of the majority ordinarily prevails, but the Viceroy can over rule a majority if he considers that the matter is of such grave importance as to justify such a step. Each departmental office is in the subordinate charge of a Secretary, whose position corresponds very much to that of a permanent Under-Secretary of State in the United Kingdom but with these differences—that the Secretary is present though does not speak, at Council meetings at which cases under his cognisance are discussed that he attends on the Viceroy, usually once a week, and discusses with him all matters of importance arising in his Department, that he has the right of bringing to the Viceroy's special notice any case in which he considers that the Viceroy's concurrence should be obtained to action proposed by the Departmental Member of Council and that his tenure of office is usually limited to three years. The Secretaries have under them Deputy, Under and Assistant Secretaries, together with the ordinary clerical establishments. The Secretaries and Under-Secretaries are often, though by no means exclusively, members of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of India has no Civil Service of its own as distinct from that of the Provincial Governments, and officers serving under the Government of India are borrowed from the Provinces, or, in the case of Specialists, recruited direct by contract.

THE DIVISION OF FUNCTIONS

The keynote of the scheme is effective provincial autonomy and the establishment of an immediate measure of responsibility in the Provinces all of which are raised to the status of Governors in Council. This demanded a sharp division between Imperial and Provincial functions. The following subjects are reserved to the Government of India, with the corollary that all others vest in the Provincial Governments—

1. (a) Defence of India, and all matters connected with His Majesty's Naval, Military, and Air Forces in India, or with His Majesty's Indian Marine Service or with any other force

raised in India, other than military and armed police wholly maintained by local Governments.

(b) Naval and military works, cantonments.

2. External relations, including naturalisation and aliens, and pilgrimages beyond India.

3. Relations with States in India.

4. Political charges.

5. Communications to the extent described under the following heads, namely—

(a) railway and extra municipal (sanitary) in so far as they are not classified as provincial subjects under entry 6 (d) of Part II of the Schedule.

- (b) aircraft and all matters connected therewith, and
- (c) inland waterways, to an extent to be declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature
- 6 Shipping and navigation, including shipping and navigation on inland waterways in so far as declared to be a central subject in accordance with entry 5 (c)
- 7 Light-houses (including their approaches) beacons, lightships and buoys
- 8 Port quarantine and marine hospitals
- 9 Ports declared to be major ports by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature
- 10 Posts, telegraph and telephones, including wireless installations
- 11 Customs, cotton excise duties, income tax, salt, and other sources of all India revenues
- 12 Currency and coinage
- 13 Public debt of India
- 14 Savings Banks
- 15 The Indian Audit Department and excluded Audit Departments, as defined in rules framed under section 96 D (1) of the Act
- 16 Civil law, including laws regarding status, property, civil rights and liabilities, and civil procedure
- 17 Commerce, including banking and insurance
- 18 Trading companies and other associations
- 19 Control of production supply and distribution of any articles in respect of which control by a central authority is declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature to be essential in the public interest
- 20 Development of industries, in cases where such development by a central authority is declared by order of the Governor-General in Council, made after consultation with the local Government or local Governments concerned expedient in the public interest.
- 21 Control of cultivation and manufacture of opium, and sale of opium for export
- 22 Stores and stationery, both imported and indigenous, required for Imperial Departments
- 23 Control of petroleum and explosives.
- 24 Geological survey
- 25 Control of mineral development, in so far as such control is reserved to the Governor-General in Council under rules made or sanctioned by the Secretary of State, and regulation of mines
- 26 Botanical Survey
- 27 Inventions and designs
- 28 Copyright
- 29 Emigration from, and immigration into, British India, and inter provincial migration
- 30 Criminal law, including criminal procedure
- 31 Central police organisation
- 32 Control of arms and ammunition
- 33 Central agencies and institutions for research (including observatories), and for professional or technical training or promotion of special studies
- 34 Ecclesiastical administration, including European cemeteries
- 35 Survey of India.
- 36 Archaeology
- 37 Zoological Survey
- 38 Meteorology
- 39 Census and statistics
- 40 All India services
- 41 Legislation in regard to any provincial subject in so far as such subject is in Part II of this Schedule stated to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature, and any powers relating to such subject reserved by legislation to the Governor-General in Council
- 42 Territorial changes, other than inter-provincial, and declaration of law in connection therewith.
- 43 Regulation of ceremonial, titles, orders, precedence, and civil uniform
- 44 Immovable property acquired by, and maintained at the cost, of the Governor-General in Council
- 45 The Public Service Commission.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VICEROY AND GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA.

His Excellency the Right Hon RUFUS DANIEL ISAACS Earl of Reading, P.C., G.C.B., G.M.S.I., G.M.L.R., G.C.V.O., K.C.V.O., assumed charge of office, 3rd April, 1921

PERSONAL STAFF OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

Private Secretary—Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, K.C.V.O., C.B., C.M.G., I.C.S.

Asst Private Secretary—Capt. C. F. Hancock M.C.

Military Secretary—Col B D Worgan, C.B., C.V.O., D.S.O.

Controller of the Household—Maj W W Blair, M.V.O., C.B.E., 18th Sikh.

Aides-de-Camp—Capt R Burton G.O.'s (Res. of Offr) Capt M L Mostyn-Owen, 19th K.G.O. Lrs (Extra), Capt J F B Combe (11th Hussars) (Prince Alberts); Capt D B Daly, (Royal Horse Guards, The Blues), Subadar-Major (Hon. Lt.) Dalpat Singh, Sardar Bahadur, I.O.M., 9th Jat B., Subadar-Major (Hon. Lt.) Gulab Singh, Bahadur, 10th Baluch Regt.

Honorary Aides-de-Camp—Lt.-Col G S Llewellyn, V.D., Bihar L.H., Lt.-Col T F Gavin-Jones, late 7th U P Horse, Lt.-Col P R Oadell, C.S.I., C.I.E., V.D., late 15th Bo Bn., Lt.-Col R St J Hickman, C.I.E., V.D., Burma V L H, Capt E J Headlam, C.M.G., D.S.O., R.I.M., Lt.-Col S S G Tulloch, V.D., B.W. Ry R, Col A H Morin, D.S.O., V.D., S Prov M Rif., Lt.-Col R B. Will, D.S.O., V.D., IV Bde, R.A. (A.F.I.), Col (Hon Brig Genl) G L Colvin, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., R.I. By R (A.F.I.), Lt Col F H T Buchanan, V.D., Tenn'm Bn. (A.F.I.), Col F A Hadow, C.V.O., N W Ry, R. (A.F.I.), Risaldar Major Jafar Husain, H E the Govr Genl's Body Guard, Nawab Osman Yar ud Dowla, Bahadur, Major and Commander of H F H the Nizam's Regular Forces, Sardar Bahadur Lt Col B Chamraj Urs, Chief Commandant, Mysore State Forces Sardar Bahadur Sardar Pooran Singh, C.I.E.

Major-General, Kapurthala State Forces. Lt. Mehr Mahomed Khan, C.I.E., C.B.M., Bahadur, Major-General, in the Maler Kotla State Forces, Lt.-Col Nawabzada Haid Muhammad Hamidulla Khan, C.S.I., C.V.O. Bhopal State Forces, Risaldar-Maj (Hony Capt) Abdul Aziz, Sardar Bahadur, late 6th Cav., Subadar-Major (Hony Capt) Madho Singh Rana, Sardar Bahadur, late 4th G R., Risaldar Major (Hony Capt) Abdul Karim Khan, Sardar Bahadur, late Govr Genl's Body Guard, Subdr-Maj (Hony Capt) Mit Singh, I.O.M., Sardar Bahadur, late 53rd Sikhs Risaldar Maj Karm Singh, I.D.S.M., Bahadur, late 13th Lra., Risaldar-Maj (Hony Capt) Mubind dila Khan, C.I.E., I.D.S.M., Sardar Bahadur, late 31st Lancers

Surgeon—Lt.-Col J Norman Walker, I.M.S.
Commandant of Body Guard—Major E G Atkinson

Ordinary Members—

COUNCIL.

H E Lord Rawlinson, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.V.O., K.C.M.G., Commander-in Chief in India (Army), (on leave)
General Sir William R Birdwood, K.C.B., K.C.S.I., K.C.M.G. (Officially)
Khan Bahadur Sir Mahomed Habbibullah Sahel Bahadur, K.C.I.E. (Education, Health and Lands)
Sir Bayya Narasimheswara Sarma, K.C.S.I., (Law)
Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.O.S. (Railways, Commerce and Ecclesiastical)
Sir Basil Blackett, K.C.B. (Finance)
Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, M.A., K.C.I.E., C.B.E. (Industries and Labour)
Sir Alexander Muddiman, Kt, C.S.I., C.I.E.

SECRETARIAT

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, HEALTH AND LANDS

Secretary, J W Bhore C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.
Deputy Secretary, R. B. Ewbank, C.I.E., I.C.S., (on deputation)
Deputy Secretary (off) U S Bajpai, C.B.E., I.C.S.

Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, J A Richey C.I.E., M.A.

Inspector-General of Forests, Sir Peter Clutverburck, Kt, C.I.E.

Under Secretary, (off), M S A Hydari
Registrar, Rai Bahadur M N Chakrabarti
Superintendents, T McDonnell, G E Jackson,
Rai Sahib L M Roy, L H C Walker (off),
H H Lincoln (on leave) J H. Green (on leave),
E B Hughes (off) G B Dasa (off)

FINANCE DEPARTMENT

Secretary, A C McWatters, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Deputy Secretary, A Macleod, I.C.S.
Under Secretary, P R Rau, M.A.
Assistant Secretaries, S V Aiyer, Bital Singh, M.A.
Superintendents, G J Piper, V K Menon, Rai

Sahib C. N. Chakrabarti, Shah Mohammad, M.A., H Shankar Rau

Controller of the Currency, H Denning, I.C.S., (on leave)

Controller of the Currency, (off), A V V Aiyer, C.I.E.

Accountant General Central Revenue, (off) N V Raghavan, B.A.

Auditor General, Sir Frederic Gauntlett, K.B.E., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Officers on Special Duty, J F C Jukes, C.I.E., M K Mitra, T K Rajagopalann

CENTRAL BOARD OF REVENUE

Members, The Honble Mr A R L Tottchenam, I.C.S. and A H Lloyd, I.C.S.

Secretary, V S Sundaram

MILITARY FINANCE BRANCH.

Financial Adviser, A F L Brayne, C.I.E., I.C.S., (off)

Deputy Financial Advisers, Mr M R Coburn, C.B.E., (on leave), Lt.-Col. A G Murray, I.A., Lt Col W V Richards, I.A., Lt. Col. S G V Ellis, D.S.O., I.A., Lt. Col. E. Prince, C.B.E., I.A.

Assistant Financial Advisors, F J Woolmer, H T Macdonald, M.B.E., E T Waugh, Rai Sahib K C Maulik, B.A., H D Banerjee, Rai Sahib H B Kalish

Superintendents, A K Ghosh, B.A. (on leave), Gauri Shankar B.A., (on leave), A J Mendes, F W Reed, J R Hope, A T Banerjee

FOREIGN AND POLITICAL DEPARTMENT

Secretary Political, The Honble Mr J P Thompson, C.S.I.

Secretary, Foreign, Denys de B Bray C.B.E., C.B.E.

Deputy Secretary, Political, Major G D Ogilvy

Deputy Secretary, Foreign, C Latimer, C.B.E.

Under Secretary, Major G V B Gillan

Assistant Secretary, E Bertram Higge, M.B.E.

Registrar, C W Kirkpatrick, M.B.E.

Attache, Khan Sahib Inam ul Huk

Military Adviser en Chef, Indian State Forces, Major General E A Fagan, C.B., C.S.I., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Technical Adviser for Signalling, Major I Griffith, D.S.O.

Superintendents, JWS Inglis, FS Hoskey, C H Harcourt, J W Edmondson, M Stultz, G M Coates, J R Rodgers, G G Bladen Taylor, E S Budd, A C Sealy

HOME DEPARTMENT

Secretary, The Honble Mr. J Cresser, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Joint Secretary, H Tonkinson, C.I.E.

Deputy Secretary, T Sloan, I.C.S.

Additional Deputy Secretary, C W Jacob, I.C.S.

Officer on Special Duty, H G Raig, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Under Secretary, TCS Jayaratnam, I.C.S.

Assistant Secretaries, B H Brandon, U C Stuart, Rao Sahib K.P. Anantan

Superintendents, T.P. Roy, J C McDermott, W D Almeida, Narendra Nath Banerjee, E H T Ward

DIRECTOR, PUBLIC INFORMATION

Director, Prof. L F Rushbrook Williams, C.B.E.

Assistant Director, R S. Bajpai, O.B.E., Barrister at Law

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR

Secretary, The Hon'ble Mr A H Ley, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Deputy Secretary, J C B Drake, O.B.E., I.C.S.

Under Secretary, A G Clow, I.C.S.

Assistant Secretary, Rai Bahadur J P Ganguli

Deputy Secretaries, (Public Works Branch.), D. G Harris and W G Dollman.

Consulting Engineer to the Government of India, F. St. J Gebbie, C.I.E., M.I.E. (Ind)

Superintendents, L Bloemink, W R Chambers, Rai Sahib Atanu Mohan Banerjee, Rai Sahib Nhalchand, B.A., (Temporary)

Superintendents, R S D Arcey (on Depudation), Rai Sahib S K Banerjee, Rai Sahib H I Chhiber, Gauri Shankar, Dipchand, C A B Watts

Superintending Engineer, Simla, Imp. Civil and ex officio Under Secretary, A Brebner, C.I.E.

POST AND TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT

Director General, G R Clarke, C.S.I., O.B.E., I.C.S.

(RAILWAY BOARD) RAILWAY DEPARTMENT

Chief Commissioner, C D M Hindley

Members, P C Sheridan, C.M.G. and F A Hadow, C.V.O.

Financial Commissioner, G G Sim, C.I.E., I.C.S. (on leave)

Financial Commissioner, (off), A A L Parsons, I.C.S.

Director, Civil Engineer, F W Allum, C.B.E.

Director, Mechanical Engineer, A S Chase, O.B.E.

Secretary, S C Tomkins

Deputy Director, Establishment, B Stanley

Deputy Director, Projects, P H Maslin, O.B.E.

Deputy Director, Statistics, Major F H Buddon, M.O., B.E.

Deputy Director, Stores, A F Harvey

Deputy Director, Traffic, S D Manson

Deputy Director, Way and Works, Muzaffer Husain

Assistant Director Technical, K C De

Assistant Secretary, R Thomas

Special Officer, A M Hayman

Superintendents, H Collin Campbell, A G Saldanha, V G Gadgil, Rai Sahib A L, Mlra, W S Wood, Khan Sahib Barkat Ali, C H L Hurvey

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

Secretary, K Graham, C.I.E., I.C.S. (acting)

Joint Secretary and Draftsman, W T. M Wright, I.C.S.

Additional Joint Secretary L Graham, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Additional Joint Secretary, (off), S C Gupta, Barrister-at-law

Deputy Secretary (off), G H Spence, I.C.S.

Solicitor to the Government of India, (on leave) Lt. Col B W L Dunlop, C.I.E., D.S.O.

Off. Solicitor to the Government of India, S Webb-Johnson.

Off. Assistant Solicitor, S. N. Mushran, M.A., Bar-at-law

Attaches, F L Grille, I.C.S., and A de B. Williams, L.C.S.

Registrar, C H F Pereira
Superintendents, D D Baird, D Dutt, F A Thorpe and A W Chick, (*Officiating*)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

Secretary, The Hon Mr D T Chadwick, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Joint Secretary, G L Corbett, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Assistant Secretary, E F Rogers (*on leave*)

Assistant Secretary, Rai Bahadur S N Banerjee

Offg Asst Secretary, Rai Sahib L Sen B.A.

Superintendents, K D Banerji S T Sealy, (*Offg*) Laddi Prasad, B.A., (*Offg*)

NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE

Commissioner, J C Ferguson

SURVEY DEPARTMENT

Surveyor-General of India, Col C H D Ryder, C.B., C.I.E., D.S.O., R.E., (*on leave*) Col E A Taubdy, R.E., (*Offg*)

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

Director, E H Pascoe, M.A., F.G.S.

Superintendents, E Vredenburg B.Sc., F.G.S., G H Tipper, M.A., G de P Cotter, B.A., J C Brown, O.B.E., D.Sc., H Walker, A.R.C.S., F.G.S., and G E Pilgrim, D.Sc.

Chemist, W. A. K. Christie, B.Sc., Ph.D.

BOTANICAL SURVEY.

Director, Lt Col A T Gage, M.B., I.M.S. (*on leave*) C C Calder B.Sc. (Agr.), F.G.S. (*Offg*) *Economic Botanist*, Madras, F E Parnell, *Economic Botanist*, Bombay, W Burns, B.Sc., *Economic Botanist*, United Provinces, H M Leake, M.A., F.L.S.,

Systematic Assistant, V Narayanaswami B.A.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY

Director General of Archaeology, Sir J H Marshall, M.A., C.I.E., *Deputy Director General*, D B Spooner, *Superintendent*, Western Circle, Bakhal Das Banerjee, M.A., *Superintendent*, Southern Circle, A H Longhurst, *Superintendent*, Northern Circle, Daya Ram Sahni, *Superintendent*, Central Circle, J A Page, *Superintendent*, Burma, C Durollelle, I.B.O., *Superintendent*, Frontier Circle, H Hargreaves.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS

Director-General, Indian Medical Service, The Hon Major-General R. C MacWatt, C.I.E., M.B., F.R.C.S. E.N.S.

Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India, Lieut-Col F H G Hutchinson, E.M.S. & E. (*on leave*), Lt-Col T D. Graham, C.I.E., I.M.S., (*Offg*)

Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Lt-Col. E. A Needham, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Asst Director-General, Indian Medical Service (Sany), Capt. J N Shah M.B.B., I.M.S. (Stores) Major G G Hirst, I.M.S.

Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Lt-Col W F Harvey, M.A., M.B., D.P.M., I.M.S.

Assistants to Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Lt Colonel S R Christophers C.I.E., I.M.S., Major F W Cragg and Major H H King, I.M.S.

Director-General of Indian Observatories, Dr G T Walker, C.B.I., M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S.

Imperial Meteorologist, C W B Normand

Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, T Roys, D.Sc.

Director, Bombay Observatory, S K Banerji D.Sc.

Meteorologist, Aerological Observatory, Agra, G Chatterjee, M.Sc.

Secretary, Board of Examiners, Lieut Colonel C L Peart, I.A.

Librarian, Imperial Library, Calcutta, Chapman (*on leave*), A F M. Abdul Ali, M.A., (*Offg*)

Agricultural Adviser and Director of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, S Milligan, M.A., B.Sc.

Director, Zoological Survey of India, Indian Museum,—Vacant

Controller of Printing Stationery and Stamps, M J Cogswell (*on leave*), F D Ascott, I.C.S., (*Offg*)

Superintendent of Government Printing, S. J. Melkie, O.B.E., V.D.

Director, Central Intelligence, D Petrie C.I.E., C.V.O., O.B.E.

Director General of Commercial Intelligence, C G Froke, I.C.S.

Director of Statistics, Rai Bahadur D N Ghosh, F.S.S., F.R.G.S.

Controller of Patents and Designs, H G Graves

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BOMBAY
WILLIAM IN BENGAL.

Name	Assumed charge of office.
Warren Hastings	20 Oct. 1774
Sir John Macpherson Bart.	8 Feb. 1785
Earl Cornwallis, K.G. (a)	12 Sep. 1794
Sir John Shore, Bart. (b)	28 Oct. 1793
(a) Created Marquess Cornwallis, 15 Aug. 1793	
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Teignmouth	

Lieut.-General the Hon. Sir Alfred
Clarke, K.C.B. (offg) 17 March 1798

The Earl of Mornington, P.C. (c) 18 May 1798

The Marquis Cornwallis, K. G (2nd
time) 30 July 1805

Captain L. A. P. Anderson, Sir George
H. Barlow, Bart. 10 Oct 1805

Lord Minto, P.C. (d) 31 July 1807

The Earl of Minto, K.G., P.C. (e) 4 Oct. 1813

John Adam (offg) 13 Jan 1823

Lord Amherst, P.C. (f) 1 Aug 1823

William Butterworth Bayley (offg) 13 Mar 1828

Lord William Cavendish Bentinck,
G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C. 4 July 1828

(c) Created Marquess Wellesley, 2 Dec 1799

(d) Created Earl of Minto 24 Feb 1813.

(e) Created Marquess of Hastings, 2 Dec 1816

(f) Created Earl Amherst, 2 Dec 1826

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C.	14 Nov 1834
Sir Charles Metcalfe, Bart. (a) (offg)	20 March 1835
Lord Auckland, G.C.B., P.C. (b)	4 March 1836
Lord Ellenborough, P.C. (c)	28 Feb. 1842
William Wilberforce Bird (offg)	15 June 1844
The Right Hon. Sir Henry Hardinge, G.C.B. (d)	23 July 1844
The Earl of Dalhousie, P.C. (e)	12 Jan 1848
Viscount Canning, P.C. (f)	29 Feb 1856

VICEROYS AND GOVERNORS- GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Viscount Canning, P.C. (a)	1 Nov 1858
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, K.T. G.C.B. P.C.	12 March 1862
Major General Sir Robert Napier, K.C.B. (c) (offg)	21 Nov 1863
Colonel Sir William T. Denison, K.C.B. (offg)	2 Dec 1863
The Right Hon. Sir John Lawrence, Bart. G.C.B., K.C.S.I. (c)	12 Jan 1864
The Earl of Mayo K.F.	12 Jan. 1869
John Strachey (d) (offg)	9 Feb. 1872
Lord Napier of Merchiston, K.T. (a) (offg)	23 Feb. 1872
Lord Northbrook, P.C. (f)	3 May 1872
Lord Lytton, G.C.B. (g)	12 Apl 1876
The Marquess of Ripon, K.G., P.C.	8 June 1880
The Earl of Dufferin, K.F., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C. (h)	13 Dec. 1884
The Marquess of Lansdowne, G.C. K.G.	10 Dec. 1888
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, P.C.	27 Jan 1894
Baron Curzon of Kedleston, P.C.	6 Jan 1899
Baron Amptill (offg)	30 Apl 1904
Baron Curzon of Kedleston P.C. (i) 13 Dec	1904
The Earl of Minto, K.G., P.C., G.C. K.G.	18 Nov 1905
Baron Hardinge of Penahurst, P.C. G.C.B. G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., I.S.O.(J)	23 Nov 1910
Lord Chelmsford	Apl 1916
Lord Reading	Apl 1921

The gradual evolution of the Indian constitution is fully traced in the article on "The Government of India," which precedes this, so also are the great changes made by the Reform Act of 1919. For the purposes of easy reference the powers of the Legislatures, as well as the special powers reserved to the Governor-General for the discharge of his responsibilities, which are fully set out in the Act, are reproduced below—

21 (1) Every Council of States shall continue for five years, and every Legislative Assembly for three years, from its first meeting

Provided that—

(a) either chamber of the legislature may be sooner dissolved by the Governor-General and
(b) any such period may be extended by the Governor-General if in special circumstances, he so thinks fit, and

(c) after the dissolution of either chamber the Governor-General shall appoint a date not more than six months, or with the sanction of the Secretary of State, not more than nine months after the date of dissolution for the next session of that chamber

22 (1) An official shall not be qualified for election as a member of either chamber of the Indian legislature, and, if any non-official member of either chamber accepts office in the service of the Crown in India his seat in that chamber shall become vacant

(4) Every member of the Governor-General's Executive Council shall be nominated as a member of one chamber of the Indian legislature, and shall have the right of attending in and addressing the other chamber, but shall not be a member of both chamber

24 (3) If any Bill which has been passed by one chamber is not, within six months after the passage of the Bill by that chamber, passed by the other chamber either without amendments or with such amendments as may be agreed to by the two chambers, the Governor-General may in his discretion refer the matter for decision to a joint sitting of both chambers. Provided that standing orders made under this section may provide for meetings of members of both chambers appointed for the purpose, in order to discuss any difference of opinion which has arisen between the two chambers

(4) Without prejudice to the powers of the Governor-General under section sixty-eight of the principal Act, the Governor-General may where a Bill has been passed by both chambers of the Indian legislature, return the Bill for reconsideration by either chambers

(7) Subject to the rules and standing orders affecting the chamber, there shall be freedom of speech in both chambers of the Indian legislature. No person shall be liable to any proceeding in any court by reason of his speech or vote in either chamber, or by reason of anything contained in any official report of the proceedings of either chamber

25 INDIAN BUDGET.—(1) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the Governor-General in Council shall be laid in the form of a statement before both chambers of the Indian legislature in each year,

(2) No proposal for the appropriation of any revenue or moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the Governor-General,

(3) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to the following heads of expenditure shall not be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly, nor shall they be open to discussion by either chamber at the time when the annual statement is under consideration, unless the Governor-General otherwise directs—

(i) interest and sinking fund charges on loans, and

(ii) expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law, and

(iii) salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council, and

(iv) salaries of chief commissioners and judicial commissioners, and

(v) expenditure classified by the order of the Governor-General in Council as—

(a) ecclesiastical,

(b) political,

(c) defence

(4) If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of revenue or moneys, does or does not relate to the above heads the decision of the Governor-General on the question shall be final

(5) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to heads or expenditure not specified in the above heads shall be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly in the form of demands for grants

(6) The legislative assembly may assent or refuse its assent to any demand or may reduce the amount referred to in any demand by a reduction of the whole grant

(7) The demands as voted by the legislative assembly shall be submitted to the Governor-General in Council, who shall, if he declares that he is satisfied that any demand which has been refused by the legislative assembly is essential to the discharge of his responsibilities, act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, by the legislative assembly

(8) Notwithstanding anything in this section the Governor-General shall have power, in cases of emergency, to authorise such expenditure as may, in his opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquillity of British India or any part thereof

26 PARLIAMENTARY POWERS.—(1) Where either chamber of the Indian legislature refuses leave to introduce or fails to pass in a form recommended by the Governor-General any Bill, the Governor-General may certify that the passage of the Bill is essential for the safety, tranquillity or interests of British India or any part thereof, and thereupon—

(a) if the Bill has already been passed by the other chamber, the Bill shall, on signature by the Governor-General, notwithstanding that it has not been consented to by both chambers, forthwith become an Act of the Indian legislature in the form of the Bill as originally introduced or proposed to be introduced in the Indian legislature, or (as the case

may be) in the form recommended by the Governor-General, and

(b) if the Bill has not already been so passed, the Bill shall be laid before the other chamber, and, if consented to by that chamber in the form recommended by the Governor-General, shall become an Act as aforesaid on the signification of the Governor-General's assent, or, if not so consented to shall, on signature by the Governor-General, become an Act as aforesaid.

(2) Every such Act shall be expressed to be made by the Governor-General and shall, as soon as practicable after being made, be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and shall not have effect until it has received His Majesty's assent, and shall not be presented for His Majesty's assent until copies thereof have been laid before each House of Parliament for not less than eight days on which that House has sat, and upon the signification of such assent by His Majesty in Council and the notification thereof by the Governor-General, the Act shall have the same force and effect as an Act passed by the Indian legislature and duly assented to.

Provided that, where in the opinion of the Governor-General a state of emergency exists which justifies such action, the Governor-General may direct that any such Act shall come into operation forthwith, and thereupon the Act shall have such force and effect as

aforesaid, subject, however, to disallowance by His Majesty in Council.

27 SUPPLEMENTAL PROVISIONS—(1) In addition to the measures referred to in sub-section (2) of section sixty-seven of the principal Act, as requiring the previous sanction of the Governor-General it shall not be lawful without such previous sanction to introduce at any meeting of either chamber of the Indian legislature any measure—

(a) regulating any provincial subject, or any part of a provincial subject, which has not been declared by rules under the principal Act to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature,

(b) repealing or amending any Act of a local legislature,

(c) repealing or amending any Act or ordinance made by the Governor-General.

(2) Where in either chamber of the Indian legislature any Bill has been introduced or is proposed to be introduced, or any amendment to a Bill is moved, or proposed to be moved, the Governor-General may certify that the Bill or any clause of it, or the amendment affects the safety or tranquillity of British India, or any part thereof, and may direct that no proceedings, or that no further proceedings, shall be taken by the chamber in relation to the Bill, clause, or amendment and effect shall be given to such direction.

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

President —The Honourable Sir Alexander Frederick Whyte, Kt
A —ELECTED MEMBERS (104)

Constituency.	Name.
Madras City (Non-Muhammadian Urban)	Diwan Bahadur Tiruvengkata Bengachariar
Ganjam <i>own</i> Vizagapatam (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Bhupatiraju Venkatapadiraaju
Godavari <i>own</i> Kistna (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Diwan Bahadur Mocheria Ramachandra Rao
Guntur <i>own</i> Nellore (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Pantulu Garu
Madras ceded districts and Chittoor (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Kakutur Venkataramanareddi Garu
Belam and Coimbatore <i>own</i> North Arcot (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Chetluru Doraiswamy Ayyangar
South Arcot <i>own</i> Chingleput (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr B K Shanmukham Chetty
Tanjore <i>own</i> Trichinopoly (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr M K Acharya
Madras and Ramnad <i>own</i> Tinnevely (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr A Rangaswami Iyengar
West Coast and Nilgiris (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Krishna Aiyangar Rama Aiyangar.
North Madras (Muhammadian)	Mr. K. Sadasiva Bhat, Aji
	Haji Syed Abdul Khader Sahob Jeelani;

Constituency.	Name.
South Madras (Muhammadian)	Moulvi Sayyid Murtaza Saheb Bahadur
West Coast and Nilgiris (Muhammadian)	Mr Mahmood Schammad Saheb Bahadur
Madras (European)	Sir Gordon Fraser, Kt
Madras Landholders	Mr Kunhi Kammaran Nambiyar Chandroth Koodali Thazheteveetil
Madras Indian Commerce	Sir M C T M Chettiyar, Kt
Bombay City (Non Muhammadian Urban)	Mr Vithalbhai Javerbhai Patel
Ditto	Mr Nowroji Maneckji Dumasla
Sind (Non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Hafchandrai Vishandas, C.I.E
Bombay Northern Division (Non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Jamnadas M Mehta
Bombay Southern Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Sardar Mahboob Ali Khan Mohammad Akbar Khan
Bombay Central Division (Non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Narainha Chintaman Kelkar
Ditto	Mr Krishnaji Govind Lohokare
Bombay Southern Division (Non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Dattatraya Venkatesh Belvi
Bombay City (Muhammadian Urban)	Mr Mahomed Ali Jinnah
Sind (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Ghulam Mahomed Khan Walimohamed Khan Bhurgri
Bombay Northern Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Mahomed Ibrahim Makan
Bombay (European)	Mr H F Sykes M.C.E.
Ditto	Mr Hugh Golding Cooke
The Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau (Indian Commerce)	Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt, C.I.E., M.S.
Gujarat and Deccan Sardars and Inamdars (Landholders)	Sardar Vahanu Narayan Mutalik
The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association (Indian Commerce)	Sheth Kasturbhai Lalbhai
Calcutta (Non Muhammadian Urban)	Mr Bepin Chandra Pal.
Calcutta Suburbs (Non-Muhammadian Urban)	Mr Tuls Chandra Goswami
Burdwan Division (Non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Amarnath Dutt
Presidency Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Bhabendra Chandra Roy
Dacca Division (Non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Kshitish Chandra Neogy
Chittagong and Rajshahi Divisions (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Kumar Sankar Ray.
Calcutta and Suburbs (Muhammadian Urban)	Mr Yacoob C Arif
Burdwan and Presidency Divisions (Muhammadian Rural).	Khan Bahadur Mohammad Shams ul-Zohra.
Dacca Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Alimuzzaman Chaudhuri.
Do. do	Khwaja Abdul Karim
Uttar Pradesh Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Muhammad Kasim Ali.
Rajshahi Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Kabeerud-Din Ahmed.

Constituency	Name.
Bengal (European)	Sir Campbell Ward Rhodes, Kt., C.B.E.
Do	Mr Darcy Lindsay, C.B.E.
Do	Mr G Plicher
Bengal Landholders	Mr Surendra Chandra Ghose.
Marwari Association (Indian Commerce)	Mr Rang Lal Jajodia
Cities of the United Provinces (Non Muhammadan Urban)	Pandit Motilal Nehru
Meerut Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Sham Lal Nehru
Agra Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Natayan Das
Bohlikund and Kumaon Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr C S Ranga Iyer.
Allahabad and Jansi Divisions (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya.
Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Krishna Kant Malaviya.
Lucknow Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Harkaran Nath Mishra.
Fyzabad Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Dr Kishan Lal Nehru
Cities of the United Provinces (Muhammadan Urban)	Haji Wajihuddin
Meerut Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Nawab Ismail Khan
Agra Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Dr Lodhi Karim Hyder
Bohlikund and Kumaon Divisions (Muhammadan Rural)	Maulvi Muhammad Yaqub
United Provinces Southern Divisions (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Yusuf Imam.
Lucknow and Fyzabad Divisions (Muhammadan Rural)	Shahid Mushir Hosain Kidwai.
United Provinces (European)	Colonel Sir Henry John Ludlam Stanyon Kt., C.B.E., V.D.
United Provinces Landholders	Raja Amarpal Singh, M.B.E.
Ambala Division (Non Muhammadan)	Lala Dunichand
Jullundur Division (Non Muhammadan)	Lala Hans Raj
West Punjab (Non Muhammadan)	Mr Chaman Lal
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Mr Abdul Haye
East Central Punjab (Muhammadan)	Sheikh Sadib Hasan
West Central Punjab (Muhammadan)	Khan Sahib Ghulam Bari
North Punjab (Muhammadan)	Chaudhri Baawal Baksh
North-West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Sayyad Ghulam Abbas
South-West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Makidum Syed Bajaj Baksh Shah.
East Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Kartar Singh
West Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Gulab Singh
Punjab Landholders	Baba Ujjagar Singh Bedi
Tibet Division (Non Muhammadan)	Mr. Shyamam Chasen
Do. do.	Mr Gaya Prasad Singh.

Province or body represented.	Name
Orissa Division (Non Muhammadan)	Mr Nilkantha Das
Do do	Mr Bhubanananda Das
Patna cum Shalibad (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr Ambika Prasad Sinha
Gaya cum Monghyr (Non Muhammadan)	Rai Hari Prasad Lal
Bhagalpur, Furna and the Santhal Parganas (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr Gangananand Sinha
Chota Nagpur Division (Non Muhammadan)	Mr Devaki Prasad Sinha
Patna and Chota Nagpur cum Orissa (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Sarfaraz Husain Khan
Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadan)	Moulvi Main Asjad ul lah
Tirhut Division (Muhammadan)	Maulvi Muhammad Shafec
Bihar and Orissa Landholders	Raja Raghunandan Prasad Singh
Nagpur Division (Non Muhammadan)	Mr M V Abhyankar
Central Provinces Hindi Divisions (Non Muhammadan)	Dr H S Gour
Do do	Mr Sambhlu Dayal Misra
Central Provinces (Muhammadan)	Mr M Samiullah Khan
Central Provinces Landholders	Seth Govind Das
Assam Valley (Non-Muhammadan)	Srijut Tarun Bam Phookun
Surma Valley cum Shillong (Non Muhammadan)	Mr Kamini Kumar Chanda
Assam (Muhammadan)	Mr Ahmad Ali Khan
Assam (European)	Mr Eustace Joseph
Burma (Non European)	Maung Tok Kyi
Do do	Maung Kun
Do do	Maung Ba Si
Burma (European)	Mr Edward Gibson Fleming
Delhi (General)	Mr Piyare Lal
Ajmer-Merwara (General)	Rai Sahib M Haridhas Sarda
Marshall	Capt Suraj Singh Bahadur I O M

B. —NOMINATED MEMBERS (EXCLUDING THE PRESIDENT) (40)

OFFICIAL MEMBERS (25)

Government of India	The Honourable Sir Alexander Muddiman Kt, O S I, C I E
Do	The Honourable Sir Charles Innes, K C S I, C I E
Do	The Honourable Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra K C I E, C B E
Do	The Honourable Sir Basil Phillott Blackett, K C B
Do	Mr Ernest Burdon, C I E
Do	Mr Evelyn Berkeley Howell, O S I, C I E.
Do	Mr Alfred Alan Lethbridge Parsons.
Do	Mr Geoffrey Rothe Clarke, C.S.I., O B E
Do	Mr. Alexander Robert Loftus Tottenham.
Do	Mr James Alexander Ritchey, O I E
Do	Mr Laurence Frederic Ruahbrook Williams, O.B.E.
Madras	Mr Thomas Eyckson Motr, O S I, C I E.
Do	Mr Julius Matheson Turing.

Province or body represented	Name
Bombay	Mr Philip Edward Percival
Do	Mr B D Bell, C I E, I O S
Bengal	Mr Lewis Sydney Steward O'Maley, C I E
Do	Mr Girish Chandra Nag
United Provinces	Mr Henry Edward Holme
The Punjab	Mr Hubert Calvert
Bihar and Orissa	Bai Bahadur Shyam Narayan Singh, M B E.
The Central Provinces	Mr Rustomji Faridoonji
Assam	Mr Basil Copleston Allen, C S I
Burma	Lieutenant Colonel Francis Charles Owens.
Berar representative	Mr Madhao Srihari Aney
NON OFFICIAL MEMBERS (14)	
Madras	Sir Palamameti Sundaram Aiyer Sivaswamy
Bombay	Aiyer, K C S I, C I E
Do	Sir Chimanlal Harlal Setalvad, Kt
Bengal	Sardar Bomanji Ardeshir Dalal
Do	Prince Afsar ul Mulk Mirza Muhammad Akram
The United Provinces	Hussain Bahadur
The Punjab	Mr Kesava Chandra Roy, C I E
Bihar and Orissa	Moulvie Abdul Kaseem
The Central Provinces	Hon Captain Hira Singh, Sardar Bahadur
Assam	Khan Bahadur Sayid Muhammad Ismail
North West Frontier Province	Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul Qalyum, K C I E
Indian Christian	Dr Surendra Kumar Datta
Anglo-Indian Community	Lieutenant Colonel H A J Gidney
Labour interests	Mr Narayan Malhar Joshi

THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

President—The Hon'ble Sir Henry Moncreiff Smith Kt, C I E, I O S

A—ELECTED MEMBERS (33).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras (Non-Muhammadian)	Sir S M Annamalai Chettiyar, Kt.
Do	Mr K V Rangaswamy Ayyangar
Do	The Rt Hon ble V S Srinivasa Shastry, F. C.
Do	Diwan Bahadur V Ramabhadra Naidu.
Madras (Muhammadian)	Syed Muhammad Fadzah Sahab.
Bombay (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr Lalubhai Samaldas
Do	Mr Phiroze C Sethna.
Do	Mr Raghunath Pandurang Karandikar
Bombay Presidency (Muhammadian)	Khan Bahadur Ebrahim Haroon Jaffer.
Sind (Muhammadian)	Mr Ali Baksh Muhammad Hussain.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce	Sir Arthur Henry Froom, Kt.
West Bengal (Non-Muhammadian)	Raja Pramada Nath Ray of Dighapatisa.
West Bengal (Non-Muhammadian)	Sir Deva Prasad Sarbadhikary, Kt., C. I. E.
Do.	Dr Dwarkanath Mitter

Constituency	Name.
East Bengal (Muhammadan)	Manvi Abdul Karim
West Bengal (Muhammadan)	Haji Chowdhuri Mohammad Ismail Khan
Bengal Chamber of Commerce	Mr J W A Bell
United Provinces Central (Non-Muhammadan)	Raja Sir Rampal Singh, K.C.I.E.
United Provinces Northern (Non-Muhammadan)	Lala Sukhbir Sinha
United Provinces Southern (Non-Muhammadan)	Raja Moti Chand, C.I.E.
United Provinces West (Muhammadan)	Muhammad Yamin Khan.
United Provinces East (Muhammadan)	Sayid Kasa Ali
Punjab (Non Muhammadan)	Bai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Das, C.I.E.
Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Jogendra Singh
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Sir Zulfiqar Ali Khan, Kt., C.S.I.
West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Colonel Nawab Sir Umar Hayat Khan, K.C.I.E., C.B., M.V.O.
Bihar and Orissa (Non Muhammadan)	Maharajadhiraja Sir Baroohawara Singh C.I.E., K.B.E., of Darbhanga.
Do	Maharaja Bahadur Keshav Prasad Singh C.B.E., of Dumraon
Bihar and Orissa (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Sayid Zahir ud din
Central Provinces (General)	Sir Manekjee Byramjee Dadabhoy, Kt., C.I.E.
Assam (Non Muhammadan)	Srijut Chandradhar Barua.
Burma (General)	Mr Sevasila Vedamurti.
Burma Chamber of Commerce	W A W Dawn

B.—NOMINATED MEMBERS (26 excluding the President).

(a) Official Members (not more than 19 excluding President).

Government of India	His Excellency General Lord Rawlinson, G.C.B., G.V.O., K.C.M.G.
Do	Mian Sir Muhammad Shafi, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do	Sir B. Narasimha Sharma, K.C.S.I.
Do	Mr D T Chadwick C.I.E.
Do	Sir James Creer, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do	Major General Robert Charles MacWatt, C.I.E., M.B.E., R.C.S., R.H.S.
Do	Mr Arthur Cecil McWatters, C.I.E.
Do	Mr Arthur Hebert Ly, C.I.E.
Do	Mr J P Thompson, C.S.I.
Do	Mr E R Abbott C.I.E.
Bombay	Mr J R Martin C.I.E.
Bengal	Mr Khagendra Nath Mitra
Madras	Mr W G McFarland
The United Provinces	Pandit Shyam Bihari Misra
Punjab	Mr C A Barron, C.S.I., C.I.E., G.V.O.
Bihar and Orissa	Mr E H Berthoud, C.B.E.

(b) Barar Representative

Barar Representative	Mr Ganesh Srikrishna Kharade
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(c) Non Officials

Madras	M R By Ganpati Agrabaram Annadhural
Bombay	Ayyar Natesam Avargal
Bengal	Sir Dinshah Edulji Wacha, Kt.
United Provinces	Maharaja Soohi Kanta Acharyya, Chaudhuri of Muktagacha, Mymensingh
Punjab	Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Mohamed Musamillullah Khan, C.B.E., K.C.S.I., of Bhikampur
Do	Nawab Sir Amiruddeen Ahmed Khan, K.C.I.E., of Loharu
Punjab (Indian Christian)	Sirdar Charanjit Singh
Delhi	Raja Sir Harnam Singh, K.C.I.E., of Loharu
North-West Frontier Provinces	Sir Mahammad Razaque, Kt.
	Major Nawab Mahomed Akbar Khan, C.I.E., Khan of Hoti.

Administrative Divisions.

Provinces	No of Districts.	Area in Square miles	Population (1921)
Ajmer Merwara	2	2,711	495,899
Andamans and Nicobars	1	3,143	23,833
Assam	12	52,959	7,598,861
Baluchistan	6	45,804	431,679
Bengal	28	78,412	46,063,177
Bihar and Orissa	21	83,305	33,998,778
Bombay (Presidency) ..	26	123,064	19,338,586
Bombay	26	75,918	16,005,170
Sind	6	47,066	3,278,498
Aden		80	54,923
Burma	41	236,738	13,205,564
Central Provinces and Berar	22	100,845	18,908,514
Coorg	1	1,582	164,459
Delhi			486,741
Madras	24	141,726	42,332,270
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and administered Territories)	5	16,466	2,247,696
Punjab	20	97,209	20,678,398
United Provinces of Agra & Oudh	48	107,164	45,590,946
Agra	36	83,198	33,420,638
Oudh	12	23,966	12,170,308
Total, British Territory	267	1,097,901	247,138,896

States and Agencies	No of Districts.	Area in Square miles	Population (1921).
Baluchistan States		86,511	878,999
Baroda State		8,099	2,121,875
Bengal States		32,773	996,178
Bihar and Orissa			5,965,431
Bombay States		65,761	7,412,841
Central India Agency		78,772	9,180,408
Central Provinces States	..	31,188	2,068,482
Assam States			393,672
Hyderabad State	..	82,698	12,453,627
Kashmir State		80,900	3,322,080
Madras States		9,969	5,460,089
Cochin State			979,019
Travancore State	...		4,005,849
Myore State		29,444	5,976,660
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal areas).			2,828,055
Punjab States		86,532	4,415,401
Maljutana Agency		127,541	9,357,012
Sikkim			81,722
United Provinces States		5,079	1,134,634
Total, Native States	..	675,267	71,936,726
Grand Total, India..	..	1,772,168	319,075,622

The Bombay Presidency.

The Bombay Presidency stretches along the west coast of India, from Sind in the North to Kanara in the South. It embraces, with its territories and Aden, an area of 187,074 square miles and a population of 26,767,048. Of this total 69,453 square miles are in Native States, with a population of 7,412,841. Geographically included in the Presidency but under the Government of India is the first class Native State of Baroda, with an area of 8,182 square miles and a population of 2,032,798.

The Presidency embraces a wide diversity of soil, climate and people. In the Presidency Proper are the rich plains of Gujarat, watered by the Nerbudda and the Tapi, whose fertility is so marked that it has long been known as the Garden of India. South of Bombay City the province is divided into two sections by the Western Ghats, a range of hills running parallel to the coast. Above Ghats are the Deccan Districts, south of these come the Karnatic Districts. On the sea side of the Ghats is the Konkan, a rice growing tract, intercepted by creeks which make communication difficult. Then in the far north is Sind, totally different from the Presidency Proper, a land of wide and monotonous desert except where irrigation from the Indus has brought abounding fertility.

The People

The population varies as markedly as soil and climate. In Sind Mahomedans predominate. Gujarat has remained true to Hinduism although long under the dominion of powerful Mahomedan kings. Here there is an amplitude of caste divisions, and a people, who although softened by prosperity, are amongst the keenest trading races in the world. The Deccan peasant has been seasoned by adversity, the saying goes that the Deccan expects a famine one year in every three, and gets it, the population is much more homogeneous than in Gujarat, and thirty per cent are Maharrattas. The Karnatic is the land of the Lingayets, a Hindu reforming sect of the twelfth century, and in the Konkan there is a large proportion of Christians. Four main languages are spoken, Sindhi, Gujarati, Marathi and Kanarese, with Urdu a rough *lingua franca* where English has not penetrated. The main castes and tribes number five hundred.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports sixty-four per cent of the population. In Sind the soils are wholly alluvial, and under the influence of irrigation produce yearly increasing crops of wheat and cotton. In Gujarat they are of two classes, the black cotton soil, which yields the famous Brooch cottons, the finest in India, and alluvial, which under careful cultivation in Ahmedabad and Kaira makes splendid garden land. The dominant soil characteristic of the Deccan is black soil, which produces cotton, wheat, gram and millet, and in certain tracts rich crops of sugarcane. The Konkan is a rice land, grown under the abundant rains of the submontane regions, and in the south the Dharwar cotton vine which Brooch is the best in India. There are no great perennial rivers suitable for irri-

gation, and the harvest is largely dependent upon the seasonal rainfall, supplemented by well-irrigation. A chain of irrigation works, consisting of canals fed from great reservoirs in the region of unfalling rainfall in the Ghats, is gradually being completed, and this will ultimately make the Deccan immune to serious drought. More than any other part of India the Presidency has been scourged by famine and plague during the past twenty years. The evils have not been unmixed, for tribulation has made the people more self-reliant, and the rise in the values of all produce, synchronising with a certain development of industry, has induced a considerable rise in the standard of living. The land is held on what is known as the ryotwari tenure, that is to say, each cultivator holds his land direct from Government under a moderate assessment, and as long as he pays this assessment he cannot be dispossessed.

Manufactures.

Whilst agriculture is the principal industry, others have no inconsiderable place. The mineral wealth of the Presidency is small, and is confined to building stone, salt extracted from the sea, and a little manganese. But the handicrafts are widely distributed. The handloom weavers produce bright-coloured saris, and to a diminishing extent the exquisite kincobs of Ahmedabad and Surat. Bombay silver ware has a place of its own, as well as the brass work of Poona and Nasik. But the tendency is to submerge the indigenous handicrafts beneath industry organised on modern lines. Bombay is the great centre in India of the textile trade. This is chiefly found in the headquarter city, Bombay.

Number of Looms in Bombay Island	88,946
Number of Spindles in Bombay Island	3,340,082
Number of hands employed in the Textile Industry in Bombay Island	148,771
Consumption of Cotton by the Mills in Bombay Island (balce)	1,059,630
Candles of 784 lbs each	
Number of Spindles in Ahmedabad.	1,845,741
Number of Looms in Ahmedabad	28,889
Number of Spindles in Sholapore	257,086
Number of Looms in Sholapore	4,887
Number of Spindles in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	2,144,816
Number of Looms in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	43,996

Great impetus has been given to Bombay industries by the provision of electric power generated fifty miles away on the Ghats, and the year 1919 witnessed a phenomenal flotation of new industrial companies of almost every description.

The situation of Bombay on the western sea-board in touch at once with the principal markets of India and the markets of the West has given Bombay an immense sea-borne trade. The older ports, Surat, Brooch, Cambay and Mandvi, were famous in the ancient days, and their bold and hardy mariners carried Indian commerce to the Persian Gulf and the coasts of Africa. But the opening

of the Suez Canal and the increasing size of ocean steamers have tended to concentrate it in modern ports with deep water anchorages, and the sea-borne trade of the Presidency is now concentrated at Bombay and Karachi, although attempts are being made to develop Mormugao, in Portuguese territory, into an outlet for the trade of the Southern Mahratta Country.

Administration

The Presidency is administered by a Governor and an Executive Council of four members, with the assistance of three Ministers. The exact change made in the functions of the Provincial Governments is indicated in the section on the Provincial Governments (q v) where a description is given of the division of the administration into two branches, the Reserved Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Council and the Transferred Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Ministers, the whole Government commonly meeting and acting as one. In another part of that section the division between Reserved and Transferred subjects is shown. This new form of administration under the Reform Act of 1919 came into operation in January 1921. All papers relating to public service business reach Government through the Secretariat, divided into seven main departments each under a Secretary (a) Finance, (b) Revenue, (c) Home, (d) Political, (e) General, Educational, Marine and Ecclesiastical, (f) Legal, (g) Public Works. The senior of the Civilian Secretaries is entitled the Chief Secretary. The Government frequently moves. It is in Bombay from November to the end of March, at Mahabaleswar from April to June, in Poona from June to November, but the Secretariat is always in Bombay. Under the Governor-in-Council the Presidency is administered by four Commissioners. The Commissioner in Sind has considerable independent powers. In the Presidency Proper there are Commissioners for the Northern Division, with headquarters at Ahmedabad, the Central Division at Poona, and the Southern Division at Belgaum. Each district is under a Collector, usually a Covenanted Civilian, who has under him one or more Civilian or Assistant Collectors, and one or more Deputy Collectors. A collectorate contains on an average from eight to ten talukas, each consisting of from one to two hundred villages whose whole revenues belong to the State. The village officers are the patel, who is the head of the village both for revenue and police purposes, the talati or kulkarni, clerk and accountant, the messenger and the watchman. Over each Taluka or group of villages is the mamlatdar, who is also a subordinate magistrate. The charge of the Assistant or Deputy Collector contains three or four talukas. The Collector and Magistrate is over the whole District. The Commissioners exercise general control over the Districts in their Divisions. The control of the Government over the Native States of the Presidency is exercised through Political Agents.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court sitting at Bombay, and

comprising a Chief Justice, who is a barrister, and seven puisne judges, either Civilian, Barristers, or Indian lawyers. In Sind the Court of the Judicial Commissioner (The Judicial Commissioner and three Additional Judges) is the highest court of civil and criminal appeal. Of the lower civil courts the court of the first instance is that of the Subordinate Judge recruited from the ranks of the local lawyers. The Court of first appeal is that of the District or Assistant Judge, or of a first class subordinate judge with special powers. District and Assistant Judges are Indian Civilian, or members of the Provincial Service. In cases exceeding Rs. 5,000 in value an appeal from the decision of the Subordinate or Assistant Judge and from the decision of the District Judge in all original suits lies to the High Court. District and Assistant Judges exercise criminal jurisdiction throughout the Presidency, but original criminal work is chiefly disposed of by the Executive District Officers. Capital sentences are subject to confirmation by the High Court. In some of the principal cities Special Magistrates exercise summary jurisdiction (Bombay has four Presidency Magistrates, as well as Honorary Magistrates exercising the functions of English Justices of the Peace) and a Court of Small Causes, corresponding to the English Country Courts.

Local Government

Local control over certain branches of the administration is secured by the constitution of local boards and municipalities, the former exercising authority over a District or a Taluka, and the latter over a city or town. These bodies are composed of members either nominated by Government or elected by the people, who are empowered to expend the funds at their disposal on education, sanitation, the construction of roads and tanks, and general improvements. Their funds are derived from cesses on the land revenue, the toll and ferry funds. The tendency of recent years has been to increase the elective and reduce the nominated element, to allow these bodies to elect their own chairmen, whilst large grants have been made from the general revenues for water supply and drainage.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the control of two Chief Engineers who act as Secretaries to the Government, one for General Works and the other for Irrigation. Under them are Superintending Engineers in charge of divisions and Executive Engineers in charge of districts, with the Consulting Architect. The chief irrigation works are in Sind and consist of a chain of canals fed by the annual inundations from the Indus and one perennial canal the Jamnao. In the Presidency proper the principal protective works are the Nera Canal, Gokak Canal, Mutha Canal and the Godavari Canal Scheme. In addition there is under construction a chain of protective irrigation works, originating in reservoirs in the Ghat regions. The Godavari canals were completed during the year 1917-18, the Pravara canals are approaching completion, and the works in connection with the West Right Bank Canal are making good progress.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into three categories District Police, Railway Police and the Bombay City Police. The District Police are under the Inspector-General who is either a member of the Gazetted Force or a Commissioned Officer. Under him are the Deputy Inspector-Generals for Sind and the Northern and Southern Ranges of the Presidency proper, for Railways and for Criminal Investigation District Superintendents of Police have charge of each District with a regular cadre comprising Assistant Superintendents, Sub-Inspectors, Chief Constables and Constables. The Bombay City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government.

Education.

Education is imparted partly through direct Government agency, partly through the medium of grants-in-aid Government maintain Arts Colleges at Bombay, Poona, Gujarat and Dharwar, the Grant Medical College, the Poona College of Engineering, the Agricultural College, Veterinary College, School of Art, Law School and a College of Commerce. The Royal Institute of Science is now open in Bombay. Most of the secondary schools are in private hands, the majority of the primary schools are maintained by District and Local Boards with a grant-in-aid. The Bombay Municipality is responsible for primary education in Bombay City (q v Education).

The Compulsory Education Act passed in 1922 enables local bodies to enforce compulsory primary education, the cost of the scheme being defrayed partly by Government and partly by the local authority.

The Educational Department is administered by a Director, with an Inspector in each Division and a Deputy Inspector with Assistants in each district. Higher education is controlled by the Bombay University (established in 1857) consisting of the Chancellor (the Governor of the Presidency), the Vice-Chancellor appointed by Government for two years, and 100 Fellows of whom 10 are ex-officio, 10 elected by the Graduates, 10 by the Faculties, and 80 are nominated by the Chancellor.

The principal educational institutions are—
Government Arts Colleges—

- Elphinstone College, Bombay, Principal, Mr A L Covertton
- Deccan College, Poona, Principal, Mr H G Rawlinson, M.A.
- Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, Principal, Mr H. Hamill
- Karnatak College, Dharwar, Principal Mr H G Rawlinson

Private Arts Colleges—

- St. Xavier's, Bombay (Society of Jesus) Principal, Rev. Father Durr
- Wilson College, Bombay (Scottish Mission), Principal, Rev J Mackenzie
- Turpune College, Poona (Deccan Educational Society), Principal, K. B. Kanitkar.

Baroda College, Baroda (Baroda State), Principal, Mr A. B. Clarke.

Samaldas College, Bhavnagar (Bhavnagar State), Principal, Mr T K Shabani.

Bahauddinbhai College, Junagadh State, Principal, Mr S H. Hodivala

Special Colleges—

Grant Medical College, Bombay (Government), Dean, Major B. Higham.

College of Engineering, Poona (Government) Principal, Mr W L C Trench.

Agricultural College, Poona (Government), Principal, Dr William Burns

Chiefs' College, Rajkot, Principal, Mr. C. Mayne.

College of Science, Ahmedabad.

Law School, Bombay, Principal, Mr B. J. Wadia

College of Commerce, Bombay, Principal, Mr M. L. Tannan

Veterinary College, Bombay, Mr K Hewlett.

Bombay Bacteriological Laboratory, Director, Lt.-Col. F P Mackie, O.B.E., I.M.S.

Sir J J School of Art, Bombay (Government), Principal, Mr W E G Solomon

Victoria Technical Institute, Bombay, Principal, Mr A J Turner

Medical

The Medical Department is in the charge of the Surgeon General and Sanitation is that of the Director of Public Health, both members of the Indian Medical Service. Civil Surgeons stationed at each district headquarters are responsible for the medical work of the district; whilst sanitation is entrusted to one of the Assistant Directors of Public Health. Three large hospitals are maintained by the Government in Bombay, and well-equipped hospitals exist in all important up-country stations. Over three million persons including 78,000 in-patients are treated annually. The Presidency contains 6 Lunatic Asylums and 16 institutions for the treatment of Lepers. Vaccination is carried out by a staff under the direction of the Director of Public Health. Sanitary work has received an immense stimulus from the large grants made by the Government of India out of the opium surpluses.

Finance.

Under the Reform Scheme of 1919 Provincial Finance entered on a new phase. Before the passing of this Act Provincial finance was incorporated in Imperial Finance. The Provinces had certain heads of revenue of their own and other heads which they divided with the Government of India. By the new constitution a comparatively clean cut was made between the finances of the Government of India and those of the Provinces. Such revenues as they enjoy the Provinces enjoy in full, and in return they make cash contributions to the Government of India, fixed for a term of years. The general principle underlying this settlement is that those contributions shall gradually disappear. The present contribution of the Government of Bombay is Rs 56 lakhs.

The Bombay Presidency.

Estimated Revenue for 1924-25

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE.		Rs.
II	Taxes on Income	3,40,000
V	Land Revenue	5,75,75,000
VI	Excise	4,39,90,000
VII	Stamps	1,68,60,000
VIII	Forests	81,08,000
IX	Registration	18,25,000
IXA	Scheduled Taxes	10,48,000
		<hr/>
<i>Irrigation, Navigation Embankment, &c</i>		Total 12,92,89,000
XIII	Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	49,20,000
XIV	Work for which no Capital Accounts are kept	90,000
		<hr/>
<i>Debt Service</i>		Total 50,10,000
XVI	Interest	1,34,41,000
		<hr/>
<i>Civil Administration</i>		
XVII	Administration of Justice	18,00,000
XVIII	Jails and Convict Settlements	4,71,000
XIX	Police	4,46,000
XX	Ports and Pilotage	
XXI	Education	9,88,000
XXII	Medical	6,15,000
XXIII	Public Health	3,24,000
XXIV	Agriculture	3,24,000
XXV	Industries	72,000
XXVI	Miscellaneous Departments	1,66,000
		<hr/>
		Total 52,06,000
		<hr/>
<i>Civil Works</i>		
XXX	Civil Works	14,00,000
		<hr/>
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
XXXIII	Receipts in aid of Superannuation	14,35,000
XXXIV	Stationery and Printing	2,75,000
XXXV	Miscellaneous	3,60,000
		<hr/>
		Total 20,70,000
		<hr/>
XL	Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	2,07,000
		<hr/>
		Total Revenue 15,65,73,000
		<hr/>
<i>Capital Account not charged to Revenue</i>		
XLII	Bombay Development Scheme	63,80,000
	Debts, Deposits and Advances	12,25,28,000
	Opening Balance	4,75,78,000
		<hr/>
		Grand Total 33,30,18,000
		<hr/>
Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25		
DIRECT DEMANDS OF THE REVENUE		
1.	Taxes on Income	..
2.	Land Revenue	65,77,000
3.	Excise	30,90,000
4.	Stamps	4,85,000
5.	Forests	48,25,000
6.	Registration	7,25,000
IXA	Scheduled Taxes	24,000
		<hr/>
		Total 1,57,89,000
		<hr/>

The Bombay Presidency.

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Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25—contd

<i>Irrigation, Embankment, &c, Revenue Account</i>		Rs
14	Interest on works for which Capital Accounts are kept	63,12,000
15	Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	80,76,000
Total		93,88,000
16	Construction of Irrigation, Embankment, &c, Works	30,00,000
<i>Debt Service</i>		
19	Interest on Ordinary Debt	2,03,49,000
21	Sinking Funds	17,07,000
Total		2,20,56,000
<i>Civil Administration</i>		
22	General Administration	2,29,16,000
24	Administration of Justice	78,25,000
25	Jails and Convict Settlements	27,96,000
26	Police	1,82,61,000
27	Ports and Pilotage	21,000
30	Scientific Departments	67,000
31	Education	1,88,73,000
32	Medical	47,24,000
33	Public Health	24,51,000
34	Agriculture	26,45,000
35	Industries	1,37,000
37	Miscellaneous Departments	5,41,000
Total		8,07,58,000
<i>Currency, Mint and Exchange</i>		
40	Exchange	
<i>Civil Works</i>		
41	Civil Works	1,02,07,000
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
43	Famine Relief and Insurance	53,60,000
45	Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	53,06,000
46	Stationery and Printing	17,72,000
47	Miscellaneous	44,67,000
Total		1,69,04,000
51	Contribution and Assignments to Central Government by Provincial Government	56,00,000
52	Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	
Total		56,00,000
Total Expenditure		16,36,03,000
<i>Capital Account not charged to Revenue</i>		
55	Construction of Irrigation Works	3,88,68,000
59	Bombay Development Scheme	2,77,99,000
	Other Expenditure not charged to Revenue	1,01,12,000
	Debts, Deposits and Advances	4,55,58,000
	Closing Balances	4,70,52,000
Grand Total ..		38,80,13,000

Governor and President in Council.

His Excellency Lt.-Colonel The Right Hon'ble
Sir Leslie Oime Wilson, F.C., G.C.I.E.,
C.M.G., D.S.O.

Personal Staff

Private Secy—C. G. Adam, C.S.I., I.C.S.

Milly Secretary—Major H. G. Vaux, C.I.E.,
M.V.O.

Surgern—Lt.-Col. G. J. Grafton-Young, I.M.S.
(on leave) Major A. G. Tressider, M.D., I.M.S.
(Offg.)

Aides-de-Camp—Capt. G. S. Rawstorne, 2nd
Bn., Seaforth Highlanders, Captain C. B.
Lyon Reserve of Officers, Captain K. E.
Freville Royal Marine, Captain E. R. Sword,
4th Queen's Own Hussars.

Honorary Aides-de-Camp—Major D. W. Wilson,
C.I.M.V.D. Bombay Light Horse, A.F.I.,
Meherban Abdul Majid Khan Diler Jang
Bahadur, Nawab of Savanur, Hon. Lt.
Kumar Shri Narayn Singh of Baria.

Commandant H. E. the Governor's Bodyguard—
Major H. de N. Lucas, 7th Light Cavalry.

Indian Aides-de-Camp—Captain Balkrishna Rao,
Sardar Bahadur, 3/5th Mahratta Light
Infantry.

Members of Council and Ministers

The Hon. Sir M. H. W. Hayward, Kt. I.C.S.,
The Hon. Mr. H. S. Lawrence, C.S.I., I.C.S.,
The Hon. Mr. C. V. Mehta, and The Hon.
Mr. Cowasji Jehangir (Jr.) C.I.E., O.B.E.
The Hon. Khan Bahadur Shaikh Ghulam
Husain Hidayatullah, The Hon. Mr. A. M. K.
Deshlavi and the Hon. Mr. B. V. Jadhav, M.A.,
L.L.B.

The Educational portfolio includes, among
other subjects, Medical Administration, Public
Health, Sanitation and Industrial De-
velopment. The Minister of Local Self Govern-
ment also deals with Public Works (roads
and buildings) and the Civil Veterinary De-
partment, while Agriculture, Co-operative
Societies, Registration and some other matters
are in charge of the Minister of Forests and
Excise.

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT

Chief Secretary, Revenue Department—G. E.
Chatfield, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Home Department—Alexander Montgomerie,
C.I.E., I.C.S. (on deputation)

Secretary, Political Department—J. E. B. Hoteon
C.S.I., I.C.S.

**Secretary General, Educational, Marine and Eccle-
siastical Departments**—G. A. Thomas, B.A.,
I.C.S.

Chief Secretary, Finance Department—Gilbert
Wilson, B.A., I.C.S.

**Legal Department and Remembrancer of Legal
Affairs**—Stephen James Murphy, I.C.S.

Public Works Department—E. T. Harrison
(on leave), Kalkhoru Sorajji Framji, B.A.
I.C.S., F.C.S., M.I.C.S. (Offg.)

Public Works Department, Joint Secretary—
Vincen) Major Griffiths

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Advocate-General, Jamsheji Behramji Kanga
M.A., L.L.B.

Inspector-General of Police, F. O. Griffith,
C.S.I.

Director of Public Instruction, F. B. P. Lory,
M.A.

Surgeon General, The Hon. Major-General W.
E. Jennings M.D. I.M.S. (on leave), Lt. Col.
A. Hooton C.I.E., I.M.S. (Offg.)

Oriental Translator, Shaikh Yakub Vaxir Mu-
hammad, M.B.E.

Chief Conservator of Forests, W. E. Copleston,
C.S.I.

Talukdars Settlement Officer, J. H. Garrett

**Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land
Records**, F. G. H. Anderson

Director of Agriculture, Dr. Harold H. Mann,
D.Sc.

Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Otto
Boothfield, B.A., I.C.S. (on leave), J. A. Madan,
B.A., I.C.S. (Ag.)

Municipal Commissioner, Bombay, H. B. Clayton,
C.I.E., I.C.S.

Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University, Sir Chiman-
lal H. Betalvad

Registrar, Bombay University, Fardunji Dastur

Commissioner of Police, Bombay, P. A. Kelly

Director of Public Health, Lieut. Col. William
O'Sullivan Murphy, M.B., I.M.S.

Accountant-General, John Stuart Milne

Inspector General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. F. O. N.
Mell, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Postmaster General, P. G. Rogers, C.I.E., I.C.S.

**Commissioner of Customs Salt, Opium and
Excise**, Jyotananath Ghosal, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Collector of Customs, Bombay, A. M. Green,
M.A., I.C.S.

Consulting Architect to Government, Samuel
Woods Hill, A.R.C., B.A.

Consulting Surveyor to Government, Arthur
Edward Mirams, F.S.I., F.S.A., F.R.G.S.I. (on
leave), T. H. G. Stamper F.S.I. M.O. (Ag.)

Registrar of Companies, Capt. H. C. B.
Mitchell

Director of Development, Sir Lawless Hepper,
Kt., M.B.

Director, Labour Office, G. Findlay Shirras,
M.A.

Director, Bureau of Information, G. F. Jennings.

Sheriff, Sir Henry Macnaghten Kt.,
GOVERNORS OF BOMBAY

Sir Abraham Shipman 1662

Died on the island of Anjediva in Oct. 1664

Humfrey Cooke 1665

Sir Gervase Lucas 1666

Died, 21st May, 1667

Captain Henry Garey (Officiating) 1667

Sir George Oxenden 1668

Died in Surat, 14th July, 1669

The Bombay Presidency.

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Gerald Aungler	1669	John Romer (<i>Officiating</i>)	1831
Died in Surat, 30th June, 1677.		The Earl of Clare	1831
Thomas Roit	1677	Sir Robert Grant, G.C.H.	1833
Sir John Child, Bart.	1681	Died, 9th July, 1838	
Bartolomew Harris	1690	James Farish (<i>Officiating</i>)	1839
Died in Surat, 10th May, 1694		Sir J. Rivett-Carnac, Bart.	1839
Daniel Annesley (<i>Officiating</i>)	1694	Sir William Hay Macnaghten, Bart. (b)	
Sir John Gayer	1694	George William Anderson (<i>Officiating</i>)	1841
Sir Nicholas Wate	1704	Sir George Arthur, Bart., K.C.H.	1843
William Alsable	1706	Lestock Robert Reid (<i>Officiating</i>)	1846
Stephen Strutt (<i>Officiating</i>)	1715	George Russell Clerk	1847
Charles Boone	1715	Viscount Falkland	1848
William Phipps	1722	Lord Elphinstone G.C.H., P.C.	1848
Robert Cowan	1729	Sir George Russell Clerk, K.C.B. (2nd time)	1860
Dismissed		Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frere K.C.B.	1863
John Horne	1784	The Right Hon. William Robert Seymour	1867
Stephen Law	1789	Vesey Fitzgerald	
John Geekie (<i>Officiating</i>)	1742	Sir Philip Edmond Wodehouse, K.C.B.	1872
William Wake	1742	Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I.	1877
Richard Bouchier	1750	Lionel Robert Ashburner, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1880
Charles Crommelin	1760	The Right Hon. Sir James Fergusson,	1880
Thomas Hodges	1767	Bart., K.C.M.G.	
Died, 23rd February, 1771		James Brathwaite Pelle, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1885
William Hornby	1771	Baron Reay	1885
Rawson Hart Boddam	1784	Baron Harris	1890
Rawson Hart Boddam	1785	Herbert Mills Birdwood, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1890
Andrew Ramsay (<i>Officiating</i>)	1788	Baron Sandhurst	1890
Major-General William Medows	1788	Baron Northcote, C.B.	1900
Major-General Sir Robert Abercromby,	1790	Sir James Monteleath, K.C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1903
K.C.B. (a)		Baron Lamington, G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E.	1903
George Dick (<i>Officiating</i>)	1792	J. W. P. Muir-Mackenzie, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1907
John Griffith (<i>Officiating</i>)	1795	Sir George Sydenham Clarke, G.C.M.G.,	1907
Jonathan Duncan	1795	G.C.I.E. (c)	
Died, 11th August, 1811		Baron Willington, G.C.I.E.	1913
George Brown (<i>Officiating</i>)	1811	Sir George Ambrose Lloyd G.C.I.E. D.S.O.	1918
Sir Evan Nepean, Bart.	1812	Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.E.,	1923
The Hon. Mount Stuart Elphinstone	1819	G.C.M.G., D.S.O.	
Major General Sir John Malcolm, G.C.B.	1827	(a) Proceeded to Madras on duty in Aug. 1793,	
Lieut. General Sir Thomas Sidney Beck	1830	and then joined the Council of the Governor General as Commander-in-Chief in India on the 28th Oct., 1793	
with, K.C.B.		(b) Was appointed Governor of Bombay by the Honourable the Court of Directors on the 4th Aug. 1841, but, before he could take charge of his appointment, he was assassinated in Cabul on the 23rd Dec. 1841.	
Died, 15th January 1831		(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Sydenham	

BOMBAY LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.**ELECTED MEMBERS**

Name and class of Constituency	Name of Member.
Bombay City (Non-Muhammadan North) Urban Constituency	Mr Joseph Baptista Mr Poonjabhai Thackersey. Mr A N Surve
Bombay City (Non Muhammadan South) Urban Constituency	Mr K F Nariman Mr M B Velkar Dr K E Dadachanji
Karachi City (Non Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Mr Durgadas Bhojraj Advani
Ahmedabad City (Non Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Mr Gajanan Krishnarao Mavani
Surat City (Non Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Mr Maganlal Motiram Mehta
Bhopal City (Non Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Mr Nagappa Aralappa Abdulpurkar
Poona City (Non Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Mr Laxman Balwant Bhopatkar, M.A., LL.B
Ahmedabad District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Jethalal Chimanlal Swaminarayan. Mr Harilal Dalsukhran Saheba
Deccan District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Harilal Harjivandas Narielwalla
Kaira District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Rao Saheb Dadubhai Puroshotamdas Desai Mr Dhanabhai Narainbhai Patel
Panch Mahals District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Wamanrao Sitaram Mukadam
Surat District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Hasamal B Shivdasani Dr M K Dixit
Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Govind Balwant Pradhan Mr Shankarrao Jayaramrao (already notified reserved seat)
Ahmednagar District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Chintaman Mohaniraj Sapturishi Mr Namdeo Eknath Navale (Reserved seat)
East Khandesh District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Luxman Shivram Chaudari Dongarsing Ramji Patil Mr Puroshotam Gopal Joshi
Waluk District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr R G Pradhan Mr Ranchandra Dharmaji Shinde, F.A., LL.B (Reserved seat)
Poona District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr Narayan Ramji Gunjal Mr Gangajirao Mukundrao Kalbhor
Agara District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr R G. Sonani Mr B V Jadhav (Minister) K B D B Cooper
Wagaur District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr B K Dalvi Mr S N Augadi

Name and class of Constituency	Name of Member
Bijapur District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. S. A. Sardesai of Rakhsagi.
Dharwar District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Vishwanath Narayan Jog. Mr. Shiddappa Tatappa Kamblī.
Kanara District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Manjunath Devarbhatt Karkī
Ratnagiri District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Bhaskar Ramchandra Nandī, B.A., LL.B. Mr. Venkatrao Anandrao Survey (Reserved seat)
Eastern Sind (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mukhl Jethanand Pritamdas
Western Sind (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Bhojising Gurdinomal Pahalajani
Sholapur District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Valchand Ramchand Kothari
Kolaba District (Non Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Madhavrao Baburao Powar
Western Khandesh District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Shankar Shrikrishna Deo
Bombay City (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Mr. Huseinbhooy A. Lalji Mr. Huseinbhooy M. Rahimtoola
Karachi City (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Haji Abdullah Haroon.
Ahmedabad and Surat Cities (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Khan Saheb A. M. Mansuri
Poona and Sholapur Cities (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency	Mr. Abdul Latif Haji Hajrat Khan of Sholapur
The Northern Division (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Aliabhai Faabhai Patil Mr. Ali Mahomedkhan Dehlavi (Minister) Sardar Narharsinghji Jawarshinghji
The Central Division (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Maulvi Rafiuddin Ahmed Mr. Ghyasuddin Ziauddin Khatib Haji Inayatulla
The Southern Division (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Mr. Abdulkadar alias Fakirmahomed Ibrahim Khan Pathan of Dharwar Khan Bahadur Ismailsaheb Madarsaheb Bedrekar of Bijapur Mr. Sayad Sahajadasaheb Haidarsaheb Inamdar of Belgaum
Hyderabad District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	The Hon. K. B. Ghulam Husain Hidayatallah (Minister) Mr. Noor Mahomed Mahomed Sijawal
Karachi District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	Haji Fazul Muhammad Haji Khameso (U) Mahomed
Larkana District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency	K. B. Shah Nawazkhan Ghulam Murtaza Bhutto h. S. Karimbekah Ali Mardankhan Jatol Mr. Mahomed Ayub Shah Mahomed Khulro
Jukkur District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Rasulbux Shah. K. B. Jan Mahomed Khan Walid Khan Bahadur Shah Pasand Khan Pathan

Name and class of Constituency	Name of Member
Thar and Parker (Muhammadian) Rural Constituency	Mr Ghulam Nabi Shah Moujali Shah Syed Mr Jan Mahomed Wall Mahomed Bhurgri
Nawabshah District (Muhammadian) Rural Constituency	Khan Saheb Haji Seral Imambekah Ghulam Rasul Jatol
Upper Sind Frontier District (Muhammadian) Rural Constituency	Khan Saheb Sher Mahomed Khan Karainkhan Bijarani
Bombay City (European) Constituency	Mr Joe Addyman
Presidency (European) Constituency	Mr Albert Clifford Owen
Deccan Sardars and Inamdars Constituency	Sardar Gangadharrao Narayanrao Mujumdar
Gujarat Sardars and Inamdars Constituency	Sardar Bhasaheb alias Dulabawa Raisingji
Jagirdars and Zamindars Constituency	Mr Muhammad Hamid Shah Kabul Muhammad Shah Sayed
Bombay University Constituency	Mr M R Jayakar
Bombay Chamber of Commerce Constituency	Mr L S Hudson Mr Vincent Alpe Grantham
Karachi Chamber of Commerce Constituency	Mr F Clayton
Bombay Trades Association Constituency	Mr A Greville Bullocke
Bombay Millowners Association Constituency	Mr C N Wadia CIE
Ahmedabad Millowners Association Constituency	Mr Gordhandas J Patel
Indian Merchants Chamber and Bureau	Mr Lalji Narani

NOMINATED

Officials

Mr F G Pratt, ICS
 „ V M Griffiths
 „ A Montgomerie CIP, ICS
 „ S I Murphy ICS
 „ C E Chatfield CIP, ICS
 „ G W Euteh ICS
 „ H L Painter, ICS
 „ G Wiles ICS
 „ J R Martin, OLR ICS
 „ G A Thomas ICS
 „ R F Gibson CIE ICS
 „ J Chowdhury ICS
 „ K S Trivedi
 „ G Poddav Shiras
 „ J A. Madan ICS

Non Officials

Mr J B Kanga
 „ Vasantlal Anandrao Dabholkar, O B E
 „ F F Wicks
 „ J A Kay
 „ James Padmakar Bunter, LL B
 „ Sitaram Keshav Bole
 „ R S Nekkaj
 Dr Cosmas Fernandez M D
 Rao Bahadur A W Malhi.

The Madras Presidency.

The Madras Presidency occupies the whole southern portion of the Peninsula and, excluding the Native States most of which have now come under the direct control of the Government of India, has an area of 141,075 square miles. It has on the east on the Bay of Bengal, a coastline of about 1,200 miles; on the west, on the India Ocean, a coast line of about 450 miles. In all this extent of the coast, however, there is not a single natural harbour of any importance, the ports, with the exception of Madras, and perhaps of Cochin, are merely open roadsteads. A plateau, varying in height above sea-level from about 100 to about 800 feet and stretching northwards from the Nilgiri Hills, occupies the central area of the Presidency on either side are the Eastern and the Western Ghats, which meet in the Nilgiris. The height of the western mountain-chain has an important effect on the rainfall. Where the chain is high the intercepted rain-clouds give a heavy fall, which may amount to 150 inches on the seaward side but comparatively little rain falls on the landward side of the range. Where the chain is low, rain clouds are not checked in their westward course. In the central table land and on the east coast the rainfall is small and the heat in summer excessive. The rivers which flow from west to east, in their earlier course drain rather than irrigate the country but the deltas of the Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery are productive of fair crops even in time of drought and are the only portions of the east coast where agriculture is not dependent on a rainfall rarely exceeding 40 inches and apt to be untimely.

Population.

The population of the Presidency was returned at the census of 1901 as 42,794,165, an increase over the figure of 1911 of 2.2 per cent. The tendency has been for the more densely populated portions of the province to increase their numbers while the sparsely inhabited tracts have still further declined in density. Hindus account for 89 per cent of the population, Mahomedans for 7, Christians for 8, Animists for 1. The vast majority of the population is of the Dravidian race and the principal Dravidian languages, Tamil and Telugu are spoken by 18 and 16 million persons respectively. Of every thousand people, 410 speak Tamil, 377 speak Telugu, 75 Malayalam, 37 Oriya, 35 Canarese and 23 Hindustani.

Government

The Madras Presidency is governed on the system generally similar to that obtaining in Bombay and Bengal. There are associated with the Governor four members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and three Ministers in charge of the Transferred Subjects. Madras administration differs, however, in some important respects from that of other major provinces. There is no intermediate local authority between the Collector of the District and the authorities at head quarters, Commissioners of Divisions being unknown in Madras.

Finance.

Like other provincial administrations, the development of the Madras Presidency has been largely impeded in recent years by financial difficulties. After five successive years of deficits, the Madras Government succeeded last March in presenting a balanced budget. This achievement was only possible as a result of drastic economies recommended by a special committee and the holding up of many urgent schemes of development. Madras labours under an acute grievance with regard to the amount of her contribution to the Central Revenues under the Meston Award and Sir Charles Todhunter, the then Finance Member, was constrained to explain last March that the history of finance in the Province under the Reforms has been 'one of excursions and alarms and one of alternative hope and black despair.' For the year 1924-25, the provincial Government have budgeted for a revenue of Rs. 1,674.77 lakhs and an expenditure of the whole of the revenue and in addition of a sum of 43 lakhs of loan money on capital expenditure. The actual revenue is, however, likely to fall far short of the estimate as a result of the disastrous floods in the Presidency during the monsoon.

The Floods.

It has not been possible as this section of the Year Book goes to press to estimate correctly the extent of the damage wrought by the floods in South India in June 1924. Estimates vary from 75 lakhs to a crore. Fortunately there was no serious loss of life, although hundreds of villages notably in Malabar, Tanjore and Trichinopoly were swept out of existence and thousands rendered homeless. Apart from Government measures, funds for relieving the distress of the villagers rendered homeless were started in various parts of India with a central committee at Madras. Bombay responded in a generous measure to the appeal for help, but the response from the other provinces was not quite encouraging. The floods in June 1924 were preceded by similar disasters in 1923. First of all South Canara suffered from floods which wrecked 12,360 homes covered with earth a large area of paddy land and carried away many bridges. The next disaster was at the other extreme of the Presidency, in Ganjam and Vizagapatnam, where a cyclone on a scale unknown since 1878, broke up the railway in many places, breached tanks in all parts of the districts and did widespread damage to buildings, roads, trees and crops. Government had scarcely begun to take account of this when another disaster was reported from Tinnevely where the river Tamparaparai had overthrown its banks, destroyed 11,665 buildings and damaged about 480 irrigation works. The effects of these successive calamities continue to be felt on the public finances of the Presidency.

Local Government.

While the Madras Government has been straightening out its own finances by economies, they have been setting right those of the local

bodies by giving grants on a scale which has not been previously equalled. The subsidies to local bodies have been raised to a sum of about one and a half crores and Government have been engaged throughout the year in a succession of efforts in restoring these bodies to autonomy.

Industries.

The principal industry of the province is agriculture in which 68 per cent of the population is engaged. The principal food crops are rice, cholam, ragi and kambu. The industrial crops are cotton, sugar cane and ground nuts. A special feature of the agricultural activities in the Presidency is the large industry which the planting community have built up contributing substantially to the economic development of the province. They have organised themselves as a registered body under the title of "The United Planters Association of South India," on which are represented the coffee, tea, rubber and a few other minor planting products. There are some 22 cotton mills in the Presidency which employ 35 000 operatives. Minor industrial concerns number over 120 and consist of oil mills, rope, rubber and tile works. The aggregate value of the sea borne trade of the Presidency has been showing a steady increase and is now in the neighbourhood of Rs 75 crores per annum. As in other provinces the forest resources are exploited by Government. There are close upon 19 000 square miles of reserved forests.

Education.

The Presidency's record in the sphere of education has been one of continuous progress. There are at present about 40,000 public institutions, ranging from village primary schools to arts and professional colleges, their total strength being 2 000 000. Special efforts are being made to provide education for boys belonging to the Depressed Classes. The total expenditure of the province in Education is in the neighbourhood of Rs 340 lakhs. The principal educational institutions in the province are the Presidency College, the Christian College and Pachaiyappa's College, Madras.

the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, the Government College, Kumbakonam, the Government College, Rajamundry, the Maharaja's College, Trivandrum, the Agricultural College, Coimbatore and the Medical and the Engineering Colleges at Madras.

Law and Order.

The Superior Court or Civil and Criminal Judicial work in the Presidency is the High Court at Madras which consists of a Chief Justice and eleven puisne Judges. The existing law provides for a maximum of 20 High Court Judges. For the administration of criminal justice there are 25 Session Judges in the mofussil, Additional and Assistant Sessions Judges being provided to assist Courts in which the work is heavy. Then there are the District Magistrates, the Subordinate Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates. The administration of civil justice is carried on by 24 District Judges, 29 Subordinate Judges and District Munsiffs. In the Presidency Town there are a City Civil Court consisting of one Judge and 8 small Causes Court consisting of a Chief Judge and two other Judges. Madras is a litigious province and the records show one suit for every 85 persons. The Police department is under an Inspector General who has four deputies in four ranges of the Presidency a Superintendent being stationed at each District. The sanctioned strength of the permanent police force is about 30,000.

Nation Building

Since the advent of the Reforms, there has been an increase of one per cent every year in the allotment of funds to the Transferred Departments and a decrease of one per cent every year in the allotment to the Reserved Departments. The comparison by itself may be misleading but there is only one other province namely the Central Provinces, in which a similar transfer has taken place. The steady transference of funds for nation building continues in Madras, the percentages on the Budget estimates for the current official year being 65 and 35 as against 68 and 32 at the commencement of the Reforms.

Estimated Revenue for 1924-25

	Amount of	
	Rs.	Rs.
Principal Heads of Revenue		
V.—Land Revenue		7,62,01,000
VI.—Excise		5,13,63,600
VII.—Stamps		2,40,19,000
VIII.—Forest		54,34,500
IX.—Registration		37,82,000
TOTAL		16,05,55 1 00
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment, etc		
XIII.—Works for which capital accounts are kept	—29,54,400	
XIV.—Works for which no capital accounts are kept	1,88,000	
TOTAL		—28,16,400

Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25.

	Amount of	
	Rs	Rs
<i>Debt Services</i>		
XVI.—Interest		18,38,000
<i>Civil Administration</i>		
XVII.—Administration of Justice	14,68,600	
XVIII.—Jails and Convict Settlements	7,87,500	
XIX.—Police	9,04,000	
XX.—Ports and Pilotage	1,000	
XXI.—Education	6,48,000	
XXII.—Medical	3,17,000	
XXIII.—Public Health	19,700	
XXIV.—Agriculture	1,01,500	
XXV.—Industries	15,54,000	
XXVI.—Miscellaneous Departments	3,66,000	
TOTAL		66,21,700
<i>Civil Works</i>		
XXX.—Civil Works		7,00,000
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
XXXIII.—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	4,99,600	
XXXIV.—Stationery and Printing	2,35,000	
XXXV.—Miscellaneous	4,48,000	
TOTAL		11,82,600
<i>Contributions and Assignments from the Central Government</i>		
XL.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		2,46,000
TOTAL REVENUE.		16,77,32,000
<i>Capital Accounts not charged to Revenue</i>		
Debts, Deposits and Advances		87,47,000
Opening Balance		11,49,000
GRAND TOTAL		17,76,18,000
<i>Direct Demands on the Revenue</i>		
5.—Land Revenue	43,46,800	
6.—Excise	26,21,800	
7.—Stamps	9,08,400	
8.—Forests	49,70,000	
9.—Registration	24,55,900	
TOTAL		1,53,02,900
<i>Irrigation, Embankment, etc., Revenue Account.</i>		
15.—Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	41,20,600	
16.—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment, etc., works.	16,400	
TOTAL		41,36,000

The Madras Presidency

<i>Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25</i>		<i>Amount of</i>	
		<i>Rs</i>	<i>Rs</i>
<i>Debt Services</i>			
19 —Interest on ordinary debt		47,37,000	
20 —Interest on other obligations			
	TOTAL		47,37,000
<i>Civil Administration</i>			
22 —General Administration		2,25,16,800	
24.—Administration of Justice		97,02,200	
25 —Jails and Convict Settlements		32,20,900	
26 —Police		1,98,16,000	
27 —Ports and Pilotage		56,000	
30 —Scientific Departments		94,100	
31.—Education		1,73,65,000	
32 —Medical		62,91,100	
33 —Public Health		12,11,200	
34 —Agriculture		28,59,000	
35 —Industries		26,89,500	
37.—Miscellaneous departments		16,04,500	
	TOTAL		8,74,26,400
<i>Civil Works</i>			
41 —Civil Works			1,03,91,500
<i>Miscellaneous</i>			
43 —Famine Relief and Insurance		6,61,000	
45.—Superannuation allowances and pensions		53,70,700	
46 —Stationery and Printing		22,00,900	
47 —Miscellaneous		11,78,800	
	TOTAL		94,10,900
<i>Contribution and Assignments to the Central Govt by Provincial Governments</i>			
51 —Contributions and Assignments to the Central Government by Provincial Government		3,48,00,000	
52.—Miscellaneous Adjustment between the Central and Provincial Government			
	TOTAL		3,48,00,000
	TOTAL EXPENDITURE		16,62,04,400
<i>Capital Account not charged to Revenue</i>			
62A —Forest Capital outlay		1,76,000	
55 —Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, etc., works		12,16,000	
60.—Civil Works		11,54,000	
60A —Other Provincial Works not charged to Revenue		17 87,000	
• Debts, Deposits and Advances		1,00,50,000	
Closing Balance		13,64,000	
	GRAND TOTAL		17,78,18,000

Governor		Presidents and Governors of Fort St George in Madras	
His Excellency Lt-Col Viscount Goschen, C.B.E.		William Gyford	1684
<i>Personal Staff</i>		Elihu Yale	1687
<i>Private Secy.</i> , E C Smith, I.C.S.		Nathaniel Higginson	1692
<i>Military Secy.</i> , Major T N Watson, M.C.		Thomas Pitt	1698
<i>Surgeon</i> , Major D P Johnstone, R.A.M.C.		Gulston Addison	1709
<i>Aide-de-Camp</i> , Major O V Littleton Symons		Died at Madras, 17 Oct., 1709	
<i>Extra Aide-de-Camp</i> , Captain John Pratt.		Edmund Montague (<i>Acting</i>)	1709
<i>Commandant, H.E. the Governor's Body Guard</i>		William Fraser (<i>Acting</i>)	1709
Major Mansel Halket Jackson, D.S.O., M.C.		Edward Harrison	1710
<i>Indian Aide-de-Camp</i> , Risaldar Yakub Khan		Joseph Collet	1711
<i>Members of Council</i>		Francis Hastings (<i>Acting</i>)	1727
Arthur Rowland Knapp C.S.I., C.B.E., I.O.S. (<i>on leave</i>)		Nathaniel Elwick	1727
C P Ramaswami Ayyar, C.I.E.		James Macrae	1728
R. A. Graham, C.S.I.		George Morton Pitt	1730
N E Marjorbank, C.S.I. C.I.E., I.O.S. (<i>Temp</i>)		Richard Benyon	1735
<i>Ministers</i>		Nicholas Morse	1744
The Raja of Panagal		John Hinde	
Dewan Bahadur Sivagnanam Pillay		Charles Floyer	1747
Rao Bahadur Sir A P Patro		Thomas Saunders	1750
<i>SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT</i>		George Pigot	1755
<i>Chief Secretary</i> , N E Marjorbank, C.S.I., I.O.S.		Robert Falk	1763
<i>Revenue Secretary</i> , L. T. Harris C.S.I., I.O.S. (<i>on leave</i>), E. W. Legh, I.O.S. (<i>Acting</i>)		Charles Brouhfer	1767
<i>Local and Municipal Secretary</i> , P. L. Moore, C.I.E., I.C.S.		Joias DuPre	1770
<i>Public Works Secretary</i> , M. B. Kharegat		Alexander Wynch	1773
<i>MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS</i>		Lord Pigot (<i>Suspended</i>)	1775
<i>Director of Public Instruction</i> , Richard Littlehalce, M.A.		George Stratton	1776
<i>Inspector-General of Police</i> , Frank Armitage		John Whitehill (<i>Acting</i>)	1777
<i>Surgeon-General</i> , Major-General Thomas Henry Simons, I.M.S.		Sir Thomas Rembold, Bart	1778
<i>Director of Public Health</i> , Major A J H. Russell, M.A., M.D., I.M.S.		John Whitehill (<i>Acting</i>)	1780
<i>Accountant-General</i> , A Newmarch		Charles Smith (<i>Acting</i>)	1780
<i>Inspector-General of Prisons</i> , Lt.-Colonel John Phillip Cameron, I.M.S.		Lord Macartney, K.B.	1781
<i>Postmaster-General</i> , B. W. Hanson		<i>Governors of Madras.</i>	
<i>Collector of Customs</i> , C. R. Watkins, C.I.E.		Lord Macartney, K.B.	1785
<i>Commissioner of Salt, Abkari, etc.</i> , A Y G Campbell M.A., C.I.E., C.B.E.		Alexander Davidson (<i>Acting</i>)	1785
<i>Inspector-General of Registration</i> , J Venkata natayana Naidu		Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell, K.B.	1786
<i>Metecologist and Deputy Director, Madras Observatory</i> , S. R. U. Savur		John Holland (<i>Acting</i>)	1789
<i>Acting Director, Kodaikanal Observatory</i> Thomas Boyds		Edward J. Holland (<i>Acting</i>)	1790
<i>Supdt., Govt. Central Museum, and Principal Librarian, Connemara Public Library</i> , E. H. Gravely		Major-General William Medows	1790
<i>Director of Agriculture</i> , E. D. Anstead, M.A.		Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart.	1792
<i>Chief Conservator of Forests</i> , S. Cox, C.I.E.		Lord Hobart	1794
		Major-General George Harris (<i>Acting</i>)	1798
		Lord Clive	1799
		Lord William Cavendish Bentinck	1803
		William Petrie (<i>Acting</i>)	1807
		Sir George Hilary Barlow, Bart., K.B.	1807
		Lieut.-General the Hon John Abercromby	1813
		The Right Hon. Hugh Elliot	1814
		Major-General Sir Thomas Munro, Bart., K.C.B. Died, 6 July, 1827	1820

Henry Sullivan Grimes (<i>Acting</i>) ..	1887	The Right Hon. W P Adam	1880
Stephen Bumbold Lushington	1887	Died at Ootacamund, 24 May, 1881.	
Lieut.-General Sir Frederick Adam, K C.B.	1882	William Hodleston (<i>Acting</i>)	1881
George Edward Russell (<i>Acting</i>)	1887	The Right Hon. M. R. Grant Duff	1881
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.B., F.C.	1887	The Right Hon. Robert Bourke, F.C.	1880
Lieut.-General the Marquess of Tweeddale, K.T., C.B.	1842	Lord Comemars, 12 May, 1887 (by creation)	
Henry Dickinson (<i>Acting</i>)	1848	John Henry Garstin, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1890
Major-General the Right Hon. Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart., G.C.B.	1848	Baron Wenlock	1891
Daniel Eliott (<i>Acting</i>)	1854	Sir Arthur Elibank Havelock, G.C.M.G.	1896
Lord Harris	1854	Baron Ampthill	1900
Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B.	1859	Acting Viceroy and Governor-General, 1904	
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>)	1860	James Thomson, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1904
Sir Henry George Ward, G.C.M.G.	1860	Gabriel Stokes, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1906
Died at Madras, 8 August, 1860		Hon Sir Arthur Lawley, K.C.M.G., G.C.I.E.	1906
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>)	1860	Sir Thomas David Gibson-Carmichael, Bart., K.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. (b)	1911
Sir William Thomas Denison, K.C.B.	1861	Became Governor of Bengal, 1 April	1912
Acting Viceroy, 1863 to 1864		Sir Murray Hammick, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (<i>Acting</i>).	1912
Edward Maithy (<i>Acting</i>)	1903	Right Hon Baron Pentland, F.C., G.C.I.E.	1912
Lord Napier of Merchiston, K.T. (a)	1866	Baron Willingdon	1918
Acting Viceroy		Lord Goschen	1924
Alexander John Arbuthnot, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1872	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick.	
Lord Hobart	1872	(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Carmichael of Skirling	
Died at Madras, 27 April, 1875.			
William Rose Robinson, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1875		
The Duke of Buckingham and Chandos	1875		

MADRAS LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

PRESIDENT

The Hon Diwan Bahadur L. D. Swamikannu Pillai Avargal C.I.E., I.S.O.

I.—MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

Ex-officio

The Hon Sir Arthur Rowland Knapp, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. C.B.E.

The Hon Mr C P. Ramaswami Ayyar, C.I.E.

The Hon Mr R. A. Graham, C.S.I.

The Hon Mr N. E. Marjoribank, C.S.I., C.I.E. I.C.S. (Temp.)

II.—ELECTED MEMBERS.

(a) *Ministers*

The Hon the Raja of Panagal

The Hon Diwan Bahadur T. N. Sivagnanam Pillai Avargal.

The Hon Sir A. P. Patro Kt

(b) *Other Members*

M R Ry Rao Bahadur C. Natesa Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.C.

" " O. Tanikachala Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.

Diwan Bahadur Sir P. Tyagaraya Chetti, Kt., M.L.C.

M R Ry Sami Venkatachalam Chetti Garu M.L.C.

" Rao Sahib K. V. Ramachari Avargal, M.L.C.

" " T. C. Tangavelu Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.

" Diwan Bahadur K. Suryanarayana-murti Nayudu Garu, M.L.C.

" A. V. Bhandoji Rao Garu, M.L.C.

" Chavadi K. Subrahmanya Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.

" Diwan Bahadur P. Kesava Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.

- M R Ry G Rameswara Rao Garu, M.L.O.
 „ T Adinarayana Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ W Vijayaraghava Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Bahadur K Krishnaswami Nayudu Garu, M.L.O.
 „ K Sitarama Reddiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ B Srinivasa Ayyangar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ K Venkatachala Padayachi Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ A Ranganatha Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ P Siva Rao Garu, M.L.O.
 „ A Ramaswami Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ C Muttayya Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ C Ramalinga Reddi Garu, M.L.O.
 „ B Muniswami Nayudu Garu, M.L.O.
 „ C V Venkataramana Ayyangar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Bahadur T A Ramalinga Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ V C Vellingiri Goundar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ K Koti Reddi Garu, M.L.O.
 „ Rai Bahadur T M Narasimhachari Garu, M.L.O.
 Sriman Biswanath Das Mahasaya, M.L.O.
 M R Ry J Kuppuswami Garu, M.L.O.
 „ P Anjaneyulu Pantulu Garu, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Bahadur P C Ethirajulu Nayudu Garu, M.L.O.
 „ B Mahabala Hegde Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Sahib U Rama Rao Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ M Gangaraju Garu, M.L.O.
 „ M Sithayya Garu, M.L.O.
 „ P Peddiraju Garu, M.L.O.
 „ K Sarvarayudu Garu, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Bahadur C Venkataranga Reddi Garu, M.L.O.
 „ Bikkina Venkataratnaman Garu Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ K Sarabha Reddi Garu, M.L.O.
 „ Diwan Bahadur M Krishnan Nayar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ V Madhava Raja Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Bahadur A S Krishna Rao Pantulu Garu, M.L.O.
 „ B Ramachandra Reddi Garu, M.L.O.
 „ P C Muthu Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Bahadur P K A C Virappa Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ C D Appavu Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Sahib S Ellappa Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ C Maruthavanam Pillai Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ V Venkatarama Ayyar alias Pantulu Ayyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ S Muthiah Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 Sir K Venkataradu Nayudu Garu, M.L.O.
 M R Ry P N Marthandam Pillai Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ Diwan Bahadur S Hun M C Pothachi Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ M R Seturathnam Ayyar Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ H B Ari Gowder Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ P C Venkataspati Raju Garu, M.L.O.
 „ Rao Bahadur C V S Narasimharaju Garu, M.L.O.
 „ P T Rajan Avargal, M.L.O.
 „ C Ponnuswami Nayudu Garu, M.L.O.
 „ A Chidambara Nadar Avargal, M.L.O.
 Muhammad Moosa Saib Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Abbas Ali Khan Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Muhammad Yahya Ali Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.

M Abdulla Ghattala Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 V Hamid Sultan Marakkayar Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 Munshi Abdul Wahab Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 Khan Sahib Saiyid Diwan Abdul Rasdaq Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 Khan Bahadur P Khalif la-lah Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 T. M Moide Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 Kottal Uppl Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 Khan Bahadur Haji Abd ul lah Haji Qasim Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 Abdul Hye Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 T N Bava Ravuthar Muhammad Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C
 Mr M Ratnaswami, M.L.C
 Mr J A Saldanha, M.L.C
 Mr S Arpudaswami Udayar, M.L.C
 Rao Bahadur Cruz Fernandez, M.L.C
 Mr J D Samuel, M.L.C
 Mr P W Partridge, M.L.C
 Mr A E Rencontre, M.L.C
 M R Ry S Satyamurti Avargal, M.L.C
 Mr C R T Congreve, M.L.C
 M R Ry V N Suryanarayana Raju Garu, M.L.C
 „ S R Y Ankineedu Prasad Bahadur Garu, M.L.C
 Dr P Subbarayan, M.L.C
 The Raja of Ramnad, M.L.C
 M R Ry K Prabhakaran Tampan Avargal, M.L.C
 Mr C E Wood, M.L.C
 Mr A J Leach, M.L.C
 Mr L C Nicholson, M.L.C
 M R Ry C Gopala Menon Avarga, M.L.C
 „ Rao Bahadur A M Murugappa Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C

III—NOMINATED MEMBERS

(a) Officials

Mr G F Paddison, C.S.I. I.C.S. M.L.C
 Mr W F Legh, C.I.E. I.C.S., M.L.C
 Vacant
 Mr P L Moore, C.I.E., I.C.S., M.L.C
 Mr H Tireman, M.L.C
 Dr John Mathai, M.L.C
 Mr R W Davies I.C.S., M.L.C

(b) Non-officials

Mr J A Davis, M.L.C
 M R Ry Rao Bahadur P Raman Avargal, M.L.C
 „ Rao Sahib P V Gopalan Avargal, M.L.C
 „ L C Guruswami Avargal, M.L.C
 „ G Premayya Garu, M.L.C
 „ P V S Sundaramurti Avargal, M.L.C
 „ R Srinivasan Avargal, M.L.C
 „ R Veerian Avargal, M.L.C
 „ B Obalesappa Garu, M.L.C
 „ P K S A Arumuga Nadar Avargal, M.L.C
 „ P Sagaram Garu, M.L.C
 „ Raghuchandra Bellai Avargal, M.L.C
 „ T Mallesappa Garu, M.L.C
 „ O M Narayanan Nambudiripad Avargal, M.L.C
 „ N Devendrudu Garu, M.L.C
 Hon'ble Lt Madurai, M.L.C
 M R Ry P S Rajappa Tevar Avarga, M.L.C
 „ K S Ponnuswami Pillai Avargal, M.L.C
 (c) Special Members

Mr Bradford Leitch, M.L.C
 „ J I P Roche Victoria, M.L.C

SECRETARY TO THE COUNCIL

M. R. Ry R V Krishna Ayyar Avargal, B.A., M.L.C

The Bengal Presidency.

The Presidency of Bengal, as constituted on the 1st April 1912, comprises the Burdwan and Presidency divisions and the district of Darjeeling, which were formerly administered by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and the Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong divisions which by the partition of the old Province had been placed under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam. The area of the Presidency is 82,277 square miles, and it possesses a population of 47,569,145 persons, included within this area are the two Indian States of Cooch Behar and Tripura, which are under the general supervision of the Governor of Bengal. The area of the British territory is 76,848 square miles. Bengal comprises the lower valleys and deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and in the main consists of a great alluvial plain intersected in its southern portion by innumerable waterways. In the north are the Himalayan mountains and submontane tracts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri, and on the south-east the hills in Tripura and Chittagong, while on the west the Chota Nagpur plateau is continued by an undulating tract running through the western portions of Midnapur, Bankura, Burdwan and Birbhum. The general range of the country however is very low, and a great fertile plain extends southward from Jalpaiguri to the forests and swamps known as the Sunderbans, which lie between the area of cultivation and the Bay of Bengal.

The People

Of the inhabitants of the Presidency 25,496,124 or 53.55 per cent are Mahomedans and 20,899,148 Hindus. These two major religions embrace all, but 2.78 per cent of the population. Christians, Buddhists and Animists combined number 1,278,873.

Bengali is spoken by ninety-two per cent of the population of the Presidency and Hindi and Urdu by 8.8 per cent. The Oriya-speaking people number 298,872 and Nepali is the tongue of 98,060 persons principally residents in the Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts. The great majority of the speakers of the Munda languages are Santals in West and North Bengal.

Industries

According to the returns of the Census of 1921 nearly 37 millions or over 77 per cent of the population derive their support from pasture and agriculture, and of these more than 80½ millions are cultivators, and more than 4½ millions farm servants and field labourers. The area under jute in 1923 is estimated at 2,444,408 acres against 1,550,000 in 1922. Bengal is the most important rice-producing area in Northern India, and it is computed that about 85 per cent of the cultivated area of the Presidency is devoted to its production. Other crops include barley, wheat, pulses and oil seeds, the area devoted to the last named in 1923 being 1,463,700 acres. Sugar is produced both from the sugar-cane and from the date-palm, and tobacco is grown for local consumption in nearly every district of Bengal. The area under tea in 1923 was 186,258 acres. There were 325 plantations employing a daily average of 133,671 per-

Manufacture and Trade

The main industries in this part of India in addition to the agricultural industry are the jute mill industry, the tea industry (largely an Assam industry) and coal mining. The jute mills in and around Calcutta constitute the principal manufacturing industry of the Presidency. From 1st April to 31st December 1921 all jute mills worked four days per week. From 1st January to 31st March 1923, multiple shift mills worked four days of 18½ hours each per week, single shift mills five days per week, namely four days of 11 hours each and one day of 10 hours. There were 88 mills at work during the year 1922-23 with 48,094 looms and 1,025,343 spindles. The average number of persons employed daily was 3,23,564. The labour supply of mills during the year has been fair but there have been many days lost through strikes at different mills. The value of the exports of Raw Jute by sea from Calcutta during 1922-23 increased from Rs 18,71,00 lakhs to Rs 21,46,79 lakhs. The quantity exported was more than in the preceding year by nearly 100,000 tons and amounted to 553,000 tons. The Jute cess benefited the Calcutta Improvement Trust to the extent of Rs 9.72 lakhs, while Rs. 8.24 lakhs were collected in the preceding year. The exports of raw and manufactured jute represented more than half of Calcutta's exports during 1922-23 and those with the exception of cotton were India's premier exports in that year. Other principal industries were cotton twist and yarn, silk yarn and cloth, hand-made cloth, sugar, molasses and paper. Eleven cotton mills were at work during 1923-24 employing daily on an average 11,944 persons. The silk weaving industry continues to decline. There was only one silk mill working during 1922-24 which employed 158 hands. The manufacture of tea is carried on an extensive scale in Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri. The capital employed by joint stock companies in the industry in India amounted to nearly Rs 48 crores and the daily average labour force to 781,565 during 1923. In 1922 the number of coal mines under the scope of the Indian Mines Act worked in Bengal was 283. The total output for Bengal was 4,828,986 tons against 4,256,042 tons raised in 1921, while the output of all the mines in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam amounted to 17,395,161 tons. The paid up capital of joint stock coal companies only in the industry employed in these provinces is approximately Rs 11.87 lakhs. The daily average of persons employed in the coal mines in Bengal in 1922 was 44,898 and in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam 168,150. Three paper mills produced 21,618 tons of paper valued at Rs 1,22,24,040 in 1923.

In 1922-23 the foreign sea borne trade of Bengal (excluding treasure but including Government stores) amounted to Rs. 206 crores of which 85 crores represented imports and Rs. 120 crores exports. Of the total foreign and coasting trade of Bengal, more than 95 per cent was the share of Calcutta. The six chief exports from Bengal are in order of importance: tea (raw and manufactured), tea,

ice, grain (pulse and flour), seeds, hides and skins (raw), and the six leading imports are cotton goods, metals and ores, machinery and mill-work, sugar, railway plant and rolling stock, and oils.

Administration.

The present form of administration in Bengal dates from January 1921. In 1912 the Government of the Province underwent an important change, when, in accordance with the Proclamation of His Majesty the King-Emperor at Delhi the Province was raised from the status of a Lieutenant-Governor to that of a Governor-in-Council, thus bringing it into line with the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay. In 1921 under the Reform Scheme, the Local Government was reconstituted, certain of the departments being placed under the control of Ministers appointed from among elected members of the Legislative Council. There are normally four members of the Executive Council, who are in charge of the "reserved subjects," and three Ministers, who are in charge of the "transferred subjects," but in 1924, owing to political reasons there were only two ministers, and these had to resign owing to the refusal of the Legislative Council to vote their salaries. On their resignation, the transferred subjects were carried on by the members of the Executive Council. The working of this system and the division of the administration into these two classes of subjects is fully described in the sections to which reference is made.

Bengal is administered by five Commissioners, the divisions being those of the Presidency, Burdwan, Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong. The unit of administration is the District Magistrate and Collector. As Collector he supervises the gathering of the revenue and is the head of all the Departments connected with it, while as District Magistrate he is responsible for the administration of criminal justice in the district. The immediate superior of the District Magistrate is the Divisional Commissioner. Commissioners are the channels of communication between the local officers and the Government. In certain revenue matters they are, in their turn, subject to the Board of Revenue in Calcutta, in other matters they are under the direct control of Government.

Justice.

The administration of Justice is entrusted to the High Court of Calcutta which consists of the Chief Justice who is a Barrister and 15 Puisne judges including one additional judge who are Barristers, Civilians or Vakils. Below the High Court are the District and Additional Judges, the Small Causes Court and Subordinate Judges and the Munsifs. Of these officers the District and Additional Judges and a certain number of subordinate Judges are also endowed with the powers of a Criminal Court while the remainder have jurisdiction in Civil matters only. Criminal Justice is administered by the High Court, the Courts of Session and the Courts of the various classes of Magistrates. On its appellate side the High Court disposes of appeals from the orders of a Court of Session, and it also confirms, modifies or annuls sentences of death passed by Sessions Courts. Calcutta has five Presidency Magistrates, including a Temporary Magistrate, two Municipal Magis-

trates and also a number of Honorary Magistrates and it possesses a Court of Small Causes with Judges who dispose of cases of the class that are usually heard in County Courts in England.

Local Self-Government.

By Bengal Act III of 1884 which regulates municipal bodies in the interior and its subsequent amendments the powers of Commissioners of municipalities have been increased and the elective franchise has been extended. Municipal expenditure now comprises a large number of objects, including veterinary institutions and the training and employment of Health Officers and Sanitary Inspectors and female medical practitioners. The Commissioners also have large powers in regard to the water-supply and the regulation of buildings. The municipal Government of Calcutta is governed by Act III of 1923. This Act, which replaced Act III of 1899, makes the Corporation paramount in matters relating to municipal administration. The Act provides for the appointment of a Mayor, who replaces the Chairman of the old Act, a Deputy Mayor, an Executive Officer, and Deputy Executive Officers all elected by the Corporation. The appointment of the Chief Executive Officer is subject to the approval of Government. The total number of councillors is 85, with 5 aldermen, elected by the councillors. Ten of the councillors are nominated by Government and by the general or special constituencies. There are separate constituencies for the Mohammedans. In order to improve the insanitary and congested areas of the city, the Calcutta Improvement Trust has been created with extensive powers. In the mutual, District and Local Boards exercise considerable powers, with regard to Public Works, Education and Medical relief and Union Committees have been formed which deal for the most part with the control of village roads, sanitation and water-supply.

Bengal Act V of 1919 introduced a new system of self government by the creation of village authorities vested with the power and duties necessary for the management of communal village affairs and entrusted with powers of self taxation. The new village authority, to be called the Union Board, will replace the existing *Chaukidari pancheayats* and the Union Committee and will deal with the village police, village roads, water supply, sanitation, primary schools and dispensaries. The Act also empowers Government to create out of the members of the Union Boards Village Benches and Courts for the trial of petty criminal and civil cases arising within the union. The Act has been extended to all Districts in the Presidency except Darjeeling, Chittagong, and Malda and in 1923 over 2,000 Union Boards were sanctioned, of which nearly 1,400 were actually constituted.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the charge of a Chief Engineer who is also the Secretary to Government in the P W and Railway Departments.

The P W D deals with questions regarding the construction of public buildings and roads

The Railway Department deals with questions regarding acquisition of lands required by the several Railways and alignment of main lines of Railways and Tramway projects
Irrigation.

The Irrigation Department deals with matters connected with the numerous embankments and drainage works as well as the waterways that intersect the Presidency

Marine

The Marine Department deals with all questions connected with the Bengal Pilot Service, merchant shipping, and inland navigation

Police

The Bengal Police force comprises the Military Police, the District Police, the Railway Police, and the River Police. The Bengal Police are under the control of the Inspector General of Police the present Inspector-General being a member of the Imperial Police Service. Under him are Deputy Inspectors-General, for the Dacca Range the Rajshahi range, the Presidency range, the Burdwan range and the Bakarganj range and also one Deputy Inspector-General in charge of the O I D and the Intelligence Branch. Each district is in charge of a Superintendent, and some of the more important districts have an Additional Superintendent. The Railway Police is divided into three distinct charges each under a Superintendent. The River Police is also under a Superintendent. The cadre comprises Assistant Superintendents, Deputy Superintendents, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors head constables and constables. There is also a Village Police, composed of daddars and chowkidars, who receive a monthly salary which is collected from the villages or unions by the Panchayat or Union Board. There is a training college and school at Sardah, in the district of Rajshahi where newly appointed gazetted officers, and constables of the Bengal police learn their duties. The Calcutta City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government. The Commissioner has under him Deputy Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. A school for the training of recruits for the Calcutta Police force has been established at Calcutta. The annual cost of the Police is over 185 lakhs

Medical.

The head of the Medical Department is the Surgeon General with the Government of Bengal, and Sanitation is in charge of the Director of Public Health, the former appointments always held by a member of the Indian Medical Service, while the latter post is not so reserved. There is also a Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Bengal. In the districts the Civil Surgeons are responsible for medical work. There are 26 hospitals in Calcutta, 10 of which are supported by the Government and 416,019 persons were treated at these institutions of whom 40,775 were in-patients. In the mofussil districts there are 914 hospitals and dispensaries, the number of patients treated in them was 7,082,603 including 61,975 in-patients.

Education.

In the Presidency of Bengal education is imparted partly through Government agency and partly through private bodies, assisted to some extent by Government grants-in-aid. Government maintains three Arts Colleges in Calcutta (of which one is a college for women and one the Sanskrit College), one at Hughli, one at Krishnagar, two at Dacca, one at Rajshahi and one at Chittagong. It also maintains three training colleges, one at Calcutta, one at Dacca, and one at Kuracong for teachers who teach in secondary schools through the medium of English, and 5 normal schools, one in each division, for the training of teachers in secondary schools through the medium of the vernacular, also an engineering college at Sibpur and an engineering school at Dacca, two medical colleges, a veterinary college, a school of art and a commercial school in Calcutta, and a weaving school at Serampore. It also provides at the headquarters of all districts, except Burdwan and Midnapore, and also at certain other mofussil centres, English High schools for the education of boys, while to some Government Arts Colleges high schools are attached. In Calcutta there are four Government high schools for boys, two of which are attached to Presidency College and one to the Sanskrit College. Government high schools for girls exist only in the headquarters stations of Calcutta, Dacca, Mymensingh, Barisal and Chittagong. The other secondary schools, with the exception of a few middle schools managed either by Government or by municipal and district boards, are under private control. The administration of primary education in all areas, which are not under municipalities, rests with the district boards, grants being given from provincial revenues to the boards, which contribute only slightly from their own funds. Only in backward localities are such schools either entirely managed, or directly aided, by Government. Apart from the institutions referred to above, 95 institutions called Guru Training Schools are maintained by the Department for the training of primary school teachers. For the education of Mahomedans, there are senior madrasahs at Calcutta, Dacca, Chittagong and Hughli, and one junior madrasah at Rajshahi which are managed by Government. There are also certain Government institutions for technical and industrial education. All institutions for technical and industrial education (except B E College, the Alumnullah School of Engineering, Dacca, the Government Commercial Institute and the Government School of Art, Calcutta) are now under the control of the Director of Industries. A large proportion of educational work of every grade is under the control of various missionary bodies, which are assisted by Government grants-in-aid.

The municipalities are required to expend a certain proportion of their ordinary income on education. They are mainly responsible for primary education within their jurisdiction, but schools in these areas are eligible also for grants from Government. These bodies maintain a first grade Arts College and a high school at Burdwan, a high school at Santipur and a high school at Chittagong.

In 1923-24 there were in the Presidency —

Arts Colleges	42	Secondary Schools	2,619
Law " "	3	Primary Schools	49,435
Medical Colleges	3	Special " "	2,546
Engng. College	1	Private Institutions	1,352
Training Colleges	5		
Veterinary College	1		

with 2,057,188 pupils in all.

The Department is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, assisted by an Assistant Director and an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education. Each division is in charge of a Divisional Inspector assisted by a certain number of Additional or second Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors for Muhammadan Education according to the requirements of the several divisions. Similarly the administrative charge of the primary education of each district is in the hands of a District Inspector assisted by Sub-Divisional Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of Schools, the latter class officers being in some instances helped by officers of humbler status called Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting

Pandits and Manjivis. Higher education is controlled by the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca established in 1867 and 1881, respectively, administered by the Chancellor (the Governor of Bengal), the Vice-Chancellor (appointed by Government) and a number of ex officio elected and nominated fellows. The University of Calcutta maintains a Law College, called the University Law College, Calcutta. The Dacca University also has Law Department attached to it. The Calcutta University is mainly an examining body, but it has now made itself responsible for the actual teaching of students, for which purpose it employs an agency which is quite distinct from the staffs of the affiliated colleges.

The University at Dacca is of the residential type. There is a Board for Secondary and Intermediate Education at Dacca. It conducts the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations for the students of institutions at Dacca and also the Islamic Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations.

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL

As under the reformed constitution the Provinces enjoy substantial financial autonomy, the finances of Bengal are set out in some detail.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25

Heads of Revenue

	Thousands of Rs.
Land Revenue	3,08.11
Kucise	2,16.00
Stamps	3,39.00
Forest	23.50
Registration	24.50
Subsidised Taxes:	25.00
Subsidised Companies	1.00
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept (Net)	2.16
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	3.01
Interest	3.44
Administration of Justice	14.00
Jails and Convict Settlements	12.55
Police	4.47
Ports and Pilotage	36
Education	11.23
Medical	9.21
Public Health	22
Agriculture	3.58
Industries	5.59
Miscellaneous Departments	93
Civil Works	8.96
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	4.37
Stationery and Printing	3.75
Miscellaneous	14.16
Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	
Loans and Advances by the Bengal Government	10.89
Loans between the Central and the Bengal Government	
Famine Insurance Fund	1 90
Total	10 41.39
Opening balance	1,14.73
Grand Total	11,56.12

Thousands of Rs

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1924-25

Heads of Expenditure

Land Revenue	86,52
Excise	18,71
Stamps	9,64
Forests	15,52
Registration	18,53
Scheduled Taxes	15
Interest on Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	17,45
Other Revenue Expenditure financed from ordinary Revenue	14,64
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation and Drainage Works.— Finance from Ordinary Revenue	7,12
Interest on Ordinary Debt	—5,93
Sinking Funds	.
General Administration	1,18,95
Administration of Justice	1,14,06
Jails and Convict Settlements	28,86
Police	1,85,04
Ports and Pilotage	6,77
Scientific Departments	25
Education	1,16,35
Medical	54,29
Public Health	28,92
Agriculture	19,48
Industries	11,44
Miscellaneous Departments	5,52
Exchange on Transactions with London	.
Civil Works	1,00,17
Famine Relief and Insurance	2,00
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	49,02
Stationery and Printing	22,42
Miscellaneous	8,98
Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	12
Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue—	
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	—2,37
Loans and Advances by the Bengal Government	9,59
Loans between the Central and the Bengal Government	4,64
	<hr/>
Total	10,15,85
Closing balance	1,40,27
	<hr/>
Grand Total	11,56,12
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Administration.

GOVERNOR AND PRESIDENT IN COUNCIL.

His Excellency The Rt. Hon. Victor Alexander George Robert Bulwer-Lytton, Earl of Lytton, P.C., G.C.I.E., took his seat, 29th March 1922

PERSONAL STAFF

Private Secretary, H. B. Wilkinson, I.C.S.

Military Secretary, Lieut.-Colonel J. Mackenzie, C.I.E.

Surgeon, Major E. H. V. Hodge, I.M.S.

Aide-de-Camp, Captain S. B. Horn, M.C.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Lt.-Col. F. E. Wood, Lt.-Col. W. M. Craddock and Capt. O. Goldsmith

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Biskandar Mal Singh

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL.

The Hon. Mr. Hugh Lansdown Stephenson, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.M.S.

" " Maharajadhiraja Bahadur of Burdwan, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

" " Mr. James Donald, C.I.E., I.C.S. (Temporary)

" " Sir Abdur Rahim.

SECRETARIAL

Chief Secretary to Government, L. Birley, C.I.E., L.C.S.

Secretary, Revenue Department, M. O. McAlpin

Secretary, Finance and Commerce Departments, A. Marr, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary to the Council and Secretary, Legislative Department, C. Tindall, C.I.E.

Secretary to Government, Public Works Department, and Chief Engineer, G. G. Day (Roads, Buildings and Railway), and C. Addams Williams, C.I.E. (Irrigation)

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, W. W. Hornell

Principal, School of Arts, P. Brown.

Inspector-General of Police, Robert Boyle Hyde (on leave), T. O. Simpson (Offg.)

Commissioner, Calcutta Police, Sir Reginald Clarke (on leave), G. A. Tegar, C.I.E. (Offg.)

Conservator of Forests, B. C. Milward

Surgeon-General, Major General Benjamin Hobbs Deane, C.I.E., I.M.S. (on leave), Col. Richard Hoard, M.D. (Offg.)

Collector of Customs, Calcutta, W. W. Nind, B.A.

Commissioner of Excise and Salt, G. P. Hogg, M.A., L.C.S.

Accountant-General, J. O. Mitra, M.A., B.L.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. F. S. O. Thompson, I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, H. N. Hutchinson, C.B.E., I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Registration, Khan Bahadur Amin-ul Islam.

Director of Agriculture, G. Evans, M.A., C.I.E.

Protector of Emigrants, Major Charles Aikman Gourlay, I.M.S.

Superintendent, Royal Botanic Gardens, Lieut. Colonel A. T. Gage.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF BENGAL.

Frederick J. Halliday 1854

John P. Grant 1859

Cecil Beadon 1862

William Grey 1867

George Campbell 1871

Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I. 1874

The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I. 1877

Sir Stuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I. (Offg.) 1879

A. Rivers Thompson, C.S.I., C.I.E. 1882

H. A. Cookerell, C.S.I. (Official) 1885

Sir Stuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1887

Sir Charles Alfred Elliott, K.C.S.I. 1890

Sir A. P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (Offg.) 1892

Sir Alexander Mackenzie, K.C.S.I. 1895

Retired 6th April 1898.

Charles Cecil Stevens, C.S.I. (Official) 1897

Sir John Woodburn, K.C.S.I., 1898

Died, 21st Nov. 1902.

J. A. Bourdillon, C.S.I. (Official) 1902

Sir A. H. Leith Fraser, K.C.S.I. 1903

Lancelot Hare, C.S.I., C.I.E. (Offg.) 1904

F. A. Slacke (Official) 1906

Sir E. N. Baker, K.C.S.I. .. 1908

Retired 21st Sept. 1911

F. W. Duke, C.S.I. (Official) .. 1911

The office of Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal was abolished on April 1st, 1912, when Bengal was raised to a Governorship

GOVERNORS OF THE PRESIDENCY OF BENGAL

WILLIAM IN BENGAL.

The Rt. Hon. Baron Carmichael of Skirling, G.C.I.E., K.C.M.G. .. 1912

The Rt. Hon. Earl of Ronaldshay, G.C.I.E. 1917

The Rt. Hon. Lord Lytton .. 1922

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Mr H E A. Cotton, C.I.E., *President.*

Major Hassan Suhrawardy, M.D., F.R.C.S., *Deputy President*

Ex-officio—

The Hon'ble Sir Bijay Chand Mahtab, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.O.M., Maharajahdiraja Bahadur of Burdwan

The Hon'ble Sir Abd-ur-Rahim, Kt.

The Hon'ble Sir Hugh Stephenson, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

The Hon'ble Mr J. Donald, G.S.I., C.I.E.

Elected—

The Hon'ble Manvi A. K. Fazl-ul-Huq.

The Hon'ble Hadji Mr A. K. Abu Ahmed Khan Ghumavi

Official Nominated Members—

Mr A. N. Moberly

„ E. F. Oaten

„ M. C. McAlpin, C.I.E.

„ H. C. Liddell

„ A. Marr, C.I.E.

„ J. A. L. Swan

„ G. S. Dutt

„ S. N. Roy

„ G. G. Dey

„ J. T. Donovan

„ O. Addams-Williams, C.I.E.

„ T. Emerson, C.I.E.

„ S. C. Stuart-Williams

Nominated Non-Officials—

Mr S. C. Mukerji

Babu Charu Chandra Das.

Mr K. C. Roy Chaudhury

„ M. Daud

Babu Debi Prasad Khaitan

Rai Abinash Ch. Banerjee Bahadur, M.A.

Mr D. J. Cohen

„ P. N. Guha.

K. G. M. Farouqi.

Elected Members

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency
Babu Jatindra Nath Basu	Calcutta North (Non-Muhammadian)
Mr Satcowripati Roy	Calcutta North-West (Non-Muhammadian)
Dr Pramathanath Banerjee	Calcutta East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr Nirmal Chandra Chunder	Calcutta North Central (Non-Muhammadian)
Mr Ashiny Cumar Banerjee	Calcutta South Central (Non-Muhammadian)
S. N. Halder	Calcutta South (Non-Muhammadian)
Babu Barada Prasad Dey, B.L.	Hooghly Municipal (Non-Muhammadian)
Babu Khagendra Nath Ganguly, Vakil	Howrah Municipal (Non-Muhammadian.)*
D. Bidhan Chandra Roy	24-Parganas Municipal North (Non-Muhammadian.)

Name of Members	Name of Constituency
Dabu Surendra Nath Ray	24-Parganas Municipal South (Non Muhammadan)
Rai Pyari Lal Doss Bahadur, M.B.E.	Dacca City (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Sarat Ch. Basu	Burdwan (Non Muhammadan)
Raja Manioli Singh Roy, C.I.E.	Do
Babu Abanish Chandra Ray	Birbhum (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Anilbaran Roy	Bankura West (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Umes Chandra Chatterjee, B.L.	Bankura East (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Debendra Lal Khan	Midnapore North (Non Muhammadan)
Mr C. B. Das	Midnapore South (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Mahendra Nath Maity	Do
Babu Taraknath Mukerjee	Hooghly Rural (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Manmatha Nath Roy	Howrah Rural (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Hem Chandra Naskar	24 Parganas Rural Central (Non-Muhammadan)
Mr Birendra Nath Sasmal	24-Parganas Rural South (Non Muhammadan)
Rai Harendranath Chaudhuri, M.A., B.L.	24 Parganas Rural North (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Hemanta Kumar Sarker	Nadia (Non Muhammadan)
Maharaj Kumar Sri Chandra Nandy	Murshidabad (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Jogendra Nath Mitra	Jessore South (Non Muhammadan)
Mr D. N. Roy, Bar-at-Law	Jessore North (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Sailaja Nath Roy Chaudhuri	Khulna (Non Muhammadan)
Mr Kiran Sankar Roy	Dacca Rural (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Manmohan Neogi	Mymensingh West (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Nalinranjan Sarker	Mymensingh East (Non-Muhammadan)
Dr Kumud Sankar Ray	Faridpur North (Non Muhammadan)
Dr Mohini Mohon Das	Faridpur South (Non Muhammadan)
Mr. Nisith Chandra Sen	Bakarganj North (Non-Muhammadan)
Rai Satyendra Nath Roy Choudhuri Bahadur	Bakarganj South (Non Muhammadan)
Mr J. M. Sen Gupta, Bar-at Law	Chittagong (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Akhil Chandra Datta	Tippura (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Satyendra Chandra Mitra	Noakhali (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Sudarsan Chakravorty	Rajshahi (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Jogindra Chandra Chakravorti, M.A., B.L.	Dinajpur (Non Muhammadan)
Raj Sahib Panchanan Barma, M.B.E.	Rangpur (Non Muhammadan)
Babu Nagendra Narayan Ray, B.L.	Do
D. J. M. Das Gupta	Bogra cum Pabna (Non-Muhammadan.)

Name of Members	Name of Constituency
<i>Babu Romes Chandra Bagchi, B L</i>	<i>Malda (Non Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Mr Prasanna Deb Raikut</i>	<i>Jalpalguri (Non Muhammadan)</i>
, S Mahboob Aley	<i>Calcutta North (Muhammadan)</i>
,, H S Suhrawardy	<i>Calcutta South (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Wahed Hossain</i>	<i>Barrackpore Municipal (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Khan Bahadur Mirza Shujaat Ali B g</i>	<i>24 Parganas Municipal (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Allahaksh Sarkar</i>	<i>Dacca City (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Muhammad Yasir</i>	<i>Burdwan Division North (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Zannoor Ahmed</i>	<i>Burdwan Division South (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Dr A Suhrawardy</i>	<i>24 Parganas Rural (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Aftab Hossain Joardar</i>	<i>Nadia (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Ekramul Huq, B L</i>	<i>Murshidabad (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Khan Bahadur Maulvi Abdus Salam</i>	<i>Jessore North (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Abdul Quader</i>	<i>Jessore South (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Sayyod Sultan Ali</i>	<i>Khulna (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Nawab Salyid Nawab Ali Chandhuri, Khan</i>	<i>Dacca West Rural (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Bahadur, C I E</i>	<i>Dacca East Rural (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Khan Bahadur Kazi Zahirul Huq</i>	<i>Mymensingh West (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Md Abdul Jubbar Pahlowan</i>	<i>Mymensingh East (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Tavebuddin Ahmed, B L</i>	<i>Do</i>
<i>Mr Altaf Ali</i>	<i>Faridpur North (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>,, Syed M Masih, Bar at-Law</i>	<i>Faridpur South (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Salyed Abdur Rob Chaudhuri</i>	<i>Bakarganj North (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Fazlal Karim Chowdhury</i>	<i>Bakarganj South (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Khafe Nazimuddin, M A (Cantab), Bar at law</i>	<i>Chittagong (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Md Nurul Huq Chaudhury</i>	<i>Do</i>
<i>Maulvi Amanat Khan, B A</i>	<i>Tippera (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Shah Syed Emdadul Haq</i>	<i>Do</i>
<i>Maulvi Ashmuddin Ahamed</i>	<i>Noakhali (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Abdur Rasid Khan</i>	<i>Do</i>
<i>Maulvi Sayedal Hoque, B A</i>	<i>Rajshahi South (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Haji Lal Mohammed</i>	<i>Rajshahi North (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Khan Bahadur Maulvi Md Choudhurn</i>	<i>Dinajpur (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Kader Baksh, B L</i>	<i>Rangpur West (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Dasar Mahammad</i>	<i>Rangpur East (Muhammadan)</i>
<i>Maulvi Mahi Uddin Khan</i>	

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency
Maulvi Rafib Uddin Tarafdar	Bogra (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Abdul Gafur, B L	Fabna (Muhammadian)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Musharruf Hoesain	Makda cum Jalpaiguri (Muhammadian)
Mr J A Jones, C I E	Presidency and Burdwan (European)
„ Edward Villiers	Do
„ J Campbell Forrester	Do
„ B J Corcoran	Dacca and Chittagong (European)
„ W L Travers C B E	Rajshahi (European)
„ H Barton	Anglo Indian
Dr H W B Moreno	Do
Babu Satya Kishore Banerjee	Burdwan Landholders
Mr Provash Chunder Mitter, C I E	Presidency Landholders
Babu Brajendra Kishore Roy Chaudhury	Dacca Landholders
Mr Arun Chandra Singha	Chittagong Landholders
Kumar Shih Shekharaswar Ray	Rajshahi Landholders
Babu Bejoy Krishna Bose	Calcutta University
Mr A F Rahman, B A	Dacca University
„ Arthur d Anyers Willis	Bengal Chamber of Commerce
„ A Cochran, C B E	Do
„ J Y Philip	Do
„ R. B Wilson, C I E	Do
Mr George Godfrey, Lt	Do
Mr G Morgan	Do
„ G F Rose	Indian Jute Mills Association
„ C G Cooper	Do
„ A D Gordon	Indian Tea Association
Sir Willoughby Carey, Lt	Indian Mining Association
Mr J Cottle	Calcutta Trades Association
(Vacant)	Bengal National Chamber of Commerce
Raja Bheee Case Law, C I E	Do
Babu Badridas Goenka	Bengal Marwari Association
Mr Tarit Bhusan Roy	Bengal Mahajan Sabha

Secretary to the Council—C TINDALL, C I E, I C S.

The United Provinces.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh lie in practically the centre of Upper India. They are bounded on the north by Tibet, on the north-east by Nepal, on the east and south-east by Behar, on the south by two of the Chota Nagpur States of the Central India Agency and the Bengar District of the Central Provinces, and on the west by the States of Gwalior, Dholpur, Bharatpur, Sirmor, and Jubbah, and by the Punjab. Their total area amounts to 106,296 square miles, to which may be added the area of the two Native States of Tehri and Rampur, both of which lie within the United Provinces, 5,079 square miles and the newly-created Independent State of Benares with an area of 870 square miles, giving a total of 112,244 square miles. The total population is 46,510,668.

The Provinces, originally termed the North-Western Provinces and so amalgamated in 1877, receiving their present designation in 1902, include four distinct tracts of country portions of the Himalayas, including the Kumaon Division which consists of three hill districts, two of which are entirely in the hills and one is half in the submontane belt, the sub-Himalayan tract. The great Gangetic plain, and portions of the hill systems of Central India including Bundelkhand. The Gangetic plain is protected by an extensive Canal system, which though somewhat liable to run short of water in extremely dry years, is of great benefit in all ordinary years and years of limited drought. The first two of these tracts are infertile and support a very sparse population and the Central Indian plateau is almost equally infertile, though better populated. The soil of the Gangetic plain, however, possesses an extreme fertility and here the density of population rises from 512 persons per square mile in the west, to 549 in the centre and 718 in the east, which gives the Provinces as a whole a greater population pressure on the soil than any other Provinces in India. In the south there are low rocky hills, broken spurs of the Vindhyan mountains, covered with stunted trees and jungle, and in the North the lower slopes of the Himalayas, clothed with dense forest, affording excellent big and small game shooting, and rising beyond in a tangled mass of ridges, ever higher and higher, until is reached the line of the eternal snows, but the greater part of the provinces consists of level plain, teeming with highly-cultivated fields and watered by three rivers—the Ganges, Jumna, and Gogra.

The People.

The population is mainly Hindu, 85 per cent. ranking as such whilst Mahomedans number 14 per cent., the total of all other religions being a little over 1 per cent. composed of Christians (Europeans and Indians) Jains, Aryas and Sikhs. The Aryas are the followers of the Arya Samaj sect, which obtains widely in the Punjab and has extended its influence to the United Provinces. The three main physical types are Dravidian, Aryan and Mongoloid, the latter being confined to the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan districts and the former to South Mirzapur and Bundelkhand, whilst the high-caste Aryans frequent the Western Districts of the

Provinces. Most of the people, however, show a mixed Arya-Dravidian origin. Three languages are spoken by the great majority of the people in the plains—Western Hindi, Eastern Hindi and Behari. Urdu, or Hindustani is a dialect of Western Hindi, though it contains a large admixture of Persian and Arabic words, which makes it a *lingua franca*.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports no less than 75% of the population. The soils of the Provinces fall into three groups, the valley soils of the Himalayas, the main alluvium and the Central Indian alluvium, the chief characteristic soil of the Central Indian alluvium is the black soil, with a lighter variant, though here also there are light loams and gravel. The Himalayan soils are of local origin and vary with the nature of the rock from which they have been formed, whilst the main alluvium soils are sand, clay and loam, the loam being, naturally, the most productive. The soil generally yields excellent crops of rice, millet, maize, linseed, cotton, wheat, sugarcane, pulses, barley and poppy, rice being grown mostly in low-lying, heavy clays. The greater part of the Provinces is highly cultivated, the rainfall varies from 50 to 60 inches in the Hills, to 40 inches in the Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions, whilst the Agra Division receives about 25 to 30 inches annually only. Drought seriously affected Bundelkhand and the Agra Division, in the past, but improved drainage, and irrigation (a protective system of irrigation works exists and is being extended) have enabled a complete recovery to be made and the agricultural prosperity of the Provinces is now high, though it varies with the rainfall. Land is held mostly on the ryotwari tenure in Bundelkhand and Kumaon on zamindari tenure in Agra and taluqdari tenure in Oudh. The principal land owners in Oudh are the Taluqdars, some of whom own very large estates. The area held in taluqdari tenure amounts to 51 per cent of the total area in Oudh.

Manufactures

The Provinces are not rich in minerals, Coal exists in Southern Mirzapur, iron and copper are found in the Himalayan Districts, and there were mines of importance there formerly, but increased difficulty of working them as veins became exhausted resulted in the closure of most of them. Gold is found in minute quantities by washing in some of the rivers in the Hills. Limestone is found in the Himalayas and stone is largely quarried in the Mirzapur District. Cotton is ginned and spun throughout the provinces as a home industry, and weaving, by means of hand looms, is carried on in most districts. In 1901 nearly a million persons were dependent on weaving, 140,000 on spinning and 136,000 on cleaning, pressing, and ginning, but during the last decade these industries have been on the decrease. The largest industry is in Amarnagar district, where there are 180,000 looms. Silk spinning is confined almost entirely to the district of Benares, where the famous *shawl* brocade is made. Kun-

brodery is manufactured in Lucknow, where the noted cotton work of silk on cotton or muslin is produced, and in Benares, where gold and silver work on velvet, silk, crepe and sarsenet obtains. The glass industry is important in some districts, Benares and Moradabad are noted for their lacquered brass work, porcelain is manufactured at Ghazipur, and other industries are those of paper making (Lucknow) dyeing, leather-work and fireworks. The chief centre of European and Indian industry is Cawnpore, which, situated in most advantageous position on the Ganges, possesses tanneries, cotton, woollen and other mills, which have a large and ever increasing output (the woollen mill is the largest in India). There are cotton factories at Aligarh (famous for its locks), Meerut and Bareilly, Mirzapur (which produces also excellent carpets), Hardoi and Hathras have cotton mills. Excellent furniture is made at Bareilly, at Allahabad there are stone works, at Ross there is a large English distillery, with patent still.

The largest trade centres are Cawnpore, Allahabad, Mirzapur, Benares, Lucknow, Meerut, Aligarh, Hathras, Muttra, Agra, Farukhabad, Moradabad, Chandauli, Bareilly, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Ghazabad, Khurja, Gorakhpur, Ghazipur, Pilibhit and Shahjahanpur.

Administration

The Province was until the close of 1920 administered by a Lieutenant-Governor chosen from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the Reform Scheme the Province was raised to the status of a Governor in Council, the Governor being assisted by two members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and two Ministers in charge of the Transferred Subjects. The medium for the transaction of public business is the Secretariat, the Staff of which consists of 7 Secretaries and 5 Deputy Secretaries. The Chief Secretary is in charge of Revenue, Appointment, General Administration, Political and Police Departments, the Finance Secretary deals mainly with the Finance Department. The Revenue Secretary is in charge of the Revenue, Judicial, and Forest Departments, the Education Secretary looks to the Education and Industries Departments and the L. S. G. Secretary to the local Self-Government, Municipal, Medical and Public Health Departments. The other two Secretaries belong to the Public Works Department, and are also Chief Engineers, one of whom deals with Irrigation and the other with Roads and Buildings. Government spends the cold weather, October to April, in Lucknow and Allahabad, mostly in Lucknow, though the Secretariat remains throughout the year at Allahabad. The Governor and the Secretary spend the hot weather in Naini Tal, but during the monsoon the Governor tours the plains, as he does also in the cold weather. The Board of Revenue is the highest court of appeal in revenue and rent cases, and it has important executive duties, being the chief revenue authority in the Provinces. There are forty-eight British districts, thirty-six in Agra and twelve in Oudh, average area 2,000 square miles and average population a million.

Each District is in charge of a District Officer, termed a Collector and Magistrate in Agra and a Deputy Commissioner in Oudh and Kumaon. The Districts are grouped together in Divisions under a Commissioner. There are ten Divisions, having an average area of nearly 12,000 square miles and a population of from 5 to 8 millions. The Districts are sub-divided into *talukhs*, with an average area of 500 square miles and a population of 250,000. Each *Talukh* is in charge of a *Talukdar*, who is responsible for the collection of revenue, and also exercises judicial powers. *Talukhs* are divided into *parganas* which are units of importance in the settlement of land revenue. Subordinate to the *Talukdars* are *kawungos*, of whom there are, on an average, three to a *talukh*. These officials supervise the work of the *patwaris*, or village accountants, check their papers and form a link direct between the villagers and Government. For judicial purposes (revenue and criminal), the District Officer assigns a sub-division consisting of one or more *talukhs*, as the case may be to each of his subordinates, who may be covenanted civilians (Joint and Assistant Magistrates and Collectors) or members of the Provincial Service (Deputy Collectors and Magistrates). The Commissioners of the Bareilly and Kumaon Divisions are Political Agents for the Native States of Rampur and Tehri respectively and the Commissioner of Benares is the Political Agent for Benares State.

Justice

Justice is administered by the High Court in the Province of Agra, and the Court of the Judicial Commissioner, in Oudh, which are the final appellate authorities in both criminal and civil cases. The former, which consists of a Chief Justice and six permanent and two temporary puisne Judges, three of whom are Indians, sits at Allahabad, and the latter, represented by a Judicial Commissioner and two Additional Commissioners, one of whom is an Indian, sits always in Lucknow. This Court is about to be raised to the status of a Chief Court. There are 81 posts (24 in Agra and 7 in Oudh) of District and Sessions Judges of which 8 are held by Indians not belonging to the I.C.S. as they have been listed to the provincial service and the bar. They have both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases, and occasional appellate jurisdiction in rent cases. District Officers and their assistants, including *Talukdars*, preside in criminal Courts as Magistrates, and as Collectors and Assistant Collectors, in Rent and Revenue Courts and dispose of a good deal of the work. In Kumaon, the Commissioner is a High Court Judge in civil cases. There are also Subordinate Judges, Judges of Small Cause Courts and Munsifs, who dispose of a large number of small civil suits, being specially empowered in some cases, to decide suits up to Rs. 2,000, but generally they take cases up to Rs. 1,000, whilst Subordinate Judges hear cases up to Rs. 5,000. Appeals from Munsifs and Subordinate Judges go to the District Judges. Small Cause Court Judges try suits to the value of Rs. 500. There are also Honorary Munsifs, limited to Rs. 500 suits, and village Munsifs, whose jurisdiction is fixed at Rs. 20.

Local Self-Government.

Local Self-Government is exercised by means of District and Municipal Boards, the former levying local rates on land-owners, the latter deriving their revenue from octroi and other forms of taxation. The aim was to abolish octroi, but Indian opinion is reacting on this decision, because it interferes with through trade. All the principal Boards now have non-official Chairman, with an Executive Officer who is directly responsible to the Board in all matters.

Public Works

The Public Works Department is divided into the Roads and Buildings branch and the Irrigation branch, each of which is administered by a Chief Engineer, who is also a Secretary to Government. The Provinces are divided into circles and divisions both for roads and buildings, and for irrigation purposes. Each circle is in charge of a Superintending Engineer, and each division is in charge of an Executive Engineer. The whole of the irrigation works constructed or maintained by Government are in charge of the Irrigation Department, nearly all metalled roads, and also bridges on second-class roads, and generally, all works costing more than Rs 1,000, except in Municipalities, are in charge of the Buildings and Roads Department. Under Public Works there is now a separate Sarda canal branch of the Irrigation Department under a separate Chief Engineer with a full staff distinct from that of the running canals. The Sarda canal is a project of first rate importance and is under construction. It will introduce irrigation into most of the districts of Oudh.

Police

The Police Force is divided into District and Railway Police and is administered by an Inspector-General, with four Deputies, and two Assistants, forty-six District Superintendents, two Railway Superintendents and fifty-one Assistant Superintendents. There is a Police Training School at Moradabad. There is a local C I D forming a separate detective department, under a Deputy Inspector-General, with three assistants. There is an armed police, specially recruited, and armed with the Martini Rifle. The administration of the Jail Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Prisons, who is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

Education

Education is maintained in part by the State and partly by means of grants-in-aid. Great advance has been made by the institution of no less than four Universities three of which are new. These are the Benares Hindu University, the Lucknow University, the Aligarh Muslim University in addition to the old university of Allahabad. The Muir Central College has been merged in the Allahabad University and the Canning College, Lucknow, has been similarly merged in the Lucknow University. The Queen's College, Benares, has been reduced to the status of an Intermediate College. There is a Government Engineering College at Roorkee (Thomson College). There are aided Colleges in Lucknow (Reid Christian College),

and (Isabella Thoburn College), Agra (St John's), Gorakhpur, Cawnpore and Meerut. In Lucknow there is the Martiniere school, an entirely independent institution, for European and Anglo-Indian children, and there is a Girls' Martiniere connected with it, whilst in the Hill-Station, Naini-Tal and Mussoorie, there are many excellent private scholastic institutions for European boys and girls, which are attended by students from all over India. Government maintain Training Colleges, for teachers in Lucknow and Allahabad, an Art Crafts and an Industrial School in Lucknow, and an Agricultural College at Cawnpore. Public Schools are almost entirely maintained by the District and Municipal Boards and primary education is almost entirely in their hands. The position of the Province in regard to Education is fully described under the head Education and in the tables attached thereto (p 7).

The principal educational institutions are —

The Mahomedan University, Aligarh.

The Hindu (Benares) University, Benares

St John's College, Agra.

Queen's College, Benares

Agra College.

Reid Christian College, Lucknow

Meerut College

Woodstock College, Mussoorie.

Bareilly College

Christian College, Allahabad

Christ Church College, Cawnpore

Isabella Thoburn College Lucknow

Thomason College, Roorkee

King George's Medical College, Lucknow

Medical

The Medical Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals. A Civil Surgeon is in charge and is responsible for the medical work of each district, and in a few of the larger stations he has an assistant. In two stations (Ranikhet and Almora) Medical Officers in military employ hold collateral civil charge. There are eighty-three Assistant Surgeons in charge of important dispensaries and a large number of Indian hospital assistants. Lady doctors and female hospital assistants visit *purdā* *nashin* women in their own homes and much good work is done in this manner.

The best equipped hospitals for Indian patients are the Thomason Hospital at Agra, King George's Hospital and the Balmampur Hospital at Lucknow. The Ramsay Hospital for Europeans at Naini Tal is a first class institution and there are also the Lady Dufferin Hospitals. King George's Medical College is one of the best equipped in the country, with a staff of highly efficient professors, and the hospital is the first in the Provinces. There is an X-Ray Institute at Dehra Dun, where valuable research work has been carried out and there are sanatoria for British soldiers in the Hills.

THE FINANCES OF THE UNITED PROVINCES

As explained in the chapters on the new constitution of India, under the Reform Act of 1919, the financial position of the Provinces underwent a remarkable change. The Provinces are for all practical purposes financially independent of the Government of India, subject to a fixed annual contribution, which it is intended shall be gradually reduced to vanishing point when the position of the Central Government permits. As the finances of the Provinces thus become of greater importance, the position is set out in some detail in the following pages —

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25*Principal Heads of Revenue*

	Rs.
Taxes on Income	
Land Revenue	6,92,18,000
Kinase	1,45,06,000
Stamps	1,79,17,000
Forests	63,82,000
Registration	13,26,000
Scheduled Taxes	1,00,000
	<hr/>
Total	10,94,43,000

Railways

Subsidised Companies	1,60,000
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Irrigation

Works for which capital accounts are kept—

(1) Productive Works—	
Net receipts	81,11,626
(2) Un-productive Works—	
Net receipts	5,58,000
	<hr/>
Total, net receipts	86,69,626

Works for which no capital accounts are kept

	22,000
	<hr/>
Total Irrigation	86,91,626

Debt Services

Interest	15,49,000
	<hr/>
Total	15,49,000

Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	12,00,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	4,71,800
Police	3,65,000
Education	9,58,000
Medical	66,000
Public Health	89,500
Agriculture	5,06,000
Industries	42,000
Miscellaneous Departments	88,700
	<hr/>
Total	37,84,500

Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—

Civil Works	5,80,000
	<hr/>
	5,80,000

Miscellaneous

	Rs.
Transfers from Famine Insurance Fund	Nd.
Receipts in aid of superannuation	9,32,000
Stationery and Printing	3,10,000
Miscellaneous	8,79,000
Total	21,21,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	Nd.
Total Revenue	12,62,81,123
Debt, deposits and advances —	
(a) Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments	1,86,57,000
(b) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments	25,61,300
(c) Famine Insurance Funds	43,89,955
(d) Deposits of Sinking Funds for Provincial Loans	3,37,300
Total	2,09,45,555
Total receipts	14,72,26,681
Opening Balance	1,46,68,822
Grand Total	16,18,95,503

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1924-25*Direct demands on the Revenues*

Taxes on Income	Nd.
Land Revenue	79,69,150
Excise	8,09,800
Stamps	4,05,900
Forests	37,20,150
Registration	4,64,000
Total	1,31,62,500

Railway Revenue Account

Subsidised companies	5,000
Miscellaneous railway expenditure	
Total	5,000

Irrigation Revenue Account

Works for which capital accounts are kept—	
Interest on debt	10,81,000
Miscellaneous irrigation expenditure	3,08,000
Total	13,89,000

Irrigation Capital Account (charged to revenue)

Construction of Irrigation Works—	
A. Financed from Famine Insurance Grants	12,27,000
B. Financed from ordinary revenues	Nd.
Total	12,27,000

Debt Services

Interest on ordinary debt	16,86,300
Sinking Fund	3,00,000
Total	19,86,300

<i>Civil Administration</i>		Ra.
General Administration		1,83,07,378
Administration of Justice		64,58,700
Jails and Convicts Settlements		33,33,519
Police		1,60,46,800
Scientific Departments		20,100
Education		1,72,06,100
Medical		25,63,799
Public Health		13,31,130
Agriculture		24,61,892
Industries		10,25,000
Miscellaneous Departments		1,62,600
Exchange		N/A
Total		6,41,16,508
<i>Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements</i>		
Civil Works		73,76,126
Total		73,76,126
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
Famine Relief and Insurance—		
A—Famine Relief		29,545
B—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund		27,03,455
Superannuation allowances and pensions		53,14,600
Stationery and Printing		9,36,100
Miscellaneous		4,63,393
Total		94,49,093
<i>Expenditure in England—</i>		
Secretary of State		13,000
High Commissioner		27,18,925
<i>Contributions and assignments</i>		
Contribution to the Central Government		2,40,00,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.		22,500
Total		2,40,22,500
<i>Irrigation and other capital not charged to revenue</i>		
(a) Construction of Irrigation works		1,29,56,500
(b) Forest outlay		8,80,000
(c) Outlay on Agricultural Improvement		98,000
Total		1,34,04,500
<i>Debt, Deposits and advances—</i>		
(a) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments		10,55,000
(b) Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments		25,00,000
(c) Civil Contingencies Fund		1,00,000
(d) Famine Insurance Fund		70,43,000
60 Civil Works		4,78,120
60 A. Other Provincial Works not charged to revenue		9,12,000
Sinking Fund Investment Account		3,37,800
Total		1,24,53,920
Total, disbursements		16,18,27,371
Closing balance		1,06,66,333
Grand Total		16,18,94,508

Administration.
Governor—His Excellency Sir William Marley,
K.C.I.E. (1921)

Private Secretary—Capt R O Chamier

Aides-de-Camp—Captain F E Pickering and
Captain T K Jones

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon ble Raja Sir Muhammad Ali
Muhammad Khan, KHAN BAHADUR, K.C.S.I.,
K.C.I.E.

The Hon ble Mr S P O'Donnell, C.S.I., C.I.E.,
I.C.S.

MINISTERS

The Hon ble Rai Raji-shwar Rai, B.A., O.B.E.

The Hon ble Likut Nawab Muhammad Ahmad
Said Khan, C.I.E., M.B.E.

SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary to Government, G B Lambert,
I.C.S.

Financial Secretary to Government, E A H
Blunt, O.B.E., I.C.S.

Revenue and Judicial Secretary C E D Peters,
I.C.S.

Secretary to Government, Public Works Dept
(Buildings & Roads, & Railways), A O
Varrieres, C.I.E.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS

Opium Agent, Ghazipur, C E Wild

Chief Conservator of Forests, H G Billson, F.C.I.

Director of Public Instruction, A H Mackenzie,
M.A.

Inspector-General of Police L M. Kaye

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Lt Col
A W R Cochrane, M.B., F.R.C.S. (MS)

Director of Public Health, Lieut Colonel Cuth
bert Lindsay Dunn

Inspector-General of Registration, Rai Sahib
Brij Lal

Commissioner of Excise, T Gibb

Accountant-General, Hanumanta Bhimasena
Bau, B.A.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt-Col J M
Woolley

Postmaster-General, H S B. Pilkington, C.I.M.,
M.V.O.

Director of Agriculture, H. M. Locke, M.A.

**LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH-
WESTERN PROVINCES.**

Sir C T Metcalfe, Bart., G.C.B. 1836

The Right Hon the Governor-General 1838
in the North-Western Provinces (Lord
Auckland)

F C Robertson 1840

The Right Hon the Governor-General 1842
in the North-Western Provinces (Lord
Ellenborough)

Sir G R. Clerk, K.C.B. 1843

James Thomson Died at Bareilly 1843

A W Begbie, *In charge* 1853

J E Colvin Died at Agra 1853

E A Reade, *In charge* 1857

Colonel H Fraser, O.B., Chief Commis- 1857
sioner N.W. Provinces

The Right Hon the Governor General 1858
administering the N-W Provinces
(Viscount Canning)

Sir G F Edmonstone 1859

R Money, *In charge* 1863

The Hon Edmund Drummond 1863

Sir William Muir, K.C.S.I. 1868

Sir John Strachey, K.C.S.I. 1874

Sir George Couper, Bart., O.B. 1876

**LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH
WESTERN PROVINCES AND CHIEF COMMIS-**

SIONERS OF OUDH

Sir George Couper, Bart., O.B., K.C.S.I. 1877

Sir Alfred Comyns Lyall, K.C.B. 1882

Sir Auckland Colvin, K.C.M.G., C.I.M. 1887

Sir Chas H T Crosthwaite, K.C.S.I. 1893

Alan Cadell (*Officiating*) 1895

Sir Antony P MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (a) 1895

Sir J J D LaTouche, K.C.S.I. 1901

(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell

**LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED
PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH**

Sir J J D LaTouche, K.C.S.I. 1902

Sir J P Hewett, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1907

L. A S Porter, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) 1912

Sir J S Meeson, K.C.S.I. 1912

Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1918

GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1920

Sir William Marley, K.C.I.E. 1921

UNITED PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

PRESIDENT

The Hon'ble Mr Michael Keane, C.L.E., I.C.S.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT

Raj Bahadur Pandit Kharagjit Misra, M.A., LL.B.

ELECTED MEMBERS

Body, Association or Constituency represented	Name
Agra City (non Muhammadan Urban)	Pandit Govind Sahai Sharma, <i>Bar at Law</i>
Cawnpore City (non Muhammadan Urban)	Babu Narayan Prasad Arora, B.A.

Body, Association or Constituency represented	Name.
Batehpur district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Sri Krishna Dutt Paliwal.
Allahabad district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Parsiddh Narayan Anand
Benares district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Yajna Narayanupadhyaya, M.A., LL.B., L.T.
Mirzapur district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Raja Ramji
Jaunpur district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Sri Krishna Dutt Dube
Ghazipur district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Deep Narayan Roy, B.A., LL.B.
Ballia district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Hanuman Singh
Gorakhpur district (West) (non Muhammadan Rural)	2nd Lt. Sahibzada Ravi Pratap Narayan Singh,
Gorakhpur district (East) (non Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur
Basti district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Indrajit Pratap Bahadur Sahi
Azamgarh district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Bhaya Hanumat Prasad Singh
Naini Tal district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Baljnath Misra, B.A., LL.B.
Almora district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Govind Ballabh Pant, B.A., LL.B.
Garhwal district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Har Govind Pant, B.A., LL.B.
Lucknow district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. Mukandi Lal, B.A. (OXON.)
Unao district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Ram Chandra Siroha, B.Sc.
Bau Bareilly district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Shankar Sahai
Sitapur district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Dr. Jai Karan Nath Misra, M.A., LL.D.
Hardoi district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Rajendra Singh
Kheri district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Thakur Mahesh Singh
Fyzabad district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Sita Ram, B.A., LL.B.
Gonda district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Krishna Pratap Singh
Bahraich district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Bindochri Prasad
Sultanpur district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Hukum Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Partabgarh district (non Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Surendra Pratap Sahi
Allahabad cum Benares (Muhammadan Urban)	Rai Bahadur Babu Shankar Dayal, B.A., LL.B.
Lucknow-cum Cawnpore (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Muhammad Zahur Ahmad
Agra and Meerut cum Aligarh (Muhammadan Urban)	Dr. Muhammad Naim Ansari, L.M.S.
Bareilly and Shahjahanpur-cum Moradabad (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Muhammad Aslam Saifi
Dehra Dun district (Muhammadan Rural)	Maulvi Zahur ud Din, B.A., LL.B.
Saharanpur district (Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Abdul Hameed Khan
Meerut district (Muhammadan Rural)	Maulvi Shahab-ud Din, B.A., LL.B.
Muzaffarnagar district (Muhammadan Rural)	Lieut. Nawab Jamshed Ali Khan
Bijnor district (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Kunwar Inayat Ali Khan
Aligarh, Muzza and Agra districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Chaudhri Amir Hasan Khan
Mainpuri, Etah and Farrukhabad districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Maulvi Obaidul Bahman Khan
Etawah, Cawnpore and Fatehpur districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Dr. Zia ud Din Ahmad, C.I.E., M.A. (Camb.),
Jhansi division (Muhammadan Rural)	Ph.D. (Göttingen), D.Sc.
Allahabad, Jaunpur and Mirzapur districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Hafiz Hidayat Husain, B.A.
Benares, Ghazipur, Ballia and Azamgarh districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. Masud-uz-Zaman
Gorakhpur district (Muhammadan Rural)	Nawabzada Muhammad Yusuf
Basti district (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Shah Badre Alam
	Khan Bahadur Muhammad Ismail
	Maulvi Abdul Hakim, M.A., B.Sc., LL.B.

Body, Association or Constituency represented	Name
Moradabad (North) (Muhammadian Rural)	Dr Shafsat Ahmad Khan
Moradabad (South) (Muhammadian Rural)	Saiyid Muhammad Ashiq Husain
Budaun district (Muhammadian Rural)	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Fazeeth ud Din
Shahjahanpur district (Muhammadian Rural)	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Muhammad Fazlur Rahman Khan B.A., LL.B.
Bareilly district (Muhammadian Rural)	Khan Bahadur Hakim Mabbub Ali Khan
Kumaun division cum Pilibhit (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Ashiq Husain Mirza
Gonda and Bahraich districts (Muhammadian Rural)	Khan Sabib Munshi Siddiq Ahmad
Kheri and Sitapur districts (Muhammadian Rural)	Qazi Habib Ashraf
Hardoi Lucknow and Unao districts (Muhammadian Rural)	Lieut Shaikh Sahid Husain M.A., LL.B. O.B.E.
Fyzabad and Bara Banki districts (Muhammadian Rural)	Khan Bahadur Chaudhri Muhammad Rashid ud Din Ashraf
Sultanpur, Partabgarh and Rae Bareilly districts (Muhammadian Rural)	Shaikh Abdus Samad Ansari
European	Mr St George H. S. Jackson
Agra Landholders (North)	Raja Mahendra Man Singh.
Agra Landholders (South)	Raja Ragho Prasad Narayan Singh, Rai Bahadur Lala Mathura Prasad Mehrotra, B.A.
Taluqdars	Raja Shambhu Dayal Lieut Shaikh Imtiaz Rasool Khan Thakur Jagannath Bakhsh Singh Sir Thomas Smith Kt., V.D.
Upper India Chamber of Commerce	Mr Tracy Gavin Jones
United Provinces Chamber of Commerce	Rai Bahadur Babu Vikramajit Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Allahabad University	Dr Ganesh Prasad, D.Sc.

NOMINATED MEMBERS

Mr G. B. Lambert, C.S.I., I.C.S.
 Mr E. A. H. Blunt, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.
 Kunwar Jagdish Prasad, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.
 Mr G. B. F. Muir, I.C.S.
 Mr A. C. Verriores, C.I.R.
 Mr C. E. D. Peters, I.C.S.
 Mr J. R. W. Bennett, I.C.S.
 Mr S. H. Fremantle, C.S.I., C.I.F., V.D., I.C.S.
 Mr R. Burn, C.S.I., I.C.S.
 Mr W. S. Cassels, O.B.E., I.C.S.
 Mr A. G. P. Pullan, I.C.S.
 Mr H. G. Billson
 Mr A. D. Ashdown, I.P.S.
 Lieut-Col R. F. Baird, I.M.S.
 Mr A. H. Mackenzie, M.A., D.Sc.
 Mr H. M. Leake
 Raja Muhammad E. Jaz Rasool Khan, C.S.I.
 Raja Brij Narayan Bahadur, Rai
 Mr H. C. Desanges, *Barriester-at Law*
 Mr H. David
 Babu Khem Chand.

The Punjab.

The Punjab or land of the five rivers, is so called from the five rivers by which it is enclosed, namely, the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. Together with the North-West Frontier Province and the Native State of Jammu and Kashmir which lie to the north, the Punjab occupies the extreme north-western corner of the Indian Empire, and with the exception of the above mentioned province comprises all of British India north of Sind and Rajputana and west of the river Jumna. Previous to October 1912, the Punjab with its feudatories embraced an area of 186,330 square miles and a population at the Census of 1911 of 24,187,750 (inclusive of 28,587 trans-frontier Baluchis) that is to say, about one-thirteenth of the area and population of the Indian Empire. But the formation of a separate province of Delhi reduced the area and population of the Punjab by about 450 square miles and 380,000 souls respectively. The total population of the Province in 1921, including the Baluch tribes on the border of the Dohra Ghazi Khan District was 23,101,060 of whom 4,416,086 were in the Indian States.

Physical Features.

The greater part of the Punjab consists of one vast alluvial plain, stretching from the Jumna in the east to the Sulaiman Range in the west. The north-east is occupied by a section of the Himalayas and the Salt Range forms its north-western angle. A few small spurs of the Aravalli mountain system traverse the extreme south-east and terminate in the Ridge at Delhi. The Punjab may be divided into five natural divisions. The Himalayan tract includes an area of 22,000 square miles, with a scanty population living scattered in tiny mountain hamlets. The Salt Range tract includes the districts of Attock, Rawalpindi and Jhelum and part of Shahpur district. Its physical configuration is broken and confused and the mountainous tracts of Murree and Kahuta approximate closely in characteristics to the Himalayan tract. Except in the hills, the rainfall leaves little margin for protection against distress in unfavourable seasons and irrigation is almost unknown. Skirting the base of the hills and including the low range of the Siwaliks, runs the narrow sub montane tract. This tract, secure in an ample rainfall, and traversed by streams from the hills, comprises some of the most fertile and thickly populated portions of the province. Its population of over four millions is almost wholly agricultural and pastoral but it includes one large town in Sialkot. Of the plains of the Punjab, the eastern portion covers an area of some 36,000 square miles with a population of 10½ millions. East of Lahore, the rainfall is everywhere so far sufficient that cultivation is possible without irrigation in fairly favourable seasons, but over the greater part of the area the margin is so slight that, except where irrigation is employed, any material reduction in the rainfall involves distress, if not actual famine. Within the eastern plains lie the large cities of Lahore and Amritsar, and the population in comparison with the western Punjab is largely urban. The western plains cover an area of 59,900 square miles, with a population of a little over six millions. The rain

fall in this area, scantiest in the north and east and decreasing towards the west and south, is everywhere so scanty that cultivation is only possible with the aid of artificial irrigation or upon the low-lying river banks left moist by the retreating floods. In this very circumstance, these tracts find their security against famine, for there cultivation is almost independent of rain, a failure of which means nothing worse than a scarcity of grass. So little rain is sufficient, and absolute drought occurs so seldom that the crops may be said never to fail from this cause. The western plains embrace the great colony areas on the Chenab and Jhelum Canals which now challenge the title of the eastern plains as the most fertile, wealthy and populous portions of the province. Multan and Lyallpur are the largest towns in the western area. Owing to its geographical position, its scanty rainfall and cloudless skies, and perhaps to its wide expanse of unutilised plains, the climate of the Punjab presents greater extremes of both heat and cold than any other portion of India. The summer, from April to September, is scorchingly hot, and in the winter sharp frosts are common. But the bright sun and invigorating air make the climate of the Punjab in the cold weather almost ideal.

States

The Indian States of the Punjab were formerly in the Political charge of the Punjab Government. In 1921, however the thirteen most important States, including Patiala, Bahawalpur, Jind and Nabha, were formed into a separate Punjab States Agency "under the control of the Agent to the Governor General, Punjab States. The only States remaining in the charge of the Punjab Government, are the Simla Hill States, for which the Deputy Commissioner of Simla is Political Officer, and three small States in the Ambala Division, Kalsia, Patandil and Dujana, which are supervised by the Commissioner of Ambala.

The People.

Of the population roughly one half is Mahomedan, three-eighths Hindu and one-eighth Sikh. Socially the landed classes stand high and of these the Jats, numbering nearly five millions, are the most important. Roughly speaking, one half the Jats are Mahomedan, one-third Sikh and one-sixth Hindu. In distribution they are ubiquitous and are equally divided over the five divisions of the province. Next in importance come the Rajputs, who number over a million and a half. The majority of them are Mahomedans by religion about a fourth are Hindus and a very few Sikhs. They are widely distributed over the province. Both Jats and Rajputs of the Punjab provide many of the best recruits for the Indian Army. In fact all the agricultural classes of the Punjab, except in the south-western districts, made a magnificent response to the appeal for recruits in the great war and the province's contribution of upwards of 400,000 men to the man power of the Empire speaks for itself. The Gujars are an important agricultural and pastoral tribe, chiefly found in the eastern half of the province and in the extreme north-west. In organisation they closely resemble the Jats and are often absorbed

into that tribe. There are many minor agricultural tribes, priestly and religious castes (Brahmans, Sayads and Kurehls), most of whom are landholders, the trading castes of the Hindus (Khattris, Aroras and Banias) and trading castes of the Mahomedans (Khojas, Parachas and Khakhwas), and the numerous artisan and menial castes. There are also vagrant and criminal tribes, and foreign elements in the population are represented by the Baluchis of Dera Ghazi Khan and neighbouring districts in the west who number about half a million and maintain their tribal system, and the Pathans of the Attock and Mianwali districts. Pathans are also found scattered all over the province engaged in horse-dealing, labour and trade. A small Tibetan element is found in the Himalayan districts.

Languages

The main language of the province is Punjabi, which is spoken by more than half the population. Western Punjabi may be classed as a separate language, sometimes called Lahndi, and is spoken in the north and west. The next most important languages are Western Hindi, which includes Hindustani, Urdu (the polished language of the towns) and other Hindi. Western Pahari, which is spoken in the hill tracts, and Rajasthani, the language of Rajputana. Baluchi, Pushto, Sindhi and Tibeto-Burman languages are used by small proportions of the population.

Agriculture

Agriculture is the staple industry of the province, affording the main means of subsistence to 66 per cent. of the population. It is essentially a country of peasant proprietors. About one-sixth of the total area in British districts is Government property, the remaining five-sixths belonging to private owners. But a large part of the Government land is so situated that it cannot be brought under cultivation without extensive irrigation. Thus the Lower Chenab Canal irrigates nearly 2,000,000 acres of what was formerly waste land and the Lower Jhelum Canal, 400,000 acres, and the Lower Bari Doab Canal, when the colonisation scheme is completed, will add 1,580,000 acres to this total. Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 8,700 square miles. Of the crops grown, wheat is the most important and the development of irrigation has led to a great expansion of the wheat area. Next in importance to wheat is gram. Other important staples are barley, rice, millets, maize, oilseeds (rape, toria and sesamum), cotton and sugarcane. Cotton is grown generally throughout the province. On the Canal irrigated areas the cotton grown is chiefly American but elsewhere it is the short stapled variety, known as 'Benjala'. The country being preponderantly agricultural, a considerable proportion of the wealth of the people lies in its live-stock. Large profits are derived from the cattle and dairy trades and wool is a staple product in the north-west in Kulu and Kangra and throughout the plains generally. The production of hides and skins is also an important industry.

Industries.

The mineral wealth of the Punjab is small, rock salt, saltpetre and limestone for road building being the most important products. There are some small coal mines in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Mianwali districts with an output of about 75,000 tons a year, and gold washing is carried on in most of the rivers but without remunerative results. Iron and copper ores are plentiful but difficulties of carriage and the absence of fuel have hitherto prevented smelting on a large scale. The Punjab is not a large manufacturing country, the total number of factories being only 434, the majority of which are cotton ginning and pressing factories. Cotton weaving as a domestic industry is carried on by means of hand looms in nearly every village. The Salvation Army and the five Government Weaving Schools have shown considerable enterprise in improving the hand weaving industry. Blankets and woollen rugs are also produced in considerable quantities and the carpets of Amritsar are famous. Silk weaving is also carried on and the workers in gold, silver, brass, copper and earthenware are fairly numerous and ivory carving is carried on at Amritsar and in the Patiala State and Muzaffargarh District. Mineral Oil is being extracted and refined in the Attock District and a cement industry has been started.

Administration.

Prior to the passing of the Indian Reform Act of 1919 the system of administration was that of a Lieutenant-Governor, drawn from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under that Act the Province was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers, the Governor in Council being in charge of the Reserved Subjects and the Governor with his Ministers of the Transferred Subjects. The general system of provincial administration under this scheme is sketched in the section Provincial Governments (p. 9) where is also given a list of the Reserved and Transferred Subjects. Associated with the Governor and the Council and Ministers is an enlarged Legislative Council, with wide powers, whose scope and authority are given under the Legislative Councils (p. 9), the system being common to all the major Provinces. The business of Government is carried on through the usual Secretariat which consists of four Secretaries, designated (1) Chief, (2) Home, (3) Financial Secretaries and Secretary, Transferred Departments, one Deputy Secretary and two Under-Secretaries. The post of Revenue Secretary has been held in abeyance temporarily and the work hitherto done by that officer has been transferred to the Financial Commissioners who have been designated Secretaries to Government in the Revenue and Development Departments. In the Public Works Department, there are also three Secretaries (Chief Engineers), one in the Buildings and Roads Branch and two in the Irrigation Branch. The heads of the Police and Educational Departments are also Under-Secretaries to Government. The Government spends the winter in Lahore and the summer (from the middle of May to the middle of October) in Simla. Under the Governor, the province is administered by five Commissioners (for Am-

bals, Jullunder, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan) who exercise general control over the Deputy Commissioners—29 in number—each of whom is in charge of a district.

The principal heads of Department in the province are the two Financial Commissioners (who are the highest Court of Revenue jurisdiction) and heads of the departments of Land and Separate Revenue and of Agriculture and the Court of Wards), the three Chief Engineers, the Inspector General of Police, the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Directors of Agriculture and Industries, the Inspector General of Registration, the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Joint Stock Companies and the Legal Remembrancer.

Justice

The administration of justice is entrusted to a High Court, which is the final appellate authority in civil and criminal cases, and has powers of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences and original civil jurisdiction in special cases. The Court sits at Lahore and is composed of a Chief Justice and six puisne judges (either Civilian or barristers), and four additional judges. Subordinate to the High Court are the District and Sessions Judges (22 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a civil and sessions division comprising one or more districts. In districts in which the Frontier Crimes Regulation is in force the Deputy Commissioner on the finding of a Council of Elders (Jirga) may pass sentence up to four years imprisonment.

Local Self Government

Local Self-Government is secured in certain branches of the administration by the constitution of District Boards each exercising authority over a district, of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees each exercising authority over an Urban area, and of Panchayat, each exercising authority over a revenue estate or a compact group of revenue estates. The funds of District Boards are derived from a cess on the land revenue of the district supplemented by Government grants, profession taxes and miscellaneous fees and those of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees from octroi and in some cases other forms of taxation and Government grants. The Panchayat is an attempt to revive the traditional village community, the elected committee or Panchayat possessing certain powers in respect of taxation, local option, civil and criminal justice and other matters. The elective principle is now practically universal in all classes of local self governing bodies. Under the reformed system of Government the public has begun to show considerable interest in elections.

Police.

The Police force is divided into District and Railway Police. The combined force is under the control of the Inspector General, who is a member of the Gasetted force and has under him three Deputy Inspector Generals and a fourth Deputy Inspector-General in charge of Criminal Investigation Department and Finger Print Bureau at Phillaur. There is a Police Training School at Phillaur controlled by a Principal of the rank of Superintendent of Police. The Railway Police are under an Assistant Inspector General. The District Police are controlled by Superintendents, each of whom is in charge of a district and has under him one or more Assistant Superintendents or Deputy Superintendents.

Education.

The strides which have been made in the past ten years especially in the concluding years of the period have brought the Punjab in line with the older and more forward provinces. What is still more noteworthy is that the advance is not confined to any one form of education but is spread over all grades and varieties. In addition to institutions scattered over the entire province through private liberality, Government maintains three arts colleges, one central training college, one arts college for women, and the Government Training Class for Europeans at Ghoragall, 26 normal schools for teachers of both sexes, 55 secondary schools for boys and girls, a reformatory school and 13 centres for vocational training. Apart from these institutions for general education, Government maintains seven higher grade professional institutions, viz., the Lyallpur Agricultural College, the medical and veterinary colleges at Lahore, the school of engineering at Rasool the Mayo school of arts and the Railway technical school, Lahore, and the MacLagan Engineering College, Moghalpura.

The Department of Education is in charge of the Minister for Education who is assisted in the work of administration by the Director of Public Instruction. The Punjab University controls higher education.

Forests

Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands the total extent of which is about 8,700 square miles.

Medical.

The Medical Department is controlled by the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals (a member of the Indian Medical Service). The Department of Public Health is controlled by Director of Public Health (also a member of the Indian Medical Service) who for the present has under him three Assistant Directors of Public Health and is advised by the Sanitary Board, with the Sanitary Engineer as Technical Adviser.

HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1924-25	HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1924-25
REVENUE RECEIPTS	(In thousands of Rupees)	Buildings and Roads	(In thousands of Rupees)
<i>Principal Heads of Revenue</i>		XXX—Civil Works	3,79
II—Taxes on Income	3,78	<i>Miscellaneous</i>	
V—Land Revenue	3,19,95	XXXII—Transfers from Insurance Fund	
<i>Deduct—Sale of waste lands and Government estates</i>	—33,95	XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	14,48
VI—Excise	1,01,31	XXXIV—Stationery and Printing	68
VII—Stamps	96,00	XXXV—Miscellaneous	32,05
VIII—Forest	42,68	<i>Deduct—Sale of town sites</i>	—5 50
IX—Registration	8 50	Total	41,66
Total	5,18 17	<i>Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments</i>	
<i>Irrigation</i>		XI—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.	.
XIII—Irrigation—Works for which capital accounts are kept	5,71,07	Total Revenue Receipts	10,38,22
<i>Deduct—Working Expenses</i>	—1,82 82	CAPITAL RECEIPTS	
XIV—Irrigation—Works for which no capital accounts are kept	4,10	Sale of waste lands and Government estates	33,95
Total	4,12 35	Sale of town sites	5,50
<i>Debt Services</i>		Permanent debt incurred	1,50,00
XVI—Interest	4, 3	Famine Insurance Fund	.
<i>Civil Administration</i>		Loans and Advances	12,88
XVII—Administration of Justice	9 48	Total Capital Receipts	2,02,33
XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements	4,28	Balance	1,17,56
XIX—Police	1 20	Deposits to Sinking Fund	25,00
XXVI—Miscellaneous Departments	1 54	Temporary Debt Revenue	4,87
Total	16,50	Temporary Debt Capital	
<i>Beneficent Departments</i>		Total Receipts	13,87,98
XXI—Education	10,87	Revenue deficit met from Balance	
XXII—Medical	2,13	Revenue deficit met from Advance from Government of India	29,87
XXIII—Public Health	1,15		
• XXIV—Agriculture	7 15		
XXV—Industries	17		
Total	21,52		

HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget, Estimate, 1924-25	HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1924-25
<i>(In thousands of Rupees)</i>		<i>(In thousands of Rupees)</i>	
EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE		Buildings and Roads	
<i>Direct demands on the Revenue</i>		41—Civil Works { Reserved 1,15	
5—Land Revenue	44,40	{ Transferred 87,80	
6—Excise	4,87	Total 88,45	
7—Stamps	2,27		
8—Forests	29,45	Miscellaneous	
9—Registration	1,12	43—Famine Relief and Insurance 3,81	
Total 81,61		45—Superannuation and Pensions 40,68	
<i>Irrigation Revenue Accounts</i>		46—Stationery and Printing 9,61	
14—Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept (Interest on debt)	92,04	47—Miscellaneous (Reserved) 3,96	
15—Miscellaneous Irrigation Expenditure	17,14	47—Miscellaneous (Transferred) 12,80	
Total 1,09,18		Total 79,86	
<i>Irrigation Capital Account charged to Revenue</i>		Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments	
16—Irrigation Works		51—Contribution and Assignment to Central Government 1,75,00	
Debt Services		52—Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments 71	
19—Interest on Ordinary Debt 11,76		Total 1,75,71	
21—Sinking Funds 25,00		Civil Contingencies Fund 1,50	
Total 36,76		Total Expenditure charged to Revenue 10,68,09	
Civil Administration		CAPITAL EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE	
22—General Administration (Reserved) 1,04,49		52 A—Forest Capital Expenditure 13	
22—General Administration (Transferred) 1,33		55—Construction of Irrigation Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works 1,01,30	
24—Administration of Justice 53,07			
25—Jails and Convict Settlements 31,63		56 C—Industrial Development—Capital Expenditure 2,00	
26—Police 1,12,17		56 D—Hydro Electric Scheme—Capital Expenditure 35,47	
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Reserved) 59		60—Civil Works—Capital Expenditure 61,41	
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Transferred) 3,29		60-A—Other Provincial Works—Capital Expenditure	
Total 3,06,57		Permanent debt discharged	
Beneficent Departments		Temporary debt discharged	
10—Clerical Departments 32		Loans and Advances (Reserved) 7,64	
11—Education (Reserved) 6,79		Loans and Advances (Transferred) 17,00	
1—Education (Transferred) 1,05,28		Payment made to Central Government on account of balance of Provincial Loan Account	
2—Medical 82,08		Loans between Central and Provincial Governments	
3—Public Health 10,70		Deposits, Advances, Suspense	
4—Agriculture 33,69		Total Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue 3,14,95	
5—Industries 8,53		Balance 4,94	
Total 1,07,45		Total Disbursements 13,87,98	

Administration.

Governor, Sir Malcolm Hailey, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

PERSONAL STAFF

Private Secretary, Major G O S Black, O.B.E.
Aide-de-Camp, Capt. K. O'Brien Harding, O.B.E.
 and Capt R St B Emmolt
Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Hon. Lieut. Subedar-Major Sheo Lal Bahadur and Hon. Captain Risaldar Major Gul Nawaz Khan Haji Sardar Bahadur

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL

The Hon. Sir John Maynard
 The Hon. Sardar Bahadur Sardar Sunder Singh Majithia

MINISTERS

The Hon. Khan Bahadur Mian Fazil Husain
Minister for Edu.
 The Hon. Rao Bahadur Honorary Lieut. Chaudhri Lalchand, O.B.E. *Minister of Agriculture*

SECRETARIES

Chief Secretary, H D Craik, I.C.S.
Home Secretary, E G F Abraham, B.A., I.C.S.
Financial Secretary, Miles Irving, B.A., O.B.E., I.C.S.

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT*Irrigation Branch*

Secretary, W P Sangster, C.I.E., M.I.C.E.

Buildings and Roads Branch

Secretary, A S Montgomery

REVENUE DEPARTMENT

Financial Commissioner, O M King, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Director of Industries, E A Scott, O.B.E.

Director of Agriculture, D Milne, B.Sc.

Inspector Genl of Registration, H K Trevaaskis, O.B.E., I.C.S.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS,

Director of Public Instruction, G Anderson, M.A., C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Police, L. L. Tomkins, C.I.E.

Conservator of Forests, J W A. Grievae.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Lt.-Col. E L Ward, O.B.E., I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. W H C Foster, M.B., D.F.H., I.M.S.

Inspector General of Prisons, Major A W Greig, I.M.S.

Accountant-General, C W Carson, O.B.E.

Postmaster-General, J R. T. Booth

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB

Sir John Lawrence, Bart., G.O.B. 1859

Sir Robert Montgomery, K.O.B. 1859

Donald Friell McClood, O.B. 1865

Major General Sir Henry Durand, 1870
 K.O.S.I. O.B. died at Tonk, January 1871

R H Davies, C.S.I. 1871

R E Egerton, C.S.I. 1877

Sir Charles U. Althclison, K.C.S.I., 1882
 C.I.E.

James Broadwood Lyall 1887

Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick, K.C.S.I. 1892

William Mackworth Young, C.S.I. 1897

Sir C M Rivaz, K.C.S.I. 1902

Sir D C J Ibbetson, K.C.S.I., resigned
 22nd January 1908

I G Walker, C.S.I. (offg.) 1907

Sir Louis W. Dane, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. 1908

James McCrone Doule (offg.) 1911

Sir M F O Dwyer, K.C.S.I. 1913

Sir Edward MacLagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. 1918

GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB.

Sir Edward MacLagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. 1920

Sir Malcolm Hailey, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1924

PUNJAB LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

The Hon. Mr H A Casson, C.S.I., President

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS AND MINISTERS

The Hon. Sir John Maynard, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Finance Member

The Hon. Sardar Bahadur Sardar Sunder Singh, Majithia, C.I.E., Revenue Member

The Hon. Khan Bahadur Mian Fazil Husain Minister for Education (Muhammadan Landholders)

The Hon. Rao Bahadur Honorary Lieutenant Chaudhri Lal Chand, O.B.E., Minister for Agriculture, North-West Rohtak (Non Muhammadan), Rural

OFFICIALS NOMINATED

Anderson, Sir G. St., C.I.E., Director of Public Instruction, Punjab

Boyd, Mr D J., Home Secretary to Government, Punjab

Coldstream, Mr J., Legal Remembrancer and Secretary to Government, Punjab

Legislative Department

Craik, Mr H. D., C.S.I., Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab

Foster, Lt.-Col. W C H., I.M.S., Director of Public Health, Punjab.

Blaschock, Mr A D, F.C.S., F.L.S., I.P.S., Chief Conservator of Forests, Punjab
 Heard, Colonel R, I.M.S., Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, Punjab
 Irving Mr Miles, Secretary to Government, Punjab, Finance Department
 King, Mr C M, C.I.E., C.S.I., Financial Commissioner and Secretary to Government,
 Punjab, Revenue Department

Latiff, Mr A, O.B.E., Secretary to Government, Punjab, Transferred Departments
 Sangster, Mr W P, C.I.E., M.I.C.E., Chief Engineer, Irrigation
 Scott, Mr E A, Director of Industries
 Stainton, Mr V, Chief Engineer, P W D Buildings and Roads Branch.
 Ward, Lt Col E L, I.M.S., Inspector General of Civil Hospitals

NON-OFFICIALS NOMINATED

Musaffar Khan, Lt, Malik of Wan Bachran
 Davidson, Lieut-Col D M, C.I.E., I.M.S., (Retired), Representative of European and
 Anglo-Indian Communities
 Gopal Das, Bhandari, Rai Bahadur, Sir Et, C.I.E., M.B.E.
 Jawahir Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar
 Maya Das, Mr Ernest, Representative of Indian Christians
 Mehdi Shah, Khan Bahadur Sayad, C.I.E., O.B.E.
 Owen, Dr C A, Representative of Anglo Indian Community

ELECTED

Name of member	Constituency
Abdul Asis, Mian	Lahore City (Muhammadan), Urban
Abdul Qadir, Khan Bahadur Shaikh	West Punjab Towns (Muhammadan), Urban
Afsal Haq, Chaudhri	Hoshiarpur-cum Ludhiana, Rural
Ali Akbar, Chaudhri	Kangra-cum Gurdaspur (Muhammadan), Rural
Bakhtawar Singh, Sardar	Hoshiarpur and Kangra (Sikh), Rural
Banke Rai, Lala, B.A., LL.B	South East Towns (Non Muhammadan), Urban
Bhagat Ram, Balzade	Jullundur-cum Ludhiana (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Bodh Raj, Lala, M.A., LL.B	West Punjab Towns (Non Muhammadan), Urban
Bute Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B	Multan Division and Sheikhpura (Sikh), Rural
Chhotu Ram, Rai Sahib Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B	South East Rohtak (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Dan Singh, Sardar	Amritsar (Sikh), Rural
Dhanpat Rai, Rai Bahadur, Lala	Chairman, Punjab National Bank, Ltd (Pun- jab Industries)
Dhan Raj, Bhasin, Captain, M.B., B.S	East and West Central Towns (Non Muhamma- dan), Urban
Diwan Chand, Lala	Amritsar City (Non Muhammadan)
Duli Chand, Chaudhri	Karnal (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Fak Muhammad, Shaikh, B.A., LL.B	Dera Ghazi Khan (Muhammadan), Rural
Farman Ali Khan, Subedar Major	Rawalpindi (Muhammadan), Rural
Fazl Ali, Khan Bahadur Chaudhri, M.B.E	Gujrat East (Muhammadan), Urban.
Firoz Khan, Naon, Malik	Sheikhpur East (Muhammadan), Rural
Firoz-ud-din Khan, Bana, B.A., LL.B	South East Towns (Muhammadan), Urban
Ganga Ram, Rai Sahib Lala, B.A., LL.B	Ambala-cum Simla (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Ghulam Muhammad, Chaudhri	Gujrat West (Muhammadan), Rural
Gokul Chand Narang, Dr, M.A., Ph.D	North-West Towns (Non Muhammadan) Urban
Gray, Mr V F	Punjab Chamber of Commerce and Trades Association, Commerce

Name of member	Constituency
Gurbaksh Singh, Sardar	Ambala Division (Sikh), Rural
Hajhet Khana, Daba, M.	Multan East (Muhammadan), Rural
Har Ohsad Singh, Sardar	Lyallpur (Sikh), Rural
Husain Shah, Sayad	Jhang (Muhammadan), Rural
Jodh Singh, Sardar	(Sikh), Urban
Karam Nahi, Khan Bahadur Chaudhri, M.B.	Gujranwala (Muhammadan), Rural
Kesar Singh, Chaudhri	Amritsar-cum-Gurdaspur, Rural
Khan Muhammad, Khan, Wagha, Malik	Sheikhupura (Muhammadan), Rural
Mangal Singh, Sardar	Sikh Landholders
Maqbool Mahmood, Mir	Amritsar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Madhar Ali Ashar, M., B.A., LL.B.	East and West Central Town (Muhammadan)
Mohan Lal, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	Urban
Mohan Lal Bhatnagar, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	North-East Towns (Non Muhammadan), Urban
Mohinder Singh, Sardar	Lahore and Ferozepore-cum-Sheikhupura (Non-Muhammadan)
Muhammad Abdullah Khan, Khan	Ludhiana (Sikh), Rural
Muhammad Husain, Sayad	Muzaffargarh, (Muhammadan), Rural
Muhammad Jamal Khan, Khan Bahadur, Sardar	Montgomery (Muhammadan), Rural
Muhammad Mehr Shah, Nawab Sayad	Baloch Tumandar (Landholders)
Muhammad Raza Shah, Ghani, Makhdumsada	Jhelum (Muhammadan), Rural
Muhammad Saif Ullah Khan, Khan	Multan West (Muhammadan), Rural
Muhammad Shaf Ali Khan, Chaudhri	Mianwali (Muhammadan), Rural
Muhammad Shah Nawaz, Mian	Ambala Division North-East (Muhammadan), Rural
Muhammad Sharif, Mian	Lahore (Muhammadan), Rural
Mumtas Muhammad, Khan, Tiwana, Captain	Amritsar City (Muhammadan), Urban
Najib-ud-Din Khan, Chaudhri	Shahpur West (Muhammadan), Rural
Napak Chand, Pandit, M.A.	Ferozepore (Muhammadan) Rural
Narsain Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Hoshiarpur (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Narindra Nath, Diwan Bahadur Raja	Rawalpindi Division and Gujranwala (Sikh), Rural
Niranjan Das, Diwan	Punjab Landholders (General)
Nihal Chand, Sikri, Lala, L.M. & S.	Rawalpindi Division and Lahore Division
Nur Din, Chaudhri	North (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Pattap Singh, Jamadar	Lahore City (Non Muhammadan)
Pohap Singh, Rao, M.A., LL.B.	Lyallpur South (Muhammadan), Rural
Ram Singh, Chaudhri	Jullunder (Sikh), Rural
Randhir Singh, Sardar, Kalaswala	Gurgaon (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Ruchi Ram Sahni, Lala, M.A.	Kangra (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Saadullah Khan, Chaudhri, B.A.	Siakot-cum-Gurdaspur (Sikh), Rural
Sahib Dad Khan, Chaudhri	Punjab University
Sangat Singh, Sardar, Kulla	Jullundur (Muhammadan), Rural
Sewak Ram, Rai Bahadur Lala	Gurgaon-cum-Hissar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Shahab-ud-din, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Lahore (Sikh), Rural.
Shahadat Khan Rai	Multan Division (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Sham Lal, Lala	Siakot (Muhammadan), Rural.
Sikander Hayat Khan, Lieut. Sardar, M.B.	Lyallpur North (Muhammadan), Rural
Tara Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Hissar (Non Muhammadan), Rural.
	Artock (Muhammadan), Rural
	Ferozepore (Sikh), Rural.

Sardar Abascha Singh, Secretary, Legislative Council.

Bakim Ahmed Shuja, Assistant Secretary, Legislative Council.

Burma.

The Province of Burma lies between Assam on the North-West and China on the North-East, and between the Bay of Bengal on the West and South-West and Siam on the South-East. Its area, including the district of Putao constituted in February 1914, is approximately 263,000 square miles, of which 184,000 are under direct British Administration, 16,000 are unadministered and 63,000 belong to semi-independent Native States. The main geographical feature of the country is the series of rivers and hills running fan like from North to South with fertile valleys in between, widening and flattening out as they approach the Delta. Differences of elevation and rainfall produce great variations in climate. The coastal tracts of Arakan and Tenasserim have a rainfall of about 200 inches, the Delta less than half that amount. The hot season is short and the monsoon breaks early. The maximum shade temperature is about 96°, the minimum about 60°. North of the Delta the rainfall decreases rapidly to 30 inches in the central dry zone which lies in a "rain shadow" and has a climate resembling that of Bihar. The maximum temperature is twenty degrees higher than in the wet zone, but this is compensated by a bracing cold season. To the north and east of the dry zone lie the Kachin hills and the Shan plateau. The average elevation of this tableland is 8,000 feet with peaks rising to 9,000. Consequently it enjoys a temperate climate with a rainfall of about 70 inches on the average. Its area is over 50,000 square miles. There is no other region of similar area in the Indian Empire so well adapted for European colonisation. The magnificent rivers, the number of hilly ranges (Yomas) and the abundance of forests, all combine to make the scenery of Burma exceedingly varied and picturesque.

The People

The total population of Burma at the census of 1921 was 13,169,099. There were 8,382,335 Burmans, 1,017,987 Shans, 1,220,356 Karens, 146,845 Kachins, 288,847 Chins, 800,700 Arakanese and 323,509 Talings. There is also a large alien population of 149,060 Chinese and 887,077 Indians while the European and Anglo-Indian population numbered 25,005.

The Burmans, who form the bulk of the population, belong to the Tibetan group and their language to the Tibeto-Chinese family. They are essentially an agricultural people, 80 per cent of the agriculture of the country being in their hands. The Burmese, and most of the hill tribes also, profess Buddhism, but Animism, or the worship of nature spirits, is almost universal. The interest taken by the Burmese in the course of the war, their response to the call for recruits and their generous contributions to war loans and charitable funds seem to show that their sympathy towards the government of the country is giving way to an intelligent loyalty to British rule.

In appearance the Burman is usually somewhat short and thick set with Mongolian features. His dress is most distinctive and exceedingly comfortable. It consists of a silk

handkerchief bound round his forehead, a loose jacket on his body and a long skirt or loongi tied round his waist, reaching to his ankles. The Burmese women, perhaps the most pleasing type of womanhood in the East, lead a free and open life, playing a large part in the household economy and in petty trading. Their dress is somewhat similar to the men's minus the silk kerchief on the head and the loongi is tucked in at the side instead of being tied in front. A well dressed and well groomed Burmese lady would, for grace and neatness, challenge comparison with any woman in the world.

Communications.

The Irrawaddy, and to a less extent the Chindwin, afford great natural thoroughfares to the country. At all seasons of the year these rivers especially the Irrawaddy, are full of sailing and steam craft. In the Delta the net work of waterways is indeed practically the only means of communication. The Irrawaddy Flotilla Company, with a fleet of mail, cargo and ferry boats, gives the Irrawaddy and the Delta rivers and creeks a splendid river service.

The Burma Railways Company has a length of 1,668 miles open line. The principal lines are from Rangoon to Mandalay from Rangoon to Myitkyina, the most northern point in the system, the Rangoon Promer line, and the Pegu-Martaban line, which serves Moulmein on the further bank of the Salween River.

Industry

Agriculture is the chief industry of the province and supports nearly three-fourths of the population. The nett total cropped area is 15½ million acres of which more than half a million acres are cropped more than once. Irrigation works supply water to nearly 1½ million acres. India is very largely dependent on Burma for her supplies of kerosene, benzine and petrol which rank second to rice in order of importance. Teak wood is exported in large quantities from Burma to India.

Forests play an important part in the industrial life of the Province. The forest reserves cover 30,000 square miles, while unclassified forests are estimated at about 115,000 square miles. Government extracts some 107,000 tons of teak annually, private firms, of whom the Bombay Burma Trading Corporation and Steel Brothers are the chief extract over 544,000 tons. Other timber extracted by license amounts to over 431,000 tons and firewood over 524,000 tons.

The war gave a great impetus to the extraction of tin and wolfram in the Tavoy and Mergui Districts. Since the War, there has been a very poor market for wolfram and the price of tin has been subject to considerable fluctuations. Wolfram and tin are found together in most mining areas in Tavoy, the proportion varying from almost pure tin to almost pure wolfram. In order to help the tin and wolfram industries to tide over the period of depression, the Local Government in 1921 made

tioned a scheme by which Government guaranteed advances made by the Bank against stocks of these metals. The scheme came to an end early in 1923.

In addition further help was given to these industries by the remission from the 1st January 1921 to the 14th February 1923 of fees, rents and royalties due from tin and wolfram concessions. Notwithstanding these concessions, many mines have been closed down. Silver, lead and zinc ore are extracted by the Burma Corporation at Bawdwin in the Northern Shan States. Copper in small quantities is also found there. There are small deposits of Molybdenite in Tavoy and Mergui and of platinum in Myitkyina. The output of precious stones from the ruby mines has declined. Gold dredging in the Myitkyina District has proved unprofitable and the company has been wound up. From the mines in the Hukong valley jade and amber are won. The oldest and largest oil field in the province is at Yenangyaung in Magwe district where the Burma Oil Company has its chief wells. But borings in other districts have shown that the oil-bearing strata extend over a large part of the dry zone, and the output from the smaller fields in Pakokku and Minbu districts is now considerable, while the wells sunk in Thayemyi district are also showing satisfactory returns. Two-thirds of the total production comes from the Yenangyaung field. The Burma Oil Company take their oil to the refineries at Rangoon by pipe line from Singu and Yenangyaung. Other companies take it down by river flats. The area under rubber is 79,000 acres.

Manufactures

There are 882 factories, over three-fifths of which are engaged in milling rice and over one-fourth are sawmills. The remainder are chiefly cotton spinning mills, oil mills for the extraction of oil from groundnuts, and oil saweries connected with the petroleum industry. The average daily number of operatives is nearly 80,000. At the Census of 1921, 1,935,729 or 25.48 per cent of the total population were engaged outside agriculture and production.

As in the case in other parts of the Indian Empire, the imported and factory-made article is rapidly ousting the home-made and indigenous. But at Amarapura in the Mandalay District a revival has taken place of hand silk weaving. Burmese wood-carving is still famous and many artists in silver still remain the finish of whose work is sometimes very fine. Rassein and Mandalay parrots are well known and much admired in Burma. But perhaps the most famous of all hand made and indigenous in countries is the lacquer work of Pagan with its delicate patterns in black green and yellow traced on a ground-work of red lacquer over banded. A new art is the making of bronze figures. The artists have gone back to nature for their models, breaking away from the conventionalized forms into which their silver work had crystallized, and the new figures display a vigour and life that make them by far the finest examples of art the province can produce.

Administration.

Burma, which was at that time administered as a Lieutenant-Governorship, was deliberately excluded from the operation of the Reform Act of 1919. It was felt that the Province differed so markedly from the other Provinces in the Indian Empire that its requirements should be separately considered. After repeated discussions the question was referred to a special Burma Reforms Committee, which in 1922 recommended that all the essential provisions of the Reform Act should be applied to the Province. This recommendation was accepted and its proposals became law. Under this Act Burma became a Governor's Province, with an executive council and ministers, and conforms to the provinces created under the Act of 1919 (q.v.). The main difference is in the size of the electorate. Under the franchise accepted, the rural electorate is estimated at 1,500,000 and the urban electorate has been put as high as a million, though that is probably an exaggeration. The Legislative Council consists of 104 members, of which 79 are elected and the balance nominated. Owing to the special status of women in Burma, female franchise was adopted from the beginning.

Burma is divided administratively into Upper Burma (including the Shan States and Chin Hills) and Lower Burma. The Shan States are administered by the Chiefs of the States, subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, N. E. F. Division, and the Superintendents in the case of the Northern and Southern Shan States, which were formed into a Federation on the 1st October 1922, and are designated the F. S. States; and to the supervision of the Commissioners of the adjoining Divisions in the case of the other States. The Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration is vested in the Chief of the State, subject to the restrictions contained in the sanad. The law administered is the customary law of the State.

Under the Governor are eight Commissioners of divisions, three in Upper and five in Lower Burma.

Justice

The administration of Civil and Criminal Justice is under the control of the High Court of Judicature at Rangoon, which consists of a Chief Justice and seven other Judges. The Superior Judicial Service consists of District and Sessions Judges, there are also separate Provincial and Subordinate Judicial Services.

All village headmen have limited magisterial powers and a considerable number are also invested with civil jurisdiction to a limited extent.

In pursuance of the policy of decentralization steps were taken in 1917 to restore to the village headmen the power and influence which they possessed in Burmese times before the centralising tendencies of British rule made them practically subordinate officers of the administration.

Public Works.

This Department is administered by two Chief Engineers who are also Secretaries to Government in the Public Works Department. There are nine permanent Superintending

Engineers (i.e., 7 for Buildings and Roads and 2 for Irrigation) and 79 Executive Engineers and Assistant Executive Engineers. In addition there are 2 temporary posts of Superintending Engineer (1 for Irrigation and the other in connection with Communications in the Province). There are also a Consulting Architect, Electrical Inspector, and Superintending Engineer, Department of Public Health (Specialist posts), the incumbents of which are stationed at Headquarters.

Police

The Police Force is divided into Civil, Military and Rangoon Town Police. The first two are under the control of the Inspector General of Police, the latter is under the orders of the Commissioner of Police, Rangoon, an officer of the rank of Deputy Inspector General. There is a Dy. Inspector General, Administration in charge of administrative detail of the Civil Police, and four other Deputy Inspectors General, one each for the Eastern and Western Range, one for the Railway and Criminal Investigation Department and one for the Military Police.

A special feature of Burma is the Military Police. Its officers are deputed from the Indian Army. The rank and file are recruited from natives of India with a few Kachins, Karens and Shans. The experiment of recruiting Burmese on a small scale has been successful. The organisation is military, the force being divided into battalions. The object of the force is to supplement the regular troops in Burma. Their duties, apart from their military work, is to provide escorts for specie, prisoners, etc., and guards for Treasuries, Jails and Courts.

Education

At the head is the Director of Public Instruction with an Assistant Director, both belonging to the Indian Educational Service. There are nine Inspectors of Schools drawn from the Indian Educational Service, while the Burma Educational Service provides eight Assistant Inspectors. A University for Burma has been established in Rangoon.

A remarkable feature of education in Burma is the system of elementary education evolved, generations ago, by the genius of the people. Nearly every village has a monastery (hpoongyi-kvaung), every monastery is a village school and every Burman boy must in accordance with his religion, attend that school, shaving his head and for the time wearing the yellow robe. At the hpoongyi kyaungs the boys are taught reading and writing and an elementary native system of arithmetic. The result is that there are very few boys in Burma who are not able to read and write.

Medical

The control of the Medical Department is vested in an Inspector General of Civil Hospitals. Under him are 41 Civil Surgeons. There is also a Director of Public Health, two Assistant Directors of Public Health, an Inspector General of Prisons, three whole time Superintendents of Prisons, a Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist and a Superintendent of the Lunatic Asylum.

The Pasteur Institute was opened in Rangoon in July 1915. The Director is a senior member of the Indian Medical Service.

THE FINANCES OF BURMA

In common with the other Provinces of India, the financial arrangements between the Government of India and the Government of Burma underwent a remodelling in consequence of the reconstitution of the Province on the lines of the other Indian Provinces. The Province obtained substantial financial independence. The present position is set out in the following statement—

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25

<i>Principal Heads of Revenue</i>	<i>Rs</i>
Taxes on Income	3,46,000
Land Revenue	5,27,00,000
Excise	1,20,00,000
Stamps	58,50,000
Forest	1,88,00,000
Registration	6,00,000
Total	9,00,96,000
<i>Irrigation, Navigation, Embankments, etc</i>	
Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	20,00,000
Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	19,00,000
Total	39,00,000
Interest	11,00,000

	<i>Civil Administration.</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
Administration of Justice		9,59,000
Jails and Convict Settlements		4,70,000
Police		5,00,000
Ports and Pilotage		1,00,000
Education		4,50,000
Medical		1,70,000
Public Health		40,000
Agriculture		50,000
Industries		8,000
Miscellaneous Departments		1,51,000
	Total	28,84,000
Civil Works		7,30,000
	<i>Miscellaneous</i>	
Receipts in aid of Superannuation		90,000
Stationery and Printing		95,000
Miscellaneous		1,50,000
	Total	3,35,000
XL Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Government		3 00 000
	Total Revenue	9 93,45,000
	<i>Debt Heads</i>	
Famine Insurance Fund		78,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments		33,34,000
	Total Deposit and Advances	34,07,000
	Opening Balance	3,09,49,000
	Grand Total	13,37,01,000
ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1921-25		
<i>Direct Demands on the Revenue</i>		
Taxes on Income		59 25,000
Land Revenue		18,58,000
Excise		1,70,000
Stamps		1,00 01,00
Forest		1,53,000
Registration		
	Total	1,81,64,000
State Railways		11 71,000
Miscellaneous Railway Expenditure		38,000
Construction of Railways		55,59,000
Interest on work for which Capital Accounts are left		18,51,000
	<i>Irrigation, Embankment, etc., Revenue Accounts</i>	
Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue		36,99,000
	<i>Irrigation, Embankment, etc., Capital Account (Charged to Revenue)</i>	
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works		14,99,000
Interest on ordinary debt		—25,22,000
	<i>Civil Administration</i>	
General Administration		95,49,000
Administration of Justice		55,40,000
Jail and Convict Settlements		27,29,000
Police		1,44,38,000
Ports and Pilotage		30,79,000
Scientific Departments		70,000
Education		80,18,000
Medical		39,67,000
Public Health		11,14,000
Agriculture		21,50,000
Industries		5,75,000
Miscellaneous Departments		3,27,000
	Total	5,15,42,600

Currency, Mint and Exchange.

Rs.

Exchange on Transactions with London

Civil Works

Civil Works 2,26,91,000

Miscellaneous

Famine Relief and Insurance	67,000
Superannuation allowance and Pensions	32,43,000
Stationery and Printing	10,45,000
Miscellaneous	25,40,000
	<hr/> 68,95,000
Contributions and assignments to the Central Government by Provincial Governments	64,00,000
	<hr/>
Miscellaneous adjustment between the Central and Provincial Governments	1,84,000

Debt Heads

Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments 54,10,000

Total 12,21,08,000

Deduct probable savings —55,97,000

11,65,11,000

Closing balance 1,71,90,000

Grand Total 13,37,01,000

Administration.

Governor, Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.B.I.

Private Secretary Capt Victor F Gamble

Aide-de Camp, Capt. A D G S Batty, M.V.O.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Capt A St Clair Bowden R.I.M. Lt-Col B H Heald, V.D., and Major H H McGaun

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Subadar Major and Hon Lt Bhagbir Yakha, Bahadur, Nalib Commandant Sarraa Singh, Sardar Bahadur, and Nalib Commandant Jalal Din, Khan Bahadur

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Mr William John Keith, M.A. C.I.E., I.C.S.

The Hon'ble Sir Maung Kin, K.C.I.E. Barrister at Law

Ministers.

The Hon'ble Mr Joseph Augustus Maung Gyl, Barrister-at-Law

The Hon'ble Mr Maung Gye, M.A., Barrister at-Law

SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary, F Lewisohn, C.B.E.

Revenue Secretary, (Offg) W Booth-Gravely, M.A., I.C.S.

Secretary, P W D (Irrigation Branch), J D Stuart, A.M., I.C.S.

Secretary, P W D (Buildings and Roads Branch),

H L Holman Hunt, C.I.E.

Financial Commissioner, W E Lawry, B.A., I.C.S.

Registrar, K M Basu B.A.

Miscellaneous Appointments

Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, J S Furnivall, B.A., I.C.S. (on leave)

Director of Agriculture, Andrew McKerral, M.A.

Consulting Architect E J Pullar

Superintendent and Political Officer, Southern Shan States, W F Grahame, I.C.S.

Superintendent and Political Officer, Northern Shan States, Major H H Batten, I.A.

Director of Public Instruction, O A. Snow, M.A.

Inspector General of Police, Lt. Col R W Macdonald, D.S.O.

Chief Conservator of Forests, F A Leste, F.C.S.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col Peter Des, M.B., I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Major G G Jolly, M.B., C.B.E., C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt Col H H G Knap

Commissioner of Excise, J Maung Shive Zan Aung, B.A.

Accountant General, P G Jacob, B.A.

Postmaster-General, F T de Monte.

Chief Commissioners of Burma.		Alexander Mackenzie, C.S.I.	1890
Lieut.-Colonel A P Phayre, C.B.	1862	D M Smeaton	1892
Colonel A Fytche, C.S.I.	1867	Sir F W R Fryer, K.C.S.I.	1895
Lieut. Colonel B D Ardagh	1870	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.	Baron
The Hon Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	1871	Lieutenant-Governors of Burma.	
A B Thompson, C.S.I.	1876	Sir F W R Fryer K.C.S.I.	1897
C U Atchison, C.S.I.	1878	Sir H S Barnes, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O.	1903
C E Bernard, C.S.I.	1880	Sir H F White, K.C.I.E.	1905
C H T Crosthwaite	1883	Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt., K.C.S.I., LL.D.	1910
Sir C E Bernard, K.C.S.I.	1886	Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1915
C H T Crosthwaite, C.S.I.	1887	Sir Reginald Craddock, K.C.S.I.	1917
A P MacDonnell, C.S.I. (a)	1889	Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.	1922

SECRETARIES, DEPUTY SECRETARIES UNDER SECRETARIES, ETC., TO
GOVERNMENT

F Lewisham, C.B.F., M.A., I.C.S.	Chief Secretary, Home and Political Department
J D Stuart, A.M.I.C.E.	Secretary, Irrigation Branch, Public Works Department (Officiating) Also Officiating Chief Engineer
H L Holman Hunt O.I.E.	Secretary Buildings and Roads Branch, Public Works Department Also Chief Engineer
W Booth Gravely, M.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Finance and Revenue Department.
J Clague, B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary Education Local Government and Public Health Department (Officiating)
H O Reynolds B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Agricultural, Excise and Forest Department
Maung Gale (S), B.A.	Deputy Secretary Home and Political Department (Officiating)
A E H Killick, I.C.S.	Secretary to the Financial Commissioners, Burma <i>Ex officio</i> Deputy Secretary to Government, Department of Finance and Revenue
J K Stanford M.A., M.C., I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Home and Political Department
C F B Pearce B.A., I.C.S.	Under Secretary Finance and Revenue Department (Officiating)
D B Petch M.C., I.C.S.	Under Secretary Education Local Government and Public Health Department (Officiating)
W Q Faggart, M.C., I.C.S.	Under Secretary, Agricultural, Excise and Forests Department
W M Hayfield	Under Secretary, Irrigation Branch, Public Works Department (Officiating)
F Marshall B.Sc.	Under Secretary, Buildings and Roads Branch P W D
H C b Cherry B.Sc.	Additional Under Secretary, Buildings and Roads Branch, P W D
K M Basu, B.A.	Registrar, Chief Secretary's Office
J Sim	Registrar, Office of Secretary, Education Local Government and Public Health Department (Officiating)
C O Eigo	Registrar, Finance and Revenue Secretary's Office
B. B. Ghosh, B.A., B.L.	Registrar Office of Secretary, Agricultural, Excise and Forest Department
W J Peters	Registrar, Public Works Department

BURMA LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.**PRESIDENT.**

Sir Robert Sydney Giles, Kt, M A, Bar at-Law

DEPUTY PRESIDENT

Maung Ba Po, B.A

*Nominated Members***OFFICIALS**

The Hon'ble Sir William John Kelth, Kt, M A, C.I.F., I.C.S (ex-officio)

The Hon'ble Sir Maung Kin, Barrister at Law (ex-officio)

James MacKenna, M A, C.I.E., I.C.S

Charles Frederick Grant, M A, I.C.S

Henry Osborne Reynolds B A, I.C.S

Colonel Peter Dee, M.B., I.M.S

Charles Alfred Snow, M A

Lt-Col Roderick William Macdonald, D.S.O., I.A

John Emeris Houldev, B A, I.C.S

James Douglas Stuart, A.M.I.E., M.I.E

Frederick Levison, C.B.E., I.C.S

John Claque, B A, I.C.S

Walter Booth Gravesley, M A I.C.S

Charles Betram Smales, V.D

William Browne Brander, C.B.E., I.C.S

A. Eggar, M A, Bar-at-Law

NON OFFICIALS.

Hosain Hamadane, Merchant

Abdool Baree Chowdhury, Merchant

Francis Foster Goodliffe, Merchant

Dr Nasarwanji Nawroji Parakh, L.V.P. & L.M.S (Glas) L.S.A (Lon), Medical Practitioner

U Shwe Llay, Merchant

U. Ba Too, C.I.E., K.S.M

Taw Sein Ko, C.I.E., I.S.O.M., B.A.S

F. L. Bigg wither, Agent, B.S

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Name of Member	Name and class of constituency represented
Maung Shwe Tha, Bar-at-Law	Akyab Town (General Urban)
Maung Po Hla, C.I.E., K.S.M., & T.M., M.B.A.S	Bassein Town (General Urban)
Maung Ba Sein	Benzada Town (General Urban)
Maung E Maung	} Mandalay Town (General Urban)
Maung Suleman	
Maung Ba U	
Maung Chit Po	} Moulmein (General Urban)
Maung Chit Hla, Bar-at-Law	

Name of Member	Name and class of constituency represented.
Maung Myint The Hon'ble Mr J A Maung Gyi, Bar-at-Law Maung Ba Pe, B.A. (Deputy President)	Prome Town (General Urban) East Rangoon (General Urban)
L. Ah Yain, Bar-at-Law Maung Ba Dun, Bar-at-Law	West Rangoon (General Urban)
Saw Ba La E Nasumuddin Promotha Nath Chowdhury Mahomed Ayub Jan Mirza Mahomed Rafi, Bar-at-Law Avatapalli Narayana Rao, M.A. S M Kolanda, B.A.	Tavoy Town (General Urban) Akyab Indian Community (Indian Urban) Bassein Indian Community (Indian Urban) Mandalay Indian Community (Indian Urban) Moulmein Indian Community (Indian Urban) East Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban)
Mahomed Ausam, Bar-at-Law J K Munshi, Bar-at-Law Saw Pah Dwal, A.T.M., Bar-at-Law Maung Nu Maung Ba Kin, B.A. Maung Po Han Maung Pyu Maung Po Yin Si, B.A. Maung Saw Hla Aung Maung Ah Doe, Bar-at-Law Maung Tha Ban, B.S.M. Maung Po Hka Maung Ba Dun Maung Thin Maung Maung Tun Lin, T.P.S. Maung Ba Myin Maung Ba Gale Maung Nyein Maung Po Maung Ko Gyi Maung Po Pyu Maung Htein W S Lamb Maung Hla Maung Sein Maung Po Wun Maung Po Thaw Ebrahim Ahmed, M.B.B. Maung Ba Thi	West Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban) Amherst Karen Community (Karen Rural) Bassein Karen Community (Karen Rural) Ma-ubin Karen Community (Karen Rural) Myaungmya Karen Community (Karen Rural) Thaton Karen Community (Karen Rural) Amherst (General Rural) Akyab District East (General Rural) Akyab District West (General Rural) South Arakan (General Rural) Bassein District (General Rural) Hanthawaddy East (General Rural) Hanthawaddy West (General Rural) Henzada District North (General Rural) Henzada District South (General Rural) Insein (General Rural) Katha (General Rural) Kyaukse (General Rural) Lower Chindwin East (General Rural) Lower Chindwin West (General Rural) Magwe East (General Rural) Magwe West (General Rural) Mandalay District (General Rural) Ma-ubin (General Rural) Melktila East (General Rural) Melktila West (General Rural) Mergui (General Rural) Minbu (General Rural).

Name of Member	Name and class of constituency represented
aung Po Lu	Mayunginya (General Rural)
aung Than	Myingyan North (General Rural)
aung Mya	Myingyan South (General Rural)
aung Po Pe	Pakokku East (General Rural)
aung Me	Pakokku West (General Rural)
aung Lun Maung, A T M	Pegu North (General Rural)
aung Po Tha	Pegu South (General Rural)
aung Thein Maung, B A	Promé District (General Rural)
aung Sein	Pyapon (General Rural)
aung Thi	Sagaing East (General Rural)
aung Kyaw	Sagaing West (General Rural)
aung Ba Pe	Shwabo East (General Rural)
aung Paw Gywe	Shwabo West (General Rural)
hoo Hock Chwan	Tavoy District (General Rural)
aung Thaw	Tharrawaddy North (General Rural)
aung San Baw	Tharrawaddy South (General Rural)
aung Tun Pe, A T M	Thaton (General Rural)
aung Ba Thein, B A, B Sc, B L	Thavetmyo (General Rural)
aung Ba Cho, B A	Toungoo North (General Rural)
de Hon ble U Maung Gyee, M A, Bar at Law	Toungoo South (General Rural)
aung Gyi	Yamethin North (General Rural)
aung Pu, B A, Bar at Law	Yamethin South (General Rural)
Charles Haswell Campagnac, M.B.E., Bar at Law	Anglo Indian (Anglo Indian)
de la Glanville, O.B.E., Bar at Law Sinclair	European (European)
Alexander James Anderson, C S I	Burma Chamber of Commerce (Commerce)
aung Hla Pe	Do do
Chan Chor Khine	Burmese Chamber of Commerce (Commerce)
James Donald	Chinese Chamber of Commerce (Commerce)
N Chari, B.A., B.L.	Rangoon Trades Association (Chambers)
	Rangoon University

Bihar and Orissa.

Bihar and Orissa lies between 19°-02' and 27°-30' N latitude and between 82°-31' and 88°-26' E longitude and includes the three provinces of Bihar, Orissa and Chota Nagpur, and is bounded on the north by Nepal and the Darjeeling district of Bengal, on the east by Bengal and the Bay of Bengal, on the south by the Bay of Bengal and Madras, and on the west by the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and the Central Provinces.

The area of the British territories which constitute the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa is 83,181 square miles inclusive of the area of large rivers. In addition to the districts which are directly under British rule, there are two groups of petty States which lie to the south and south west of the Province and which under the names of the Feudatory States of Orissa and Chota Nagpur are governed each by its own Chief under the superintendence and with the advice of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The area of these territories is 23,666 square miles and as it is usual to include them when speaking of Bihar and Orissa the area of the whole Province may be stated at 111,837 square miles. Two of the provinces of the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa, viz., Bihar and Orissa, consist of great river valleys, the third, Chota Nagpur, is a mountainous region which separates them from the Central Indian Plateau. Orissa embraces the rich deltas of the Mahanadi and the neighbouring rivers and is bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the south-east and walled in on the north west by the hilly country of the Tributary States. Bihar lies on the north of the Province and comprises the valley of the Ganges from the spot where it issues from the territories of the Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh till it enters Bengal near Rajmahal. Between Bihar and Orissa lies Chota Nagpur. Following the main geographical lines there are five Civil Divisions with head-quarters at Patna, Muzaffarpur (for Tirhut), Bhagalpur, Cuttack (for Orissa) and Ranchi (for Chota Nagpur).

The People

The head-quarters of Government are at Patna. The new capital which lies between the Military Cantonment of Dinapore and the old civil station of Bankipore is known as 'Patna,' the old town being called "Patna City."

The Province has a population of 37,961,668 persons which is very little less than that of France and rather more than that of the Bombay Presidency. The Province is almost entirely rural, no fewer than 963 per mille of the population living in villages. Even so with 340 persons per square mile, Bihar and Orissa is more thickly populated than Germany. There are only three towns which can be classed as cities, namely, Patna, Gaya and Bhagalpur. During the last thirty years the population of Patna, the capital designate, has been steadily diminishing. Hindus form an overwhelming majority of the population. Though the Muhamma-

dans form less than one-tenth of the total population they constitute more than one-fifth of urban population of the province. Animists account for 6.2 per cent. These are inhabitants of the Chota Nagpur plateau and the Santal Parganas, the latter district being a continuation of the plateau in a north-easterly direction.

Industries.*

The principal industry is agriculture, Bihar, more especially North Bihar, being the "Garden of India." Rice is the staple crop but the spring crops, wheat, barley, and the like are of considerable importance. It is estimated that the normal area cultivated with rice is 15,320,709 acres or 48 per cent. of the cropped area of the Province. Wheat is grown on 1,265,000 acres, barley on 1,406,100 acres, maize or Indian-corn on 1,637,500 acres, the latter being an autumn crop. Oil-seeds are an important crop the cultivation having been stimulated by the demand for them in Europe. It is estimated that 2,091,400 acres of land are annually cropped with oil-seeds in the Province. There is irrigation in Shahabad, Gaya, Champaran and Muzaffarpur districts in Bihar and in Balasore and Cuttack in Orissa. The Indigo industry is steadily on the decline, the total area sown having decreased from 342,000 acres in 1896 to 25,000 acres in 1923. The principal cause of this was the discovery of the possibilities of manufacturing synthetic or chemically prepared indigo on a commercial scale. Its place as a crop manufactured for export has been largely taken by sugarcane, the cultivation of which has been considerably extended owing to the high prices given by sugar factories. In the district of Purnea and in Orissa and parts of the Tirhut Division jute is grown but the acreage varies according to the price of jute. The last serious famine was in 1895-96, but there was a serious shortage of foodstuffs in the south of the Province in 1919. In any year in which monsoon currents from either the Bay of Bengal or the Arabian Sea are unduly late in their arrival or cease abruptly before the middle of September the agricultural situation is very grave. It may be said that for Bihar the most important rainfall is that known as the *Asif*, due towards the end of September or up to middle of October. Rain at this time not only contributes materially to an increased outturn of the rice crop but also provides the moisture necessary for starting the spring or *rabi* crops.

Manufactures

Opium was formerly, with indigo, the chief manufactured product of Bihar, but in consequence of the agreement with the Chinese Government the Patna Factory has been closed. At Monghyr the Peninsular Tobacco Company have erected one of the largest cigarette factories in the world and as a result tobacco is being grown much more extensively. The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur in Singhbhum district are also one of the largest.

* The figures given in this paragraph relate to British territory only.

in the world and numerous subsidiary industries are springing up in their vicinity. The most important of these are the Tinsplate Company of India, Agricultural Implements, Ltd., Enfield Cable Company of India, Enamelled Ironware Limited and Indian Steel Wire Products. The population of Jamshedpur is rapidly approaching 100,000 and it consumes 1½ million tons of coal annually. This part of the province has also some of the richest and most extensive iron mines in the world and supplies the iron and steel works in both Bengal and Bihar and Orissa with raw materials, but the raising of coal is still the most important of the mineral industries in the province. The coalfields in the Manbhum District have undergone an extraordinary development in the past twenty years, while valuable new fields are being developed at Ramgarh Bokaro and Karanpura in Hazaribagh. This same district is the most important mica mining centre in the world both on account of the quality as well as the size of its output. Manbhum, Palaman Ranchi, the Santal Parganas and Gaya are also the chief centres for the production of lac and the manufacture of shellac the latter of which is exported from India to the value of ten crores annually.

Administration.

The Province on first constitution was administered by a Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, thus being unique in India as the only Lieutenant-Governorship with a Council. Under the Reform Act of 1919 it was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers. The principles of the provincial administration are fully explained in the section The Provincial Governorships, where the division of the administration into Reserved Subjects, in charge of the Governor and his Executive Council, and Transferred Subjects, in charge of the Governor and Ministers chosen from the Legislative Council, is set out in detail. In all these respects Bihar and Orissa are on the same plane as the other Provinces in India.

Public Works

The Public Works Department in the Province of Bihar and Orissa consists of two separate branches, viz—(1) the Buildings and Roads and (2) Irrigation which also deals with railways. Each has a Chief Engineer, who is also Secretary to the Local Government with an Engineer Officer as Under Secretary in the Buildings and Roads branch and a non-professional Assistant Secretary in the Irrigation branch under him. The Electrical work of the Province is carried out by an Electrical Engineer and a staff of subordinates.

Justice.

The administration of justice is controlled by the High Court of Judicature at Patna. In the administration of civil justice below the High Court are the District Judges as Courts of Appeal, the Subordinate Judges and the Munsifs. The jurisdiction of a District Judge or Subordinate Judge extends to all original suits cognisable by the Civil Courts. It does not, however, include the powers of a Small Cause Court, unless these be specially conferred. The ordinary jurisdiction of a Munsif extends to all suits in which the amount or value of the subject

matter in dispute does not exceed Rs. 1,000, though the limit may be extended to Rs. 4,000. On the criminal side the Sessions Judge hears appeals from Magistrates exercising first class powers while the District Magistrate is the appellate authority for Magistrates exercising second and third class powers. The District Magistrate can also be, though in point of fact he very rarely is, a court of first instance. It is usual in most districts for a Joint Magistrate or a Deputy Magistrate to receive complaints and police reports, cases of difficulty or importance being referred to the District Magistrate who is responsible for the peace of the district. In the non-regulation districts the Deputy Commissioner and his subordinates exercise civil powers and hear rent suits.

Land Tenures.

Estates in the Province of Bihar and Orissa are of three kinds, namely, those permanently settled from 1793 which are to be found in the Patna, Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions, those temporarily settled as in Chota Nagpur and parts of Orissa, and estates held direct by Government as proprietor or managed by the Court of Wards. The passing of the Bengal Tenancy Act (VIII of 1885) safeguarded the rights of the cultivators under the Permanent Settlement Act. Further, the Settlement Department under the supervision of the Director of Land Records makes periodical survey and settlement operations in the various districts, both permanently and temporarily settled. In the former, the rights of the under tenants are recorded and attested, while in the latter there is the re-settlement of rents. In the re-settlement proceedings, rents are fixed not only for the landlords but also for all the tenants. A settlement can be ordered by Government on application made by raiyats.

The tenures of Orissa are somewhat different. Under the zamindars, that is, the proprietors who took settlement from Government and pay revenue to Government direct, is a class of subordinate proprietors or proprietary tenure holders, who were originally village headmen dealing more or less direct with the revenue authorities. They have a variety of names, such as *mukadams*, *padhan*, *maurani*, *sarbarahar*, *purwah*, *kharidar* and *shikmi* zamindar. These sub-proprietors or proprietary tenure holders pay their revenue through the zamindars of the estates within which their lands lie. In Chota Nagpur, Orissa and the Santal Parganas, the rights of village headmen have been recognised. The headman collects the rents and is responsible for them minus a deduction as remuneration for his trouble.

Both Orissa and Chota Nagpur have their own Tenancy Acts.

Police.

The Departments of Police, Prisons and Registration are each under the general direction of Government, supervised and inspected by an Inspector-General with a staff of assistants. The Commissioner of Excise and Salt is also Inspector-General of Registration.

Under the Inspector-General of Police are four Deputy Inspectors-General and 20 Superintendents. There are also 25 Assistant Superintendents of Police and 39 Deputy Superintendents. The force is divided into the District

Police, the Railway Police and the Military Police. A Criminal Investigation Department has also been formed for the collection and dissemination of information relating to professional criminals and criminal tribes whose operations extend beyond a single district and to control, advise, and assist in investigation of crime of this class and other serious crimes which its assistance may be invoked. There are three companies of Military Police which are maintained as reserves to deal with serious and organized disturbances and perform no ordinary civil duties.

Education.

The position of education in the Province, with the numbers attending schools, is set out in the section Education and the tables attached thereto (q v) showing in great detail the educational status of the administration.

There is a University at Patna, whose functions are described under the Indian Universities. (q v).

Medicine.

The Medical Department is under the control of the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals who is a Member of the Indian Medical Service. Under him there are 21 Civil Surgeons who are responsible for the medical work of the districts at the head-quarters of which they are stationed. 56 Dispensaries are maintained by Government in addition to 400 Dispensaries maintained by Local bodies, Railways, private persons, etc. 4,656,828 patients including 84,371 in-patients were treated in all the dispensaries in 1923. The total income of the dispensaries maintained by Government and Local Bodies including that of the private aided institutions amounted to Rs 22,87,411.

A large mental hospital for Europeans has been opened at Ranchi which receives patients from Northern India. A similar institution is under construction for the Indians. At present these are treated at Patna. An Institute for Radium treatment has also been established at Ranchi.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA

As Bihar now enjoys practical financial autonomy, the finances are set out in greater detail. (In thousands of Rupees)

Revenue and Receipts		Budget Estimate 1924-25
II—Taxes on Income		9.45
V—Land Revenue		1,65.59
VI—Excise		1,76.00
VII—Stamps		1,02.00
VIII—Forest		10.92
IX—Registration		14.51
Irrigation—		
XIII—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which capital accounts are kept		17.89
XIV—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no capital accounts are kept		1.09
XVI—Interest		6.17
XVII—Administration of Justice		4.81
XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements		6.52
XIX—Police		5.12
XX—Ports and Pilotage		8
XXI—Education		4.78
XXII—Medical		4.23
XXIII—Public Health		16
XXIV—Agriculture		1.57
XXV—Industries		54
XXVI—Miscellaneous Department		
XXX—Civil Works		6.00
XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation		8.05
XXXIV—Stationery and Printing		85
XXXV—Miscellaneous		3.84
XL—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		8
TOTAL REVENUE		5,84.48
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government		3.55
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments		5.00
Famine Insurance Fund		15.63
Response		4.00
TOTAL RECEIPTS		5,02.66
Opening Balance		(b) 1,89.08
GRAND TOTAL		7,32.28

(b) Ordinary balance	1,37.29
Famine Insurance Fund	52.39
Total	1,89.68

Expenditure.	(In thousands of Rupees.)	
	Budget Estimate.	1934-35.
5.—Land Revenue		21.23
6.—Excise		10.21
7.—Stamps		2.39
8.—Forests		2.29
9.—Registration		5.25
Irrigation—		
14.—Interest on Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept		20.42
15.—Irrigation Revenue Account—Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from ordinary Revenue		3.57
15 (1)—Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance Grants		
16.—Irrigation Capital Account—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment and Drainage Works		31
19.—Interest on Ordinary Debt		2.50
22.—General Administration		71.91
24.—Administration of Justice		26.96
25.—Jails and Convict Settlements		17.87
26.—Police		52.21
27.—Ports and Pilotage		1
28.—Scientific Departments		24
31.—Education		68.22
32.—Medical		20.89
33.—Public Health		9.99
34.—Agriculture		11.42
35.—Industries		7.55
37.—Miscellaneous Departments		50
41.—Civil Works		68.58
43.—Famine Relief and Insurance		11.42
45.—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions		18.00
46.—Stationery and Printing		11.07
47.—Miscellaneous		1.04
51.—Contribution to the Central Government by Provincial Government		
52.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		6
Total expenditure charged to Revenue		5,13.37
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government		10.50
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments		5.21
Famine Insurance Fund		5.02
Suspense		4.30
55.—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works—Capital expenditure not charged to Revenue		
Total expenditure not charged to revenue		24.73
Total expenditure		5,43.10
	Closing balance	(B) 1,99.18
	GRAND TOTAL	7,22.28
Provincial { Surplus		19.50
{ Deficit	
(b) Ordinary balance	1,46.18	
Famine Insurance Fund	43.00	
Total	1,99.18	
Administration.		
GOVERNOR		
His Excellency Sir Henry Wheeler, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., I.O.S.		
PERSONAL STAFF		
Private Secretary, Capt. G. E. R. Edgecombe		
Aide-de-Camp, Capt. B. M. W. Edmondson		
Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Lieut. Muhammad Raza, Khan Bahadur Major D. Douglas and Major Cecil George Lees.		
EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.		
Sachchidanand Sinha, C.I.E., I.O.S.		
Hugh McPherson, C.I.E., I.O.S.		
The Hon. Sir Salyid Mahmud Fakhr-ed Din, K.L. (Education)		
The Hon. Babu Ganesh Datta Singh (Local Self-Government).		
SECRETARIAT		
Chief Secretary to Government, Political and Administrative Departments, Sir G. Rahay, K.C.I.E., C.I.E., J.Y.M. (on leave), H.L.L. Hammond (Offg.)		
Secretary to Government, Finance Department		
E. I. Tanner, I.O.S.		
Secretary to Government, Revenue Department,		
J. B. Dain		
Secretary to Government (P. W. D.), Irrigation Branch, W. S. Bremner		
Buildings and Roads Branch, C. B. Melloe		
BOARD OF REVENUE.		
Member, L. F. Mombhead		
MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.		
Director of Public Instruction, G. B. Fawcus.		
Inspector-General of Police, Walter Swain, C.I.E.		
Conservator of Forests, Albert Reginald Dick.		
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. Hugh Ainsworth, M.B., I.M.S.		
Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. W. WIDMAN		
Charles Ross.		
Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. W. GILHA, C.I.E., I.M.S.		
Assistant-General, A. H. GUNN, I.O.S.		
Director of Agriculture, A. C. Dobbs.		

BIHAR AND ORISSA LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL**NOMINATED***Officials*

Mr Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond, C S I, C D E, I C S
 Mr Evelyn Lloyd Tanner, I C S
 Mr John Rutherford Dain, I C S
 Mr Arthur Loveday Inglis, I C S
 Mr Bernard Abdy Collins, I C S
 Mr. Walter Sidney Bremner, C I E
 Mr Harry Llewelyn Lyons Allanson, I C S
 Mr John Alfred Saunders, I C S
 Mr Walter Swain, C I E
 Mr Birendra Chandra Sen, I C S
 Colonel Hugh Ainsworth, I M S
 Mr Henry Lambert
 Mr William Bisell Heycock, I C S

Non Officials

Raja Bahadur Harihar Prasad Narayan Singh, O B E
 Khan Bahadur Nawabzada Salyid Ashraf-ud-din Ahmed
 Babu Devkinandan Prasad Singh
 The Rev Edward Hamilton Whitley (Aborigines)
 The Rev Pritam Luther Singh (Aborigines)
 Babu Blahwanath Kar (Depressed Classes)
 The Rev h Sukh (Depressed Classes)
 Mr Dhanjilabhai Meherjiabhai Madan (Industrial interests other than Planting and Mining)
 Raj Bahadur Jyotish Chandra Bhattacharji
 Mr Baij Nath (Labouring Classes)
 The Rev S K Tarafdar (Indian Christian Community)
 Mr Francis Ernest Lopes Morrison (Anglo Indian Community)

ELECTED

Name	Constituencies
<i>Patna Division</i>	
Mr. Muhammad Yunus	Patna Division Muhammadan Urban.
Maulavi Salyid Muhammad Husein	East Patna Muhammadan Rural
The Hon ble Khan Bahadur Salyid Muhammad Fakar-ud-din	West Patna Muhammadan Rural
Babu Shyam Narayan Sinha Sharma	Patna Division Non Muhammadan Urban
Maharaja Gura Mahadevasram Prasad Sahi	Patna Non Muhammadan Urban
Babu Gur Sahay Lal	East Patna Non-Muhammadan Rural
Babu Rajendrabari Sinha	West Patna Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Chandipat Sahay	Landholders, Patna Division
Khan Bahadur Ashfaq Husain	Gaya Muhammadan Rural
Babu Guptanhar Prasad Singh	West Gaya Non-Muhammadan Rural.

Name	Constituencies.
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Paino Division—contd

Babu Bishun Prashad	Central Gaya Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Rameshvar Prashad Singh	East Gaya Non Muhammadan Rural
Vacant	Shahabad Muhammadan Rural
Babu Sharada Prashad Singh	Central Shahabad Non-Muhammadan Rural
Babu Rajivaranjan Prashad Sinha	South Shahabad Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Dwarika Prashad Singh	Arrah Non-Muhammadan Rural

Tirhut Division

Maulavi Mati ur Rahman	Tirhut Division Muhammadan Urban
Maulavi Salyid Mehdi Hasan	Muzaffarpur Muhammadan Rural
Maulavi Said ul Haqq	Darbhanga Muhammadan Rural
Maulavi Salyid Mubarak Ali	Saran Muhammadan Rural
Maulavi Muhammad Zahurul Haqq	Champeran Muhammadan Rural
Raj Bahadur Dwarika Nath	Tirhut Division Non Muhammadan Urban
Mahanth Ishvar Giri	North West Darbhanga Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Shiva Shankar Jha	North East Darbhanga Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Ram Nihora Singh	South East Darbhanga Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Ramaswamy Prashad Chaudhuri	Samastipur Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Shiyabachan Sinha	North Muzaffarpur Non Muhammadan Rural.
Mahanth Darshan Dasji	East Muzaffarpur Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Ganesh Datta Singh	West Muzaffarpur Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Radha Krishna	Hajipur Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Jaleshwar Prashad	North Saran Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Chandra Ketu Narayan Singh	South Saran Non Muhammadan Rural
Vacant	North Champaran Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Kedar Nath Prashad Sah	South Champaran Non Muhammadan Rural,
Vacant	Landholders, Tirhut Division

Bhagalpur Division

Mr Abdul Wahab Khan	Bhagalpur Division Muhammadan Urban.
Khan Bahadur Salyid Muhammad Naim	Bhagalpur Muhammadan Rural
Mr Shah Muhammad Yahya	Monghyr Muhammadan Rural
Maulavi Mir Faiyaz Ali	Purnea Muhammadan Rural
Mr Salyid Molauddin Mirza	Kishanganj Muhammadan Rural
Maulavi Muhammad Umid Ali	Santal Parganas Muhammadan Rural
Babu Murlikhar Shraff	Bhagalpur Division Non Muhammadan Urban
Babu Rajendra Misra	North Bhagalpur Non-Muhammadan Rural
Babu Bhuvaneshvari Prashad Mandal	Central Bhagalpur Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Ananta Prashad	South Bhagalpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Maharaja Bahadur Chandra Manleshwar Prasad Singh.	South-West Monghyr Non-Muhammadan Rural.

Name	Constituencies.
<i>Bhagalpur Division—contd</i>	
Bai Sahib Kharag Narayan	North West Monghyr Non-Muhammadian Rural
Bai Bahadur Lakshmi Prasad Sinha	East Monghyr Non Muhammadan Rural
Bai Bahadur Prithi Chand Lal Chandhuri	Purnea Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Jogendra-Narayan Singh	Santal Parganas North Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Rameshvar Lal Marwari	Santal Parganas South Non Muhammadan Rural
Raja Bahadur Kirtyanand Singh	Landholders, Bhagalpur Division

Orissa Division

Maulavi Saiyid Tajammul Ali	Orissa Division Muhammadan Rural
Mr Madhusudan Das, C I E	Orissa Division Non-Muhammadian Urban
Babu Birabar Narayan Chandra Dhir Narendra	North Cuttack Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Lakshmidhar Mahanti	South Cuttack Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Badharanjan Das	North Balasore Non Muhammadan Rural
Chaudhuri, Bhagavat Samantarat Prasad Mahapatra	South Balasore Non-Muhammadian Rural
Babu Godaveri Misra	North Puri Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Jagabandhu Sinha	South Puri Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Ram Narayan Misra	Sambalpur Non Muhammadan Rural.
Raja Rajendra Narayan Bhanja Deo, O F F	Landholders', Orissa Division

Chota Nagpur Division

Maulavi Shaik Muhammad Husain	Chota Nagpur Division Muhammadan Rural
Mr Jimut Behan Sen	Chota Nagpur Division Non-Muhammadian Urban
Bai Bahadur Sharat Chandra Ray	Ranchi Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Krishna Ballabh Sahay	Hazaribagh Non Muhammadan Rural.
Thakurail Bahmashvar Dayal Singh	Palamau Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Nilkanta Chattarji	South Manbhum Non Muhammadan Rural
Dula Manki	Singbhum Non Muhammadan Rural
Babu Bakshi Jagdam Prasad Lal	North Manbhum Non Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Nagashvar Baksh Ray	Landholders, Chota Nagpur Division

Others

Mr Sri Narayan Sahay	Fatna University
Mr William Ord MacGregor	European Constituency
Mr Edward C Danby	Planting Constituency
Mr Archibald Arthur Forbes Bray	Indian Mining Association
Babu Narendra Nath Mukharji	Indian Mining Federation

The Central Provinces and Berar compose a vast triangle of country midway between Bombay and Bengal. Their area is 131,062 sq. miles, of which 82,000 are British territory proper, 18,000 (viz. Berar) held on perpetual lease from the Nizam and the remainder held by Feudatory Chiefs. The population (1921) 12,012,760 under British administration, adding 8,075,816 in Berar. Various parts of the Central Provinces passed under British control at different times in the wars and mult in the first half of the 19th century and several parts were amalgamated after the treaty, in 1861, into the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Berar was, in 1858, assigned to the East India Company as part of a financial arrangement with the Nizam for the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent, and was leased in perpetuity to the Central Provinces in 1903, as the result of a treaty agreement with the Nizam.

The Country

The Central Provinces may roughly be divided into three tracts of upland, with two intervening ones of plain country. In the north, the Vindhyan plateau is broken country, strewed with poor and stunted forest. Below the precipitous southern slopes stretches the wheat-growing country of the Nerbudda valley. Then comes the high Satpura plateau, characterised by forest-covered hills and deep terraced ravines. Its hills decline into the spurs plain, whose broad stretches of 'deep' or cotton soil make it one of the most important cotton tracts of India and the western part of the C. P. proper. The Eastern part of the plain lies in the valley of the Wainganga and is mainly a rice-growing country. Its numerous irrigation tanks have given it the name of the 'lake country' of Nagpur. Further east is the far-reaching rice country of the Mahanadi basin. The southern part of the C. P. is again mountainous, containing 24,000 square miles of forest and precipitous ravines, and mostly inhabited by jungle tribes. The Feudatory States of Bastar and Bilaspur lie in this region. Berar lies to the south-west of the C. P. and its chief characteristics is its rich black cotton-soil plains.

The People

The population of the province is a comparatively new community. Before the advent of the Aryans, the whole of it was peopled by aboriginal tribes and these aboriginal inhabitants did better from the Aryans than their like in most parts of India because of the ruggedness of their home. But successive waves of immigration flowed into the province from the sides. The early inhabitants were driven from the inaccessible forests and hills, where they now outnumber all the other hill and forest tribes and form nearly a quarter of the population of the C. P. being found in numbers in all parts of the province, especially in the south-east. The main divisions of the new comers are indicated by the usage divisions of the province. Hindi, spoken in by the Hindustani-speaking people of the North, prevails in the North and East of the C. P. Hindi is spoken by 56 per cent of the population and is the *lingua franca*. Marathi is spoken by 21 per cent, and Gond by 7 per cent. The

effects of invasion are curiously illustrated in Berar, where numbers of Moslems have Hindu names, being descendants of former Hindu officials who on the Mahomedan invasion adopted Islam rather than lose their positions. The last census shows that a gradual Brahmanisation of the aboriginal tribes is going on. The tribes are not regarded as impure by the Hindus and the process of absorption is more or less civilising.

Industries

When Sir Richard Temple became first Chief Commissioner of the C. P. the province was landlocked. The only road was that leading in from Jabalpur to Nagpur. The British administration has made roads in all directions, the two trunk railways between Bombay and Calcutta run across the province and in the last few years a great impetus has been given to the construction of subsidiary lines. These developments have caused a steady growth of trade and have aroused vigorous progress in every department of life. The prime industry is, of course, agriculture, which is assisted by one of the most admirable agricultural departments in India and is now receiving additional strength by a phenomenal growth of the co-operative credit movement. The land tenure is chiefly on the zamindari, or great landlord system, ranging, with numerous variations, from the great Feudatory chiefships, which are on this basis, to holdings of small dimensions. A system of land legislation has gradually been built up to protect the individual cultivator. Berar is settled on the Bombay ryotwari system. About 16,400 square miles of the C. P. is Government Reserved forest, in Berar the forest area is about 3,300 square miles, the total forest area being one-fifth of the whole Province. The rugged nature of the greater part of the country makes forest conservation difficult and costly. Excluding forest and waste 55 per cent of the total land is occupied for cultivation, in the most advanced districts the proportion is 80 per cent and in Berar the figure is also high. The cultivated area is extending continuously except for the temporary checks caused by bad seasons. Rice is the most important crop of the C. P. Wheat comes next, with 29 per cent, then pulses and cereals used for food and oil seeds, with 45 per cent and cotton with 14 per cent. In Berar cotton occupies 47 per cent of the cropped area, jowar covers 37 per cent, then wheat and oil seeds. In agriculture more than half the working population is female.

Commerce and Manufactures

Industrial life is only in its earliest development except in one or two centres, where the introduction of modern enterprise along the railway routes has laid the foundations for great future developments of the natural wealth of the province. Nagpur is the chief centre of a busy cotton spinning industry. The Empress Mills, owned by Parsi manufacturers, were opened there in 1877 and the general prosperity of the cotton trade has led to the addition of many mills here and in other parts of the province. The total amount of spun yarn exported annually from the Province is about 200,000 mounds, valued at nearly 55 lakhs of rupees.

The largest numbers engaged in any of the modern industrial concerns are employed in manganese mining which in 1923 employed 13,066 persons and raised 508,116 tons. Then follow coal mining with an output of 547,682 tons and 8,575 persons employed, the Jabalpur marble quarries and allied works, the Himesh stone quarries and the mines for pottery clay, soapstone, &c.

The total number of factories of all kinds legally so described was 574 in 1923, the latest period for which returns are available and the number of people employed in them 84,067. The same economic influences which are operative in every progressive country during its transition stage are at work in the C P and Berar, gradually sapping the strength of the old village industries, as communications improve, and concentrating industries in the towns. While the village industries are fading away, a large development of trade has taken place. The last pre-war reports showed an increase in volume by one third in eight years.

Administration.

The administration of the Central Provinces and Berar is conducted by a Governor in Council, who is appointed by the Crown. He is assisted by six Secretaries, five under-secretaries, and one financial assistant secretary. Under the Reform Scheme the administration is conducted, in relation to reserved subjects, by a Governor with an Executive Council of two members, one of whom is a non-official, and in relation to transferred subjects temporarily by a Governor under the Transferred Subjects (Temporary Administration) Rules.

The local legislature consists of 70 members at least 70 per cent of whom are elected and not more than 30 per cent are officials. The Governor (who is not a member of the Council) has the right of nominating two additional members with special knowledge on any subject regarding which legislation is before the Chamber. The C P are divided for administrative purposes into four divisions and Berar constitutes another division. Each of these is controlled by a Commissioner. The divisions are sub-divided into districts, each of which is controlled by a Deputy Commissioner, immediately subordinate to the Commissioner. The principal heads of Provincial departments are the Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Records, Registrar-General of Births Deaths and Marriages and Inspector General of Registration, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Inspector General of Police, the Inspector General of Prisons, the Director of Public Instruction, the Excise Commissioner, the Director of Agriculture, the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Director of Industries, the Legal Remembrancer and the two Chief Engineers, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches. The Deputy Commissioners of districts are the chief revenue authorities and District Magistrates and they exercise the usual powers and functions of a district officer. The district forests are managed by a forest officer, over whom the Deputy Commissioner has certain powers of supervision, particularly in matters affecting the welfare of the people. Each

district has a Civil Surgeon, who is generally also Superintendent of the District Jail and whose work is also in various respects supervised by the Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner is also Marriage Registrar and manages the estates of his district which are under the Court of Wards. In his revenue and criminal work the Deputy Commissioner is assisted by (a) one or more Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Indian Civil Service, (b) one or more Extra Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Provincial Civil Service, usually natives of India, but including a few Europeans and Anglo-Indians and (c) by Tahsildars and naib Tahsildars, or members of the Subordinate service, who are nearly always natives of India. The district is divided for administrative purposes into tahsils the average area of which is 1,500 square miles. In each village a lambardar or representative of the proprietary body, is executive headman.

Justices.

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner is the highest court of appeal in civil cases, and also the highest court of criminal appeal and revision for the Central Provinces and Berar including proceedings against European British subjects and persons jointly charged with European British subjects.

The Court sits at Nagpur and consists of a Judicial Commissioner and 3 Additional Judicial Commissioners of whom one at least must be an advocate of the Court or a Barrister or pleader of not less than 10 years' standing. A fourth Additional Judicial Commissioner selected from the Bar is temporarily appointed.

Subordinate to the Judicial Commissioner's Court are the District and Sessions Judges (11 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a Civil and Sessions district comprising one or more Revenue districts. The civil staff below the District and Sessions Judge consists of Sub-Judges of the 1st and 2nd class.

Local Self-Government.

Municipal administration was first introduced under the Punjab Municipal Acts and the Municipality of Nagpur dates from 1864. Several revising Acts extend its scope and the C P Municipalities Act passed towards the end of the year 1922 has considerably increased the power of the Municipal Committees. The C P Municipalities Act has recently been extended to Berar. Viewed generally, municipal self government is considered to have taken root successfully. The general basis of the scheme is the Local Board or each tahsil and the District Council for each district. The larger towns have municipalities, there being 61 such bodies in the Province.

Under the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act passed in 1920 the Local Boards consist of elected representatives of circles and nominated members other than Government officials not exceeding in number one-fourth of the Board, and the constitution of the District Council is a certain proportion of elected representatives of Local Boards, of members selected by those representatives and of members, other than Government servants, nominated by Government.

The District Councils in the Central Provinces have power of taxation within certain limits and Local Boards derive their funds in allotments from the District Councils. The new Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act has now been applied to Berar. The Office Bearers of the District Councils and Local Boards are with few exceptions non officials.

Rural education and sanitation are among the primary objects to which these bodies direct their attention, while expenditure on famine relief is also a legitimate charge upon the District Council funds.

Public Works

The Public Works Department is controlled by two Chief Engineers, who are also Secretaries to the Government. There are two Superintending Engineers for Roads and Buildings and three for Irrigation. In 1892 a separate division of the Public Works Department was formed for the construction of roads and buildings in the Feudatory States, but it has since been abolished. The expansion of the department and its work has been one of the most remarkable features of the administration in the past decade and a half, largely owing to the demands of a progressive age in regard to communications and new buildings. The Irrigation Branch of the P W D represents a completely new departure. It was formerly the accepted view that the irregular surface of the country would make irrigation canals impossible and that the S W monsoon was so regular that it would pay better to relieve famine than to prevent it. Both conclusions have been reversed. Picked officers investigated projects for irrigation when the Irrigation Commission was appointed (1901) and canal and storage works have since been advanced with vigour. The Tandula, Wainganga, Mahanadi, Kharang and Manjari projects are amongst the more important schemes, while an extensive network of minor protective works is being constructed throughout the Province.

Police.

The police force was constituted on its present basis on the formation of the Province, the whole of which including the Cantonments and the Municipalities, is under one force. The strength is equal to one man per 9 square miles of area. The superior officers comprise an Inspector-General, whose jurisdiction extends over Berar, three Deputy Inspectors-General for assistance in the administrative control and supervision of the Police force, including the Criminal Investigation Department, and the usual cadre of District Superintendents of Police, Assistant and Deputy Superintendents and subordinate officers. On railways special Railway Police are employed under the control of two Superintendents of Railway Police with headquarters at Raipur and Jabalpur. A Special Armed Force of 600 men is distributed over the headquarters of eight districts, for use in dealing with armed disturbers of the peace in whatever quarter they may appear. There is a small force of Mounted Police. The Central Provinces has no rural police as the term is understood in

other parts of India. The village watchman is the subordinate of the village headman and not a police official and it is considered very desirable to maintain his position in this respect.

Education.

The Education Department of the Central Provinces and Berar is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, a Deputy Director, four Inspectors and two Inspectresses who in their turn are assisted by seven Assistant Inspectors and four Assistant Inspectresses. An Agency Inspector supervises the schools in the Feudatory States. Schools are divided into schools for general education and schools for special education. The latter are schools in which instruction is given in a special branch of technical or professional education, or for special classes of the community such as Europeans, girls and Rajkumars. The main divisions of schools for general education is into Primary and Secondary. In the Primary Schools the teaching is conducted wholly in the vernacular and these schools are known as Vernacular Schools. The Secondary Schools are divided into Middle and High Schools. The former may be either Vernacular Middle Schools in which the instruction is given wholly in the Vernacular, or Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools in which the instruction is given both in English and the Vernacular. In the High School classes the instruction until recently was given in English but the vernacular was adopted as the medium of instruction at the beginning of the school year 1922-23. For administrative purposes schools are further divided according to their management into schools under public management and schools controlled by private bodies. The former consist of (a) schools controlled by Government and (b) schools controlled by Local Bodies or Boards. The latter consist of (a) Schools which are aided by grants from Government or from Local and Municipal Funds and (b) unaided schools. All schools under public management and all aided schools conform in their courses of study to the standards prescribed by the Education Department or by the High School Education Board. They are subject to inspection by the Department and to the general rules governing schools of this type. They are recognized by the Department and their pupils may appear as candidates for any prescribed examination for which he is otherwise eligible. Unaided schools do not follow the rules of the Department, nor are they subject to inspection by the Department. They are mostly indigenous schools or which have been too recently opened to have acquired recognition. Their pupils may not appear as candidates at any of the prescribed examinations without the previous sanction of the Department.

As an experimental measure the inspection and administration of Board Vernacular schools have been transferred to the District Councils at Bhandara, Balaghat, Amratol and Hoshangabad.

The Primary Education Bill which was passed by the Local Legislative Council in March 1920 marks an important stage by giving Local Bodies power to introduce compulsory education in the areas under their jurisdiction.

Higher education is at present given in five colleges. In Nagpur Morris College teaches up to the M.A. standard in Arts and up to the Final LL.B. standard in Law. Hilsop College is affiliated up to the M.A. standard in Arts. The Victoria College of Science teaches up to the M.Sc. standard in Science. Up to the B.Sc. standard it works in conjunction with Morris College and Hilsop College. In Jabulpore Robertson College teaches up to the B.A. and B.Sc. standards. The King Edward College, capable of accommodating 350 students with spacious grounds and well built hostels for two hundred boarders, is now established at Amraoti. It teaches up to the B.A. degree in Arts and the Intermediate degree in Science. The province contains also a Teacher's Training College at Jabulpore, and Normal Schools at different centres, and an Engineering School at Nagpur. There is a Technical Institute at Amraoti, which is controlled by the Dept. of Industries. There is also an Agricultural College at Nagpur under the Department of Agriculture.

Collegiate Education is now under control of the University of Nagpur to which the colleges of the province are affiliated. The Nagpur University Act of 1923 provided for a University which "in the first instance, will be of an examining and affiliating type though it may subsequently and without further legislation undertake wider functions as necessity arises and funds permit." In this connection the speech with which the Hon'ble the Minister for Education introduced the Bill is interesting. He pointed out that from the outset the University will exercise a marked control over its colleges with regard to instruction, the qualifications of teachers, the residence and discipline of students. It will also act as adviser to the Local Government with regard to the financial needs of the colleges and institutions connected with it. "Finally, the Bill is so drafted that the University may, at any moment without further Legislation, supplement or replace collegiate instruction by instruction of its own. It may take over the management of existing colleges with the consent of their managing bodies, whether Government or private, or it may institute and maintain colleges of its own. The second important point of difference between the Nagpur Act and other University Acts subsequent to the publication of the Calcutta University Commission's Report is with regard to Intermediate Education. The Bill definitely follows the recommendations of the Central Provinces University Committee of 1914 and of the Sadler Commission in freeing the High schools from the control of the University. It differs from the Sadler Commission Report and subsequent University legislation in adopting the High School Certificate Examination as the standard of admission to the University and in placing Intermediate Education under the control of the University. The constitution of the University as provided in the Act is in accordance with other recent University legislation in India and is to consist of a Court, an Academic Council and an Executive Council with the Governor of the province as *Ex-officio* Chancellor.

As a corollary to the Central Provinces University Act the Central Provinces High School Education Bill was passed in 1923 on

the lines of the United Provinces Intermediate and High School Education Act. Its aim is to free the High Schools of the Province from the control of the University and from this point of view to substitute for the University a Board of Secondary Education for the regulation and control of Secondary Education. In order, however, that the connection between Secondary and University Education may still be maintained the Bill provides that one-third of the members of the Board will be drawn from men experienced in university affairs and that of this one-third not less than two-thirds shall be teachers in the University or in colleges affiliated thereto. At the same time teachers engaged in school work will be adequately represented on the Board.

Medical.

The medical and sanitary services of the province are respectively controlled by an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and a Director of Public Health. The medical department has made much progress since the year 1911. A striking advance has been made in recent years with urban sanitation and the opening of a Medical School at Nagpur. The principal medical institutions are the Mayo Hospital at Nagpur opened in 1874, with accommodation for 84 in-patients, the Victoria Hospital at Jabulpore, opened in 1886 and accommodating 99 in-patients, the Lady Dufferin Hospital and the Mure Memorial Hospital at Nagpur and the Lady Elgin Hospital and the Ormiston Children's Hospital at Jabulpore, these last four being for women and children and containing together accommodation for 126 in-patients. The Mayo Hospital, Nagpur was provincialised in 1923. In accordance with the recent policy 94 local fund dispensaries have been transferred to the administrative and executive control of local bodies. The Province has one Mental Hospital at Nagpur. Vaccination is compulsory in some Municipal towns to which the Vaccination Act has been extended. The Government in 1913 sanctioned the opening of peripatetic dispensaries in unhealthy areas. There is at the present time one such dispensary at each district in the Province. There are also 2 peripatetic dispensaries in the Wardha District and 1 in Hattis Zamindari of Balaghat district which are contributed by the District Council, Wardha and the Zamindar of Hattis respectively.

Finance

The main source of Government income in the province has always been the land revenue, but under Mahattras rule many petty imposts were added in all branches of trade and industry and life in general. Thus there was a special tax on the marriage of Banias and a tax of a fourth of the proceeds of the sale of houses. The scheme of Provincial finance was introduced in 1871-72. Special settlements under this system have been necessitated in view of the special circumstances of the province and the recurrence of famine, which at the end of the 19th century caused a severe economic strain upon the province. The wave of prosperity which has spread over the country in the past 20 years has more than trebled the funds available for the administration, compared with what they were before the several years of scarcity, and the progress of the administration and of expenditure has increased correspondingly.

FINANCES OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25

Principal Heads of Revenue

	Rs.
Taxes on Income	1,32,000
Land Revenue	2,25,08,000
Excise	1,31,74,000
Stamps	71,50,000
Forest	58,00,000
Registration	7,00,000
Total	4,89,64,000

Irrigation

Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	— 2,19,000
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	1,36,000
Total	3,55,000

Debt Services

Interest	2,60,000
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Civil Administration

Administration of Justice	5,00,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	2,92,000
Police	1,64,000
Education	4,20,000
Medical	27,000
Public Health	85,000
Agriculture	3,17,000
Industries	42,000
Miscellaneous Departments	65,000
Total	19,12,000

Civil Works.

Civil Works	4,00,000
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	<i>Miscellaneous</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	.	5,71,000
Stationery and Printing	.	48,000
Miscellaneous	.	6,74,000
	Total	12,90,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		
	Total Provincial Revenue	5,31,81,000
Debt Heads.		
Deposits and Advances-Famine Insurance Fund		46,69,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments		22,14,000
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments		26,50,000
	Total Revenue and Receipts	6,27,14,000
Opening balance { Ordinary		75,95,000
{ Famine Insurance Fund		68,91,000
	Grand Total	7,72,00,000

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1924-25

<i>Direct Demands on the Revenue</i>		
Land Revenue	..	25,28,000
Excise	7,80,000
Stamps	.	2,45,000
Forest ..	.	33,36,000
Registration	..	2,68,000
	Total	71,57,000

*Irrigation***Revenue Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works—**

Interest on Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	20,86,000
Other Revenue expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenues	2,59,000
(1) Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance Grants	2,47,000
Total	25,92,000

Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works charged to Revenue.—**Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works.—**

A.—Financed from Famine Insurance Grants	..
B.—Financed from Ordinary Revenue
Total	..

Debt Services.

Interest on Ordinary Debt	26,000
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<i>Civil Administration.</i>		<i>Rs.</i>
General Administration Reserved	60,00,000
do Transferred	2
Administration of Justice	30,70,000
Prisons and Convict Settlements	2,00,000
Police	57,78,000
Scientific Departments	18,000
Education—		
Reserved	1,48,223
Transferred	49,71,897
Medical	13,18,897
Public Health	3,08,000
Agriculture	14,19,188
Industries—		
Reserved	20,000
Transferred	2,44,500
Miscellaneous Departments—		
Reserved	1,20,000
Transferred	
Total		2,52,85,667
<i>Civil Works</i>		
General Works—		
Reserved	30,000
Transferred	62,95,600
Total		63,25,600
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
Famine Relief and Insurance—		
A.—Famine Relief	39,91,000
B.—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund	18,20,000
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	18,20,000
Stationery and Printing—		
Reserved	6,70,000
Transferred	15,000
Miscellaneous—		
Reserved	2,61,000
Transferred	7,29,000
Total		78,96,000
Provincial Contributions and miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments—		
Contributions	22,00,000
Miscellaneous Adjustments	23,000
Total		22,23,000
Expenditure in England	10,57,000
Total Provincial Expenditure		5,21,09,387
Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankments, Drainage and other Works not charged to Revenue—		
Forest Capital outlay	1,35,000
Capital outlay on Stationery and Printing	31,90,000
Construction of Irrigation Works	
Total		33,15,000
<i>Debt Heads</i>		
Deposits and Advances—		
Famine Insurance Funds	4,55,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	3,15,000
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments	28,43,000
Total Expenditure and Disbursements		5,90,40,387
For rounding		—237
Closing balance { Ordinary	70,55,000
Famine Insurance Fund	1,11,06,000
Grand Total		7,72,00,000
Surplus	+10,71,743

GOVERNOR.		J. S. Campbell (Officiating)	1865
H. E. Sir Montagu Butler, Kt., C.B., C.I.E.		R. Temple	1865
C.V.O., C.B.E.		J. H. Morris (Officiating)	1867
MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.		G. Campbell	1867
The Hon. Mr B. P. Standen, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.		J. H. Morris (Officiating)	1868
The Hon. Sir Moropant V. Joshi, Kt.		Confirmed 27th May 1870	
SECRETARIAT		Colonel R. H. Keatinge, V.C., C.S.I. (Offg.)	1870
Chief Secretary, Mr A. E. Nelson, O.B.E., I.C.S., J.P., M.L.O.		J. H. Morris, C.S.I.	1872
Financial Secretary, Mr A. E. Mathias, I.C.S.		C. Grant (Officiating)	1879
Revenue Secretary, Mr Cyril James Irwin, C.I.E.		J. H. Morris, C.S.I.	1879
Legal Secretary, Mr David George Mitchell, I.C.S.		W. B. Jones, C.S.I.	1883
Under Secretaries, Messrs Chintaman Dwarkanath Dechmukh, I.C.S., Ambalal Narotam Das Shah, Bar-at-Law, and Chhote Lal Varma		C. H. T. Crosthwaite (Officiating)	1884
Financial Asst. Secretary, Mr C. E. Higher		Confirmed 27th January 1885	
Secretary, Public Works Department (Irrigation Branch), Lieut. Col. H. de L. Pollard Lowndes, C.I.E., D.S.O., R.E., O.M.G. (Roads and Buildings), Mr J. M. M. Parker, A.C.M.		D. Fitzpatrick (Officiating)	1885
		J. W. Neill (Officiating)	1887
		A. Mackenzie, C.S.I.	1887
		R. J. Crosthwaite (Officiating)	1889
		Until 7th October 1889	
		J. W. Neill (Officiating)	1890
		A. P. MacDonell, C.S.I.	1891
		J. Woodburn, C.S.I. (Officiating)	1893
BERAR		Confirmed 1st December 1893	
Commissioner, Mr F. C. Turner, I.C.S., M.L.O.		Sir C. J. Lyall, C.S.I., K.C.I.E.	1895
MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS		The Hon'ble Mr D. C. J. Ibbotson, C.S.I.	1896
Director of Public Instruction, Mr C. E. W. Jones, M.A., M.L.O.		„ Sir A. H. L. Fraser, K.C.S.I.	1899
Inspector-General of Police, Mr Thomas Henry Morony		(Officiating) Confirmed 8th March 1902.	
Chief Conservator of Forests, Sir Henry A. Farrington		The Hon'ble Mr J. P. Hewett, C.S.I., C.I.E.	1902
Inspector-General of Prisons, Major W. J. Powell, I.M.S.		(Officiating) Confirmed 2nd November 1903	
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. J. A. Black, I.M.S.		The Hon'ble Mr F. S. P. Lely, C.S.I., K.C.I.E.	1904
Director, Public Health, Lt. Col. T. G. N. Stokes, I.M.S.		(Officiating) Confirmed 23rd Dec 1904	
Commissioner of Excise, G. P. Burton, I.C.S.		The Hon'ble Mr J. O. Miller, C.S.I.	1905
Income Tax Commissioner, Mr K. B. Jalar		S. Ismay, C.S.I. (Officiating)	1906
Accountant-General, Mr James Patch, O.B.E.		Until 21st October 1906	
Postmaster-General, Mr M. L. Pasricha		W. A. T. Phillips (Officiating)	1907
Director of Agriculture, Mr David Clouston, C.I.E.		Until 24th March 1907. Also from 20th May to 21st November 1909	
Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies, Mr H. R. Crosthwaite, O.B.E., C.I.E.		The Hon'ble Sir R. H. Craddock, K.C.S.I.	1907
		„ Mr H. A. Crump, C.S.I.	1912
		Sub pro tem from 26th January 1912 to 16th February	
CHIEF COMMISSIONERS		The Hon'ble Mr W. Fox Strangways, C.S.I.	1912
Colonel E. K. Elliot	1890	(Sub pro tem)	
Lieut.-Colonel J. K. Spence (Officiating)	1892	The Hon'ble Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1912
R. Temple (Officiating)	1892	„ Mr Crump, C.S.I. (Officiating)	1914
Colonel E. K. Elliot	1893	„ Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I.	1914
J. S. Campbell (Officiating)	1894	„ Sir Frank George Sly, K.C.S.I., I.C.S.	1919
R. Temple	1894	GOVERNORS	
		H. E. Sir Frank Sly, K.C.S.I.	1920
		H. E. Sir Montagu Butler, Kt., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E.	1926

CENTRAL PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

President—The Hon. Sir Gangadhar Madho Chitnavis, M. C. J. M.

(i) *Officials*

- Mr. Arthur Edward Nelson, C. L. E., C. M. R., I. C. S., Chief Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces
 Mr. Alfred Ernest Mathias, I. C. S., Finance Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces
 Mr. David George Mitchell, C. L. E., I. C. S., Legal Remembrancer and Legal Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces
 Mr. Charles Evan William Jones, I. E. S., Director of Public Instruction and Secretary in the Education Department to the Government of the Central Provinces
 Mr. James Ferguson Dyer, M. A., Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Records.

(ii) *Non Officials*

- Mr. V. B. Kekre (Mandla)
 Raja Thakur Raghuraj Singh of Pandaria (Zamindari and Jagirdari Estates)
 Mr. William Pasley (European and Anglo Indian Communities)
 Mr. Ganesh Akaji Gaval (Depressed Classes)
 Mr. Sukhaji Urkuda Katangale (Depressed Classes)
 Sardar Bahadur J. N. Rodrigues
 Mr. Ramkrishna Raoji Javavant, M. B. B.
 Mr. Ghulam Mohiddin
 Shri Charan Dube.

MEMBERS ELECTED

Name	Constituency
Mr. Prabhat Chandra Bose	Jubbulpore City, Non Muhammadan Urban
Mr. Gyanachandra Verma	Jubbulpore Division, Non Muhammadan Urban
Mr. Raghvendra Rao	Chhattisgarh Division, Non Muhammadan Urban
Mr. Chandra Gopal Misra	Nerbudda Non Muhammadan Urban
Dr. N. B. Khare	Nagpur City-cum Kamptee Non Muhammadan Urban
Dr. B. S. Munje	Do do do
Mr. Balvant Baghav Deshmukh	Nagpur Division, Non Muhammadan Urban
Mr. Kanchhedilal	Jubbulpore District (South), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Kashi Prasad Pande	Jubbulpore District (North), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Gokulchand Singal	Damoh District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Gopal Rao Ramchandra Wakharan	Saugor District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Prabhakar Dhundiraj Jatar	Seoni District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Sheodass Daga	Rajpur District (North), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Ravishanker Shukla	Rajpur District (South), Non Muhammadan Rural
Thakur Chhedilal	Bilaspur District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Ghansham Singh Gupta	Drug District, Non-Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Beni Madhava Awasthi	Hoshangabad District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr. Gopal Rao Rambhan Joshi	Nissar District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Chandhry Daulat Singh	Narsinghpur District, Non-Muhammadan Rural

Name	Constituency
Mr Vishwanath Damodar Salpekar	Chhindwara District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Krishnarao Mahadeo Dharmadhikari	Betul District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Krishna Paodurang Vaidya	Nagpur District (East), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Laxman Rao Waman Rao Halde	Nagpur District (West), Non-Muhammadan Rural
Mr Namdeo Yashwant Dhopte	Wardha Tahsil, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr G V Deshmukh	Wardha District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Deorao Mukund Patil	Chanda District Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Raghunath Ramchandra Pathak	Bhandara District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr K R. Mohariker	Balaghat District, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mazulfi Saiyid Muhammad Amin Shams ul ulma	Jubbulpore Division, Muhammadan Rural
Mr, Muhammad Masud Khan	Chhattisgarh Division, Muhammadan Rural
Mr Syed Hifazat Ali	Nerbudda Division, Muhammadan Rural
Mr, M K Sinddiqui	Nagpur Division, Muhammadan Rural
Mr Shyam Sunder Bhargava	Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders
The Hon'ble Mr, S M Chitnavis, I.C.O.	Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Landholders
Mr M K. Golwalkar	Nagpur University
Bao Sahib Laxminarayan	Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association
Raj Bahadur K S Nayudu	Central Provinces, Commerce and Industry

Members elected from Berar

Mr Shripad Balwant Tambe	East Berar, Municipal Non Muhammadan Urban
Mr Ramchandra Anant Kantkar	West Berar, Municipal, Non Muhammadan Urban
Mr W G Mohrir	Amraoti (Central) Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Panjabrao Bajirao Deshmukh	Amraoti (East), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Ramrao Madhavrao Deshmukh	Amraoti (West), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Tukaram Sheoram Korde	Akola (East) Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Umedsinh Narayansinh Thakur	Akola (North West), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Janardan Bhalchandra Sane	Akola (South), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Y M Kale	Buldana (Central), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Nathu Bagho Patil	Buldana (Malkapur Jalgaon), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Mahadeo Palkaji Kolhe	Ycetmal (East), Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Dattatraya Krishna Kane	Ycetmal (West), Non Muhammadan Rural
Khan Bahadur Saiyid Abdur Rahman	Berar, Municipal, Non Muhammadan Urban
Mr Syed Musaffar Husain	East Berar, Non Muhammadan Rural
Mr Masur AH Khan	West Berar, Non-Muhammadan Rural
Mr Balkrishna Ganesh Khaparde	Berar Landholders
Mr Shriram Surajmal	Berar, Commerce and Industry

North-West Frontier Province.

The North-West Frontier Province, as its name denotes, is situated on the north west frontier of the Indian Empire. It is in form an irregular strip of country lying north by east and south by west and may generally be described as the tract of country, north of Baluchistan, lying between the Indus and the Durand boundary line with Afghanistan. To the north it extends to the mountains of the Hindu Kush. From this range a long broken line of mountains runs almost due south, dividing the province from Afghanistan, until the Sulaiman Range eventually closes the south of the Province from Baluchistan. The greatest length of the province is 408 miles, its greatest breadth 279 miles and its total area about 89,000 square miles. The territory falls into three main geographical divisions the Cis-Indus district of Hazara, the narrow strip between the Indus and the Hills, containing the Districts of Peshawar, Kohat, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan, and the rugged mountainous regions on the north and west between those districts and the border line of Afghanistan. Hazara and the four districts in the second division contain 13,418 square miles. The mountain regions, north and west, are occupied by tribes subject only to the political control of the Chief Commissioner in his capacity as Agent to the Governor General. The area of this tract is roughly 25,500 square miles and in it are situated, from north to south the political agencies severally known as the Malakand, Khyber, Kurram, Tochi and Wana Agencies. Each of the Deputy Commissioners of the five administered districts is responsible for the management of political relations with certain tribes or sections of the tribes across the frontier. A few hundred miles of the trans-border Territory are internally administered by the Political Agents but the bulk of the trans-border population is free from any internal interference, so long as offences are not committed and so long as the tribes observe the conditions on which allowances are paid to many of them.

The area of the Province is a little more than half that of Bombay (excluding Sind and Aden) and amounts to more than three fifths of the size of England without Wales. The density of population throughout the Province equals 180 persons to a square mile, but in the more favoured portions the pressure of population is much greater. In the Hazara District there are 208 persons to a square mile and in the trans-Indus plains tract the number is 156. The key to the history of the people of the N.W.F.P. lies in the recognition of the fact that the valley of Peshawar was always more closely connected politically with Eastern Iran than with India, though in pre-Mahomedan times its population was mainly Indian by race. Early history finds the Iranians dominating the whole Indus valley. Then came the Greek invasion under Alexander the Great, in B.C. 327, then the invasions of the Sakas, and of the White Huns and later the two great waves of Mahomedan invasion. Last came the Sikh invasion beginning in

1818. The Frontier Territory was annexed by the British in 1849 and placed under the control of the Punjab Government. Frequent warfare occurred with the border tribes. The most serious phases of these disturbances were the war provoked by the aggression of Afghanistan in 1919 and the protracted punitive operations against the Waziris in 1919-1920. These have resulted in the establishment at Bannu, a position dominating the Mahsud Waziri country, of a permanent garrison of 15,000 men drawn mostly from stations lying in the Province immediately below the hills. A ~~direct~~ route from Bannu, through Basmak to Sorochoha, Jandola and back to the Derajat provides communications transport with this force and facilitates its mobility. The effect of this measure has been a marked improvement in the internal peace of the Tribal area.

The division of the Frontier Province from the Punjab has frequently been discussed, with the double object, in the earlier stages of those debates, of securing closer and more immediate control and supervision of the Frontier by the Supreme Government and of making such alterations in the personnel and duties of frontier officials as would tend to the establishment of improved relations between the local British representatives and the independent tribesmen. The Province was eventually removed from the control of the Punjab administration in 1901. To it was added the political charge of Dir, Swat and Chitral, the Political Agent of which had never been subordinate to the Punjab. The new Province was constituted under a Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor General, with head quarters at Peshawar, in direct communication with the Government of India in the Foreign Department. In political questions there is no intermediary between the Chief Commissioner and the local officer, an arrangement designed to secure both prompt disposal of references and the utilisation of the expert knowledge of frontier conditions for which the head of the administration is selected. The advisability of re-uniting the Province with the Punjab has recently been much discussed in certain Indian political circles and as a result of the views expressed upon the matter in the Legislative Assembly the Government of India in 1922 appointed a Committee of officials and unofficals to investigate it. The Committee, presided over by Mr. D. de S. Bray, M.L.A., Joint Foreign Secretary, toured the Frontier Province and the Punjab and heard numerous witnesses. Its members were Messrs. Ram Ali, M.C.S., T. Rangachari, Chaudhri Shahabuddin, N. M. Samarth and K. B. Abdur Rahim Khan, members of the Legislative Assembly, H. N. Rolton, I.C.S., (Foreign Dept.) and A. H. Parker, I.C.S., (Punjab) (members). The inquiry developed practically into a contest between Mahomedans and Hindus on communal lines. The Hindus, allied in sympathy with their co-religionists in the Punjab demanded the reunion of the administered districts of the Province with the Punjab or, if that were not attainable then the placing of the judicial

administration of the Province under the Punjab High Court, at Lahore. The Mahomedans on the other hand claimed the right of their Province to a status corresponding with that enjoyed by other Provinces of India and to immediate reforms initiating and providing for progress along that line. The Hindus argued that a separate Pathan Province on the Frontier would cause a dangerous sentimental division from the rest of India, with leanings towards the allied racial elements outside British India. The answer to that was that a contented Pathan Province would be a valuable buttress against hostile feeling across the Border. The Committee's deliberations ended in disagreement, the two Hindu members writing each a separate report favourable to the Hindu viewpoint already explained, and the majority of the Committee comprised of all its other members recommending advance on a Provincial basis. Their principal recommendations were for:

Retention of the Settled Districts and Tribal Tracts as a separate unit in charge of a minor administration under the Government of India.

Early creation of a Legislative Council for the Settled Districts and appointment of Members of Council and Minister.

Appointment of a second Judicial Commissioner and reform of the judicial administration in various directions, including interchange of officers with the Punjab so that the members of the Service in the smaller Province should have the advantage of experience in the larger one.

If (concluded the Majority) the Pathan nationality is allowed self-determination and given scope for that self-development within the Indian Empire under the Reforms Scheme after which it is now striving we are assured that with a contented Frontier population India can face with calm resolution the future that the Frontier has in store for her.

No action on the report has yet been taken and an important reason for the delay is understood to be the sharp accentuation of communal bitterness throughout the Frontier region as a result of political agitation at Kohat leading to a murderous and incendiary outbreak between the members of the two communities there last Spring.

The People.

The total population of the N W F P (1921) is 5,076,476, made up as follows:—

Hazara	632,349
Trans-Indus Districts	1,628,901
Trans-Border Area	2,825,136

This last figure is estimated. There are only 561 ½ females per 1,000 males in the towns, and 872 ½ females per 1,000 males in rural areas.

This disproportion of the sexes cannot at present be explained in the N-W F P any more than in other parts of Northern India where it also appears. The discrepancy is greater here than in any other Province of India. There is no ground for believing that the neglect of girls in infancy has any effect in causing the

phenomenon. On the other hand, the female population has to face many trials which are unknown to men. The evils of unskilled midwifery and early marriage are among them. Both the birth and death-rates of the Province are abnormally low. The birth rate in the administered districts, according to the last available official reports, is 23.7 and the death rate 21.7. The birth rate was 17 per cent below the average for the preceding quinquennium—in Hazara 35 per cent below it—a figure indicating the unusually low vitality of the people after a breeding severe epidemic of malaria. The population is naturally increasing but emigration reduces the net result.

The dominant language of the Province is Pashtu and the population contains several lingual strata. The most important sections of the population, both numerically and by social position are the Pathans. They own a very large proportion of the land in the administered districts and are the ruling race, of the tribal area to the west. There is a long list of Pathan, Baluch, Rajput and other tribal divisions. Gurkhas have recently settled in the Province. The Mahomedan tribes constitute almost the whole population, Hindus amounting to only 5 per cent of the total and Sikhs to a few thousands. The occupational cleavage of the population confuses ethnical divisions.

Under the North West Frontier Province Law and Justice Regulation of 1901, custom governs all questions regarding successions, betrothal, marriage, divorce, the separate property of women, dower, wills, gifts, partitions, family relations such as adoption and guardianship, and religious usages and institutions, provided that the custom be not contrary to justice, equity or good conscience. In these matters the Mahomedan or Hindu law is applied only in the absence of special custom.

Climate, Flora and Fauna

The climatic conditions of the N-W.F.P., which is mainly the mountainous region, but includes the Peshawar Valley and the riverine tracts of the Indus in Dera Ismail Khan District, are extremely diversified. The latter district is one of the hottest areas of the Indian continent, while on the mountain ranges the weather is temperate in summer and intensely cold in winter. The air is generally dry and hence the annual ranges of temperature are frequently very large. The Province has two wet seasons, one the S-W Monsoon season, when moisture is brought up from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal the other in winter, when storms from Mesopotamia, Persia and the Caspian Districts bring widespread rain and snowfall. Both sources of supply are precarious and not infrequently either the winter or the summer rainfall fails almost entirely. The following description of the Daman, the high ground above the Indus, stretching across Dera Ismail Khan to the mountains on the west, occurs in an account written some years ago by Captain Crookwaite: "Men drink once a day and the cattle every second day. Washing is an impossible luxury. It is possible in the hot weather to ride thirty miles and neither hear

a dog bark nor see the smoke of a single fire." With the exception of the Kunhar River, in Hamana, which flows into the Jhelum, the whole territory drains into the Indus. The flora of the Province varies from the shrubby jungle of the south-eastern plains to barren hills, pine forests and fertile mountain valleys. Tigers used to abound in the forests but are now quite extinct, leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals and foxes are the chief carnivora. Bear, deer and monkeys are found, a great variety of fish is caught in the Indus.

The mountain scenery is often magnificent. The frontier ranges contain many notable peaks of which the following are the principal:

Takht-i-Sulaiman, Sulaiman Range, in Dera Ismail Khan, 11,292 feet

Pir Ghal, Sulaiman Range, in Mahsud Waziristan, 11,583 feet

Sika Ram, in the Safed Koh, in the Kurram Agency, 15,621 feet.

Kagan Peaks of the Himalayas, in the Hazara District, 10,000 to 16,700 feet.

Iseragh Peak (18,900 ft.), Kachin Peak (22,641 ft.), Tirich Mir (25,426 ft.), all in the Hindu Kush, on the northern border of Chitral Agency

Trade and Occupations.

The population derives its subsistence almost wholly from agriculture. The Province is practically without manufactures. There is no considerable surplus of commercial products for export. Any commercial importance which the province possesses it owes to the fact that it lies across the great trade routes which connect the trans-border tribal territories and the marts of Afghanistan and Central Asia with India, but the influence of railways is diminishing the importance of these trading interests. Special mention may be made of the railway comparatively recently opened linking Baluchistan, in the south-west of the N.W.F.P., via Nushki with south-east Persia. The line connects with the north-west railway system of India and extends 343 miles to Duzdarp, within the Persian border. Two weekly trains run each way and the freight carried largely consists of carpets, wool and dates, from Persia and of tea, sugar and piece-goods from the Indian side. Though the railway is primarily strategic in purpose its commercial and political effects will be considerable. The travelling traders (or Powindahs) from the trans-frontier area have always pursued their wanderings into India and now, instead of doing their trading in towns near the border, carry it by train to the large cities in India. The approaching completion of a railway through the Khyber Pass will similarly, in course of time, develop both the manner and amount of transport communications and trade. The new roads in Waziristan are already largely utilised by the Tribal inhabitants for motor traffic. Prices of agricultural produce have in recent years been high, but the agriculturists, owing to the poverty of the means of communication, have to some extent been deprived of access to Indian markets and have therefore been unable to profit by the rates prevailing. On the other hand, high prices are a hardship to the non-agricultural classes. The

effects of recent extensions of irrigation have been important. Land taxes are generally the same in the British administered districts as in the Punjab. The cultivated area of the land amounts to 23 per cent. and uncultivated to 68 per cent.

The work of civilisation is now making steady progress, both by the improvement of communications and otherwise. Relations with the tribes have improved, trade has advanced, free medical relief has been vastly extended, police administration has been reformed, and the desire of people for education has been judiciously and sympathetically fostered. Although the limitations imposed by financial embarrassment on the British administered districts 19 per cent. males and 7 per cent females of the total population are returned as literates. The figures for males denote a very narrow diffusion of education even for India. Those for females are not notably low, but they are largely affected by the high literacy amongst high women, of whom 13.8 per cent are returned as literate. The inauguration of a system of night schools throughout the Province, apart from the considerations of strategy, must materially improve the condition of the people and also by that means strengthen the hold of the administration over them. The great engineering project of the Upper Swat River Canal, which was completed in 1914, and the lesser work of the Fahirpur Canal, also completed a few years ago, will bring ease and prosperity to a number of peasant homes.

Administration

The administration of the North West Frontier Province is conducted by the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor General in Council. His staff consists of—

- (1) Officers of the Political Department of the Government of India
- (2) Members of the Provincial Civil Service
- (3) Members of the Subordinate Civil Service
- (4) Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police
- (5) Officers recruited for the service of departments requiring special knowledge—Military, Engineering, Education, Medicine and Forestry

The cadre posts reserved for officers coming under the first head above are—

Administration	Chief Commissioner & Agent to the Governor General	5
	Secretary	
	Under-Secretary	
	Personal Assistant	
	Revenue Commissioner and Revenue Secretary	
	Resident in Waziristan	1
	Deputy Commissioners	
	Political Agents	5
	District Judges	2
	Assistant Commissioners and Assistant Political Agents	13

The Province of Assam, omitting the partly administered and unadministered tracts on its northern and eastern borders comprises an area of some 63,510 square miles. It includes the Assam Valley Division, the Surma Valley and HIR Division and the State of Manipur. It owes its importance to its situation on the north-east frontier of India. It is surrounded by mountainous ranges on three sides while on the fourth (the west) lies the Province of Bengal on to the plains of which debouch the two valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Surma which form the plains of Assam. These two valleys are separated from each other by the Assam Range, which projects westward from the hills on the eastern border.

Population.

The total population of the Province in 1921 was 7,990,246 of whom only 384,016 were in Manipur. Of the population in 1921, 22 millions were Mahomedans, 4½ millions Hindus and 1½ millions Animists. 44 per cent. of the population speak Bengali, 23 per cent. speak Assamese, other languages spoken in the province are Hindi, Uriya, and a great variety of languages classified under the general heading of the Tibeto-Chinese languages. Owing to the great areas of waste and rivers the density of the province is only 130, which compared with that of most other parts of India is low, but is more than double that of Burma.

Agricultural Products.

It has agricultural advantages for which it would be difficult to find a parallel in any part of India, climate, soil, rainfall and river systems all being alike favourable to cultivation. Rice is the staple food crop, nearly 5 million acres being devoted to this crop. Except in the Himalayan Terai irrigation is unnecessary. Tea and Jute are the most important crops grown for export. The area under tea consists of 411,807 acres. Wheat and tobacco are also grown and about 86 square miles are devoted to sugarcane.

Meteorological Conditions.

Rainfall is everywhere abundant, and ranges from 67 to 229 inches. The maximum is reached at Cherrapunji in the Khasi Hills, which is one of the wettest places in the world, having a rainfall of 455 inches. The temperature ranges from 59 at Sibesar in January to 84.8 in July. Earthquakes of considerable severity have taken place, by far the worst being that which occurred in 1907.

Minerals and Minerals.

The only minerals in Assam worked on a commercial scale are coal, limestone and petroleum oil. The most extensive coal measures are in the Naga Hills and the Lakhimpur

district, where about 350,000 tons are raised annually. Limestone is quarried in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, in Sylhet, and in the Garo hills. Petroleum is worked only in Lakhimpur and Cachar.

An account of the petroleum occurrences in Assam was recently published in the Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India. It states that the petroleum localities in this province are confined to a curved belt of country along the basins of the Brahmaputra and Surma. This belt is traceable over a distance of some 800 miles from N.E. Assam through Kachar and Chittagong to the Arakan coast, where it has a S.S.E. trend.

Manufactures and Trade.

Silk is manufactured in the Assam Valley, the weaving being done by the women. Cotton weaving is also largely practised by the women, and almost every house contains a loom, the cloth being gradually displaced by imported goods of finer texture and colour. Tea manufacture is the most important industry of the province. Boat building, brass and metal and earthenware, and limestone burning are the other industries apart from agriculture, which itself employs about 89 per cent. of the population. Assam carries on a considerable trade with the adjoining foreign tribes and countries.

Communications.

The trade of Assam is chiefly carried by river, but increasing use is being made from the Assam Bengal Railway which runs from the port of Chittagong through the North Cachar Hills to Tinsukia, a station on the Dibrugarh Sadiya Railway, and connects the Surma and Brahmaputra Valleys. A branch of the line runs from Badarpur to Silchar at the eastern end of the Surma Valley and another runs through the west of the Assam Valley from Lumding to Gauhati where it effects a junction with the Eastern Bengal Railway. The Eastern Bengal Railway connects Assam with the Bengal system via the valley of the Brahmaputra. The excellence of its water communication makes Assam less dependent upon roads than other parts of India, but in recent years the road system has been developed and there is an unmetalled trunk road through the whole length of the Brahmaputra Valley and an excellent road from Gauhati to Shillong. A large fleet of steamers maintained by the India General Steam Navigation Company and the Elvers Steam Navigation Company ply on the rivers of both valleys. An alternate day service of passenger boats runs between Goalundo and Dibrugarh.

THE FINANCES OF ASSAM.

In common with the other Provinces of India, Assam secured substantial financial autonomy under the Reform Act of 1919. The present financial position is set out in some detail in the following table —

Estimated Revenue in 1924-25

	(In Thousands of Rupees.)
Taxes on Income	2,60
Land Revenue	1,01,28
Excise	29,00
Stamps	28,99
Tariffs	21,12
Registration	2,01
TOTAL	2,97,10

Estimated Revenue in 1921-5—(contd.)

(In Thousands of Rupees.)

State Railways (net)	5
Interest	69
Administration of Justice	1,33
Jails and Convict Settlements	1,23
Police	1,22
Education	2,30
Medical	21
Public Health	1,12
Agriculture	18
Industries	6
Miscellaneous Departments	1
TOTAL	8,66
Civil Works	4,73
TOTAL	4,73
In aid of Superannuation	1,00
Stationery and Printing	12
Miscellaneous ..	1,50
TOTAL	2,62
Provincial loan account (net)	1,75
Famine Insurance Fund	12
Total Receipts	2,25,72
Opening Balance	8,97
Grand Total	2,34,69

Estimated Expenditure on Reserved Subjects.

Land Revenue	17,52
Excise	1,88
Stamps	78
Forest ..	16,79
TOTAL	36,97
State Railways	48
Subsidised Companies	39
Miscellaneous Railway expenditure	1
TOTAL	88
Construction of Railways	16
TOTAL	16
Navigation, Embankments and Drainage Works	70
Interest on ordinary debt	21
Expenditure in England	3,99
Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments	2,00
Goalpara Tramway Scheme (Capital Account not charged to Revenue)	45
Government Account ..	
Total Disbursements	2,29,95
Closing balance	4,74
Grand Total	2,34,69
Surplus	..
Deficit	4,32
General Administration	23,57
Administration of Justice	3,51
Jails and Convict Settlements	4,57
Police	21,58
Police (Assam ..)	2,51

Estimated Expenditure on Reserved Subjects—(contd.)

(In Thousands of Rupees.)	
Ports and Pilotage	71
Scientific Departments	11
Education (European)	78
Miscellaneous Departments	19

TOTAL	185
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Civil Works	54.54
Famine Relief and Insurance	10
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	5.71
Stationery and Printing	5.20
Miscellaneous	3.10

TOTAL	124.11
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Contributions and assignments to the Central Government by the Provincial Government

	15.00
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TOTAL	109.20
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Estimated Expenditure on Transferred Subjects

Registration	1.41
General Administration	53
Education (other than European)	28.12
Medical	5.77
Public Health	6.26
Agriculture	6.54
Industries	91
Miscellaneous Departments	3

TOTAL	108.25
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Civil Works	5.25
Stationery and Printing	75
Miscellaneous	3.02

TOTAL	85
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Administration.

The province of Assam was originally formed in 1874 in order to relieve the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal of part of the administration of the huge territory then under him. In 1905, as the result of further deliberations, it was decided to add to the small Province of Assam the eastern portion of its unwieldy neighbour and to consolidate those territories under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam as then constituted was again broken up on the 1st of April, 1912 the Eastern Bengal Districts were united with the Bengal Commissionerships of Burdwan and the Presidency to form the Presidency of Bengal under a Governor-in-Council, Bihar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa were formed into a separate province, while the old Province of Assam was re-constituted under a Chief Commissioner.

Under the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 the Province was raised in status to that of administration by a Governor-in-Council and was thereby ranked, with certain minor provisions to suit its undeveloped character with the older major provinces of India.

The capital is Shillong, a town laid out with great taste and judgment among the pine woods on the slopes of the Shillong Range which rises to a height of 6,450 feet above the sea. It was destroyed in the earthquakes of 1897 and has been rebuilt in a way more likely to withstand the shocks of earthquake.

GOVERNOR.

Sir John Kerr, K.C.I.E., K.C.I.B.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Sir William James Reid, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

Khan Bahadur Kutabuddin Ahmed

MINISTERS.

Rai Bahadur Framed Chandra Datta B.L.

Maulavi Sayid Muhammad Seadulla, M.A.B.L.

SECRETARIAT

Private Secretary, Captain C. B. Lyon.

Chief Secretary, A. W. Botham

Second Secretary, G. E. Soames

Secretary, Public Works Department, O. H.

Deseane

Inspector General of Registration, W. L. Scott

M.A., I.C.S.

Director of Public Instruction, J. R. Cunningham

Inspector General of Police, W. C. M. Dundas,

C.I.E.

Director of Public Health, Lt. Col. T. C. M.

Young, M.D., I.M.S.

Comptroller, Financial Department, C. A. G.

Rivar, B.A.

Director of Land Records and Agriculture, W.

L. Scott, M.A., B.Sc., I.C.S.

Conservators of Forests, F. Trafford and F. H.

Todd

Senior Inspector of Factories R. P. Adams.

GOVERNORS OF ASSAM

Sir Nicholas Dodd Beames Bell, 1900

Sir William Morris, 1902

Sir John Kerr, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., 1912.

ASSAM LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

Names	Constituency
ELECTED MEMBERS	
Rev James Joy Mohan Nicholas-Roy	Shillong (General Urban)
Raj Bahadur Bipin Chandra Deb Laskar	Silchar (Non-Muhammadian Rural)
Raj Sahib Har Kishore Chakrabarti	Hallakandi Ditto
Babu Basanta Kumar Das	Sylhet Sadr Ditto
Babu Brajendra Narayan Chaudhuri	Sunamganj Ditto
Babu Upendra Lal Das Chaudhuri	Habiganj North Ditto
The Hon'ble Raj Bahadur Pramod Chandra Datta	Habiganj South Ditto
Babu Krishna Sundar Dam	South Sylhet Ditto
Babu Khirud Chandra Deb	Karimganj Ditto
Babu Bira Mohan Datta	Dhubri Ditto
Srijut Bipin Chandra Ghosh	Goalpara Ditto
Srijut Kamakhya Borna	Gauhati Ditto
Srijut Kamala Kanta Das	Barpeta Ditto
Srijut Mahadeva Sharma	Tespur Ditto
Srijut Padmanath Sharma	Mangaldai Ditto
Srijut Mahan Charan Borah	Nowgong Ditto
Mr Taraprasad Chaliha	Sibsagar Ditto
Srijut Rohini Kanta Hati Borna	Jorhat Ditto
Srijut Kuladhar Chaliha	Golaghat Ditto
Srijut Sedanaada Dowerah	Dibrugarh Ditto
Srijut Sarveswar Borna	North Lakhimpur Ditto
Maulavi Rashid Ali Laskar	Cachar (Muhammadian Rural)
Maulavi Abdul Hamid Main	Sylhet Sadr, North Ditto
Maulavi Dewan Abdul Rahim Chaudhuri	Sylhet Sadr, South Ditto
Maulavi Abdul Hannan Chaudhuri	Sunamganj Ditto
Maulavi Muhammad Mudabbir Hussein Chaudhuri	Habiganj North Ditto
Maulavi Saliq Abdul Mannan	Habiganj South Ditto
Khan Bahadur Alauddin Ahmad Chaudhuri	South Sylhet Ditto
Maulavi Najmul Islam Chaudhuri	Karimganj Ditto
Maulavi Abul Maksud Elsomahams	Dhubri (excluding South Salmara Thana (Muhammadian Rural))
Maulavi Matsoodin Ahmad	Goalpara cum South Salmara Thana (Muhammadian Rural)
Maulavi Saliq Muhammad Seedullah	Kamrup and Darrang cum Nowgong (Muhammadian Rural)
Maulavi Falsour Ali	Sibsagar cum Lakhimpur (Muhammadian Rural)
Edgar Stuart Roffey	Assam Valley Planting
Walter Doelling Smiles, D.S.O	Ditto.
M. E. Clarke	Ditto.
B. W. Hobson	Burma Valley Planting
J. C. Dawson	Ditto.
John Alexander Fraser	Commerce and Industry

ASSAM REPRESENTATIVE TO THE COUNCIL OF STATE

Elected.

The Hon'ble Srijut Chandra Dhar Borna | Assam (Non-Muhammadian)

ASSAM REPRESENTATIVE TO THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

Elected.

Srijut Tarun Ram Phukan	..	Assam Valley (Non-Muhammadian).
Mr. Kamini Kumar Chanda	..	Burma Valley cum Shillong (Non-Muhammadian).
Maulavi Ahmad Ali	..	Assam (Muhammadian).
Mr. Basanta Kumar Das	..	Assam (European)

Baluchistan.

Baluchistan is an oblong stretch of country occupying the extreme western corner of the Indian Empire. It is divided into three main divisions (1) British Baluchistan with an area of 9,476 square miles consisting of tracts assigned to the British Government by treaty in 1879, (2) Agency Territories with an area of 44,846 square miles composed of tracts which have, from time to time, been acquired by lease or otherwise brought under control and placed directly under British officers, and (3) the Native States of Kalat and Las Bela with an area of 78,484 square miles. The Province embraces an area of 134,638 square miles and according to the census of 1921 it contains 799,625 inhabitants.

The country, which is almost wholly mountainous, lies on a great belt of ranges connecting the Sated Koh with the hill system of Southern Persia. It thus forms a watershed the drainage of which enters the Indus on the east and the Arabian Sea on the south while on the north and west it makes its way to the inland lakes which form so large a feature of Central Asia. Rugged, barren, sunburnt mountains, rent by high chasms and gorges, alternate with arid deserts and stony plains, the prevailing colour of which is a monotonous sight. But this is redeemed in places by level valleys of considerable size in which irrigation enables much cultivation to be carried on and rich crops of all kinds to be raised.

The political connection of the British Government with Baluchistan commenced from the outbreak of the First Afghan War in 1839, it was traversed by the Army of the Indus and was afterwards occupied until 1842 to protect the British lines of communication. The districts of Kachi, Quetta and Mastung were handed over to the Amir of Afghanistan and Political Officers were appointed to administer the country. At the close of the First Afghan War, the British withdrew and these districts were assigned to the Khan of Kalat. The founder of the Baluchistan Province as it now exists was Sir Robert Sandeman who broke down the close border system and welded the Baluch and Brahui Chiefs into a close confederacy. In the Afghan War of 1879 Pishin, Shorard, Sibi, Zawara Valley and Thal Chotali were handed over by Yakub Khan to the British Government and retained at Sir Robert Sandeman's strenuous insistence.

Industries

Baluchistan lies outside the monsoon area and its rainfall is exceedingly irregular and scanty. Shahrig, which has the heaviest rainfall, records no more than 11½ inches in a year. In the highlands few places receive more than 10 inches and in the plains the average rainfall is about 5 inches, decreasing in some cases to 3. The majority of the indigenous population are dependent for their livelihood on agriculture, provision and care of animals and transport. The majority of the Afghan and the Baluch, as a rule, cultivate their own lands.

The Brahuis dislike agriculture and prefer a pastoral life. Previous to the advent of the British life and property were so insecure that the cultivator was fortunate if he reaped his harvest. The establishment of peace and security has been accompanied by a marked extension of agriculture which accounts for the increase in the numbers of the purely cultivating classes. The Makran Coast is famous for the quantity and quality of its fish and the industry is constantly developing. Fruit is extensively grown in the highlands and the export is increasing.

Education is imparted in 84 public schools of all kinds, with 4,616 scholars. There is a distinct desire for education amongst the more enlightened headmen round about Quetta-Pishin and other centres where the Local Government with its officers stays at certain seasons, such as Sibi and Ziarat, but on the whole education or the desire of it has made little or no advance in the outlying districts. The mineral wealth of the Province is believed to be considerable, but cannot be exploited until railways are developed. Coal is mined at Khost on the Sind-Pishin railway and in the Bolan Pass. The output of coal in 1922-23 was 9,815½ tons and of coal dust 50,683½ tons. Chromite is extracted in the Zhob District near Hindu bagh. The Chrome output fell off owing to poorer demand. Lime-stone is quarried in small quantities.

Administration

The head of the local administration is the officer styled Agent to the Governor General and Chief Commissioner. Next in rank comes the Revenue Commissioner who advises the Agent to the Governor General in financial matters and generally controls the revenue administration and exercises the functions of a High Court as Judicial Commissioner of the Province. The keynote of administration in Baluchistan is self-government by the tribesmen, as far as may be, by means of their Jirgas or Councils of Elders along the ancient customary lines of tribal law, the essence of which is the satisfaction of the aggrieved and the settlement of the feud, not retaliation on the aggressor or the vindictive punishment of a crime. The district levies which normally numbered 2,800 odd play an unobtrusive but invaluable part in the work of the Civil administration not only in watch and ward and the investigation of crime, but also in the carrying of the mails, the serving of process and other miscellaneous work. In addition to these district levies there are ordinarily two irregular Corps in the Province, the Zhob Levy Corps and the Makran Levy Corps. The Province does not pay for itself and receives large subsidies from the Imperial Government.

Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, The Hon'ble Mr S E Pears, O.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.,

Revenue and Judicial Commissioner, Lt.-Col. A D G Ramsay, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Major W H Roberts, D.S.O.

Secretary to the Agent to the Governor General and Chief Commissioner, Major J L R Weir, I.A.

Political Agent, Zhob, Khan Bahadur Sharbat Khan, C.I.E.

Political Agent, Kalat and Bolan Pass, Lt.-Col. T H Keyes, C.M.G., C.I.E., I.A.

Political Agent and Deputy Commissioner, Quetta, Lt.-Col. F McCoughey, C.I.E.

Assistant Political Agent and Assistant Commissioner, Quetta, E W Hollands

Political Agent, Chagat, Capt G T Fisher

Political Agent, Sibi, Major G F W Ansont, O.B.E.

Assistant Political Agent, Sibi, Rai Sahib Hakim Bhattan Chand

Political Agent, Loralai, Major C T Daukes

Residency Surgeon and Chief Medical Officer, Lt. Col D J M Deas, I.M.S.

Civil Surgeon, Sibi, Major J Anderson

Assistant Political Agent, Zhob, Khan Bahadur K P Kalkobad

Civil Surgeon, Quetta, Lt.-Col. F B Wilson, I.M.S.

ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS

This is a group of islands in the Bay of Bengal of which the headquarters are at Port Blair, by sea 780 miles from Calcutta, 740 miles from Madras and 880 miles from Rangoon, with which ports there is regular communication.

The land area of the islands under the administration is 3,143 square miles, namely, 2,508 square miles in the Andamans and 635 square miles in the Nicobars. The total population is 26,459. The islands are administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands who is also the Superintendent of the Penal Settlement. The penal settlement, which was established in 1858 is the most important in India.

Chief Commissioner of Port Blair, Lieut.-Col. M L Ferrar, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.A.

Commandant and District Superintendent of Police, Major E J E. Poole, M.C.

Senior Medical Officer and Civil Surgeon, Major F A Barker, I.M.S.

COORG.

Coorg is a small petty Province in Southern India, west of the State of Mysore. Its area is 1,582 square miles and its population 174,976. Coorg came under the direct protection of the British Government during the war with Sultan Tippu of Seringapatam. In May 1834, owing to misgovernment, it was annexed. The Province is directly under the Government of India and administered by the Chief Commissioner of Coorg who is the Resident in Mysore with his headquarters at Bangalore. In him are combined all the functions of a local government and a High Court. The Secretariat is at Bangalore where the Assistant Resident is styled Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Coorg. In Coorg his chief authority is the Commissioner whose headquarters are at Merata and whose duties extend to every branch of the administration. A Legislative Council consisting of 15 elected members and five nominated members was created in 1923. The chief wealth of the country is agriculture and especially the growth of coffee. Although owing to over production and insect pests coffee no longer commands the profits it once enjoyed, the Indian output still holds its own against the severe competition of Brazil. The bulk of the output is exported to France.

Resident and Chief Commissioner, Coorg—Vacant

AJMER MERWARA.

Ajmer-Merwara is an isolated British Province in Rajputana. The Agent to the Governor General in Rajputana administers it as Chief Commissioner. The Province consists of two small separate districts, Ajmer and Merwara, with a total area of 2,711 square miles and a population of 501,395. At the close of the Pindari war Daulat Rao Scindia, by a treaty, dated June 25, 1818 ceded the district to the British. Fifty five per cent of the population are supported by agriculture, the industrial population being principally employed in the cotton and other industries. The principal crops are maize, millet, barley, cotton, oilseeds and wheat.

Aden

Aden was the first new territory added to the Empire after the accession of Queen Victoria. Its acquisition in 1839 was the outcome of an outrage committed by the local Fadhli chief upon the passengers and crew of a British brig wrecked in the neighbourhood. Various acts of treachery supervened during the negotiations regarding the brig and Aden was captured by a force sent by the Bombay Government under Major Baillie. The act has been described as one of those opportune political strokes which have given geographical continuity to British possessions scattered over the world.

Aden is an extinct volcano, five miles long and three broad, jutting out to sea much as Gibraltar does, having a circumference of about 15 miles and connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus of flat ground. This is nearly covered at low part at high spring tides, but the causeway and aqueduct are always above, though sometimes only just above water. The highest peak on the wall of precipitous hills that surrounds the old crater which constitutes Aden is 1,775 feet above sea level. Rugged spurs with valleys between, radiate from the centre to the circumference of the crater. A great gap has been rent by some volcanic disturbance on the sea surface of the circle of hills and this opens to the magnificent harbour. The peninsula of Little Aden, adjacent to Aden proper, was obtained by purchase in 1868 and the adjoining tract of Shaikh Othman, 89 square miles in extent, was subsequently purchased when, in 1882, it was found necessary to make provision for an overflowing population.

Attached to the settlement of Aden are the Islands of Perim, an island of 5 square miles extent in the Straits of Bab-el Mandeb, in the entrance to the Arabian Sea, Sokatra Island at the entrance to the Gulf of Aden, in the Arabian Sea, acquired by treaty in 1886 and 1882 miles in extent, and the five small Kuria Muria Islands, ceded by the Imam of Maskat in 1854 for the purpose of landing the Red Sea cable, and otherwise valuable only for the guano deposits found upon them. They are off the Arabian coast about two-thirds of the way from Aden to Maskat. The whole extent of the Aden settlement, including Aden, Little Aden, Shaikh Othman and Perim, and subject to post-war adjustments, is approximately 80 miles. The 1921 census showed Aden, with Little Aden, Shaikh Othman and Perim to have a population of 56,871. The population of Perim is 2,075 largely dependent on the Coal Depot maintained there by a commercial firm. That of Sokatra is 12,000, mostly pastoral and migratory inland fishing on the coast.

Strategic Importance.

Aden's first importance is as a naval and military station of strategic importance. This aspect was ably discussed by Colonel A. M. Murray, in his "Imperial Outposts." He points out that Aden is not a naval base in the same sense that Gibraltar, Malta and Hong Kong were made, but a point d'appui, a rendezvous and striking point for the fleet. It was seized

in 1839 because of its usefulness as a harbour of refuge for British ships and from a strategist's point of view this is its primary purpose and the raison d'être of its forts and garrison. Aden under British rule has retained its ancient prestige as a fortress of impregnable strength, invulnerable by sea and by land, dominating the entrance to the Red Sea, and valuable to its owners as a commercial emporium, a port of call and a cable centre. The harbour extends 8 miles from east to west and 6 from north to south and is divided into two bays by a spit of land. The depth of water in the western bay is from 3 to 4 fathoms, across the entrance 4 to 5 fathoms with 10 to 12 fathoms 2 miles outside. The bottom is sand and mud. There are several islands in the inner bay. Strategic control of the Red Sea was rendered complete by the annexation of Perim and Sokatra, which may both be regarded as outposts of Aden, and are under the political jurisdiction of the Resident.

The Arab chiefs of the hinterland of Arabia are nearly all stipendiaries of the British Government. Colonel Wahab and Mr G. H. Fitzmaurice, of the Constantinople Embassy, were appointed in 1902, as Commissioners to delimitate the frontier between Turkish Arabia and the British protectorate around Aden. A convention was signed in 1905 settling details the frontier line being drawn from Shaikh Murad a point of the Red Sea coast opposite Perim, to the bank of the river Bana, the eastern limit of Turkish claims, at a point some 29 miles north-east of Dithala and thence north-east to the great desert. The area left within the British Protectorate was about 9,000 square miles. The arrangement gave to Turkey Cape Bab-el Mandeb which forms the Arabian bank of the eastern channel past Perim into the Red Sea. England took this gatepost of the Red Sea from the Turks in November 1914. A sanatorium and small British garrison used to be maintained at Dithala which is 7,700 feet high but the garrison was withdrawn in 1906. Lord Morley explaining this step as being in accordance with the policy stated in the House of Lords in 1903—that His Majesty's Government had never desired to interfere with the internal and domestic affairs of the tribes on the British side of the boundary, but had throughout made it plain that they would not assent to the interference of any other Power with those affairs. Affairs in this respect have been disarranged considerably by the war.

British Policy

There has been much criticism of a policy under which Aden has failed to advance with the same progressive strides which have marked the development of other British dependencies. It is said that the former Persian possessors of Aden built its wonderful water tanks, and the Arabs made an aqueduct 20 miles long, while the British have done nothing except mount guns to protect their coal yards. Trade, it is argued, flourishes because this is a natural emporium of commerce, but not because of the attention its needs get from Government. Lord Roberts, writing on this point a few years ago, said "It is not creditable to British rule to

make use of a dependency like Aden for selfish purposes of political necessity without attempting to extend the benefits of civilised Government to the neighbouring native tribes, especially when those tribes are living under the aegis of the British Crown. The Persians, the Turks and even the Arabs did more for Aden in their time than we have done during our seventy years' occupation. Aden has always suffered under the disadvantage of being an appanage of the Bombay Presidency, with which it has neither geographical, racial nor political affinity. Probably the best solution of the matter would be to hand over the place to the Colonial Office, relieving the Government of Bombay of a charge which is only looked upon as an incubus. This question is still under discussion but some important steps have been taken in the past few years to satisfy the commercial needs of the port.

Trade.

The trade of Aden is mostly transshipment the port serving as a centre of distribution. The total seaborne trade in the official year 1923-24 was Rs. 14,01,83,971 as compared with the preceding year's total of Rs. 15,90,42,158 showing an increase of Rs. 10,91,813. Merchandise decreased by Rs. 26,23,003 but Treasure increased by Rs. 37,18,816. The trade with the interior of Arabia amounted in imports and exports to Rs. 81,81,845 and Rs. 45,12,725 respectively, as compared with last year's total of Rs. 80,53,946 and Rs. 29,00,613.

Language

The language of the settlement is Arabic, but several other Asiatic tongues are spoken. The population is chiefly returned as Arabs and Shakhhs. The Somalis from the African coast and Arabs do the hard labour of the port. So far as the settlement is concerned the chief industries are salt and cigarette manufacture. The crops of the tribal low country adjoining are jowar, sesamum, a little cotton, madder, a bastard saffron and a little indigo. In the hills, wheat, madder, fruit, coffee and a considerable quantity of wax and honey are obtained. The water supply forms the most important problem. Water is drawn from four sources—wells, aqueducts, tanks or reservoirs and condensers.

Administration.

The administration of Aden has been continuously under the Government of Bombay. In 1930, the political control of Aden, which was exercised during the period of the war by the High Commissioner of Egypt, was retransferred to the Political Resident, Aden, who was to be directly responsible to the Foreign Office. In 1921, this responsibility was taken over by the Colonial Office with whom it at present remains. The future of the Protectorate has been the subject of no little discussion and various proposals have been put forward. At one time the idea that it should be transferred to the Colonial Office was seriously entertained. The proposals met with warm disapproval from the important Indian community in Aden whose views were supported in India. There is constant friction between India and the Colonial Office over the status of Indians in the Dominions and some of the Crown Colonies and the lukewarm

ness of the Colonial Office in protecting their rights is much resented. Therefore transfer to the Colonial Office was opposed as transfer to an unknowing and unsympathetic administration. On the 11th July 1922 the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies stated in the House of Commons that there was no prospect of the Colonial Office taking over the control of Aden in the near future. The administration is conducted by a Resident, who is assisted by four Assistants. The Resident is also ordinarily military Commandant and has hitherto usually been an officer selected from the Indian army, as have his assistants. The Court of the Resident is the Colonial Court of Admiralty under Act XVI of 1891, and its procedure as such is regulated by the provisions of the Colonial Courts of the Admiralty Act 1890 (53 and 54 Vice, Chapter 27). The laws in force in the settlement are generally speaking those in force in the Bombay Presidency, supplemented on certain points by special regulations to suit local conditions. The management of the port is under the control of a Board of Trustees formed in 1888. The principal business of the Port Trust has been the deepening of the harbour, so as to allow vessels of all sizes to enter and leave at all states of the tide. The Aden police force consists of land and harbour police who number 320 and 54 respectively. There are hospitals and dispensaries in both Aden and Perim in addition to the military institutions of this character. The garrison comprises a troop of engineers, three companies of garrison artillery, one battalion of British infantry, two companies of sappers and miners and one Indian regiment. Detachments from the last named are maintained at Perim and Shakh Othman respectively.

Climate.

The average temperature of the station is 87 degrees in the shade, the mean range being from 75 in January to 98 in June, with variations up to 102. The fells between the monsoons, in May and September are very oppressive. Consequently, long residence impairs the faculties and undermines the constitution of Europeans and even Indians suffer from the effects of too long an abode in the settlement, and troops are not posted in the station for long periods, being usually sent there one year and relieved the next. But Aden is exceptionally free from infectious diseases and epidemics and the absence of vegetation, the dryness of the soil and the purity of the drinking water constitute efficient safeguards against many malarial common to tropical countries. The annual rainfall varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to $\frac{3}{4}$ inches, with an irregular average of 3 inches.

Political Resident, Lieut General T E Scott,
KCB, OBE, DSO

Assistant Residents

- 1 Major C C J Barrett, C.B. I., O.B.E. Aden.
- 2 " B E Reilly, O.B.E. "
- 3 " H M. Wightwick (on leave) "
- 4 " G P Murphy " "
- 5 Lieut. M C Sinclair " "
- 6 " J. L. M. Barlow .. Perim.

The Home Government.

The Home Government of India represented for sixty years the gradual evolution of the governing board of the old East India Company. The affairs of the company were originally managed by the Court of Directors and the General Court of Proprietors. In 1784 Parliament established a Board of Control, with full power and authority to control and direct all operations and concerns relating to the civil and military government, and revenues of India. By degrees the number of the Board was reduced and its powers were exercised by the President, the immediate precursor of the Secretary of State for India. With modifications this system lasted until 1858, when the Mutiny, followed by the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown, demanded a complete change. Under the Act of 1858 (merged in the consolidating measure passed in 1915) the Secretary of State is the constitutional adviser of the Crown on all matters relating to India. He inherited generally all the powers and duties which were formerly vested either in the Board of Control, or in the Company, the Directors and the Secret Committee in respect of the Government and revenues of India.

The Secretary of State

Until the Reform Act of 1919 came into force the Secretary of State had the unqualified power of giving orders to every officer in India, including the Governor-General, and to superintend, direct and control all acts, operations and concerns relating to the government or revenues of India. In the relations of the Secretary of State with the Governor-General in Council no express statutory change was made, but Parliament ordained through the Joint Select Committee that in practice the conventions governing these relations should be modified, only in exceptional circumstances should he be called upon to intervene in matters of purely Indian interest where the Government and the Legislature of India are in agreement.

Of the wide powers and duties still vested in the Secretary of State, many rest on his personal responsibility, others can be performed only in consultation with his Council, and for some of these the concurrence of a majority of the members of his Council voting at a meeting is required. The Act of 1919 greatly modified the rigidity of the law maintained for sixty years as to the relations of the Secretary of State with his Council, and he has fuller power than in the past to prescribe the manner in which business is to be transacted. Though in practice the Council meets weekly (save in vacation periods) this has ceased to be a statutory requirement, the law now providing that there shall be a meeting at least once in every month.

The India Council

The number of members of the Council was reduced by the Act to not less than eight and not more than 12, the Secretary of State being free to appoint within those limits. The period of office was reduced from 7 to 5 years, though the Secretary of State may, for special reasons of public advantage to be communicated to

Parliament, re-appoint a member for another five years. Half the Council must be persons who have served or resided in India for at least ten years, and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The Act restored the old salary of £1,200, with an additional subsistence allowance of £600 for any member who was at the time of appointment domiciled in India. Lord Morley opened the door of the Council to Indians, and since 1917 the number of Indian members has been three.

Associated with the Secretary of State and the India Council is a Secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall. Appointments to the establishment are made by the Secretary of State in Council, and are subject to the ordinary Home Civil Service rules in all respects.

In the past the whole cost of the India Office has been borne by the revenues of India, except that the Home Government made certain grants and remissions in lieu of a direct contribution amounting to £50,000 a year. The total net cost including pensions has been about £250,000 per annum. In conformity with the spirit of the 1919 Act, an arrangement was made whereby the salary of the Secretary of State is placed on the Home estimates and the cost of the controlling and political functions exercised in Whitehall is also met from British revenues, while agency functions alone are chargeable to Indian revenues.

The High Commissionership

The financial readjustment has been accompanied by a highly important administrative change provided for by the Act, in the creation of a High Commissioner for India in the United Kingdom with necessary establishments. From October 1st, 1920, the late Sir William Meyer became the first High Commissioner, and took over control of the purchase of Government Stores in England and the accounts section connected therewith, and the Indian Students Branch, together with the supervision of the work of the Indian Trade Commissioner. The further development of the functions and powers of the High Commissioner have included such agency work as the payment of Civil leave allowances and pensions, supervision of I O S and Forest probationers after first appointment, the making of arrangements for officers on deputation or study leave, repatriation of destitute lascars, sale of Government of India publications, etc. The clerical staff of the Stores Department has been transferred to the Stores Depot off the Thames in Belvedere Road, Lambeth. The High Commissioner and the rest of the staff transferred, have separate office accommodation at 42, 44 and 46, Grosvenor Gardens, S.W. 1.

Another highly important change was the setting up by Parliament of a Joint Standing Committee on Indian affairs consisting of eleven members of each House. The purpose is to keep Parliament in closer touch with Indian affairs than has recently been possible and to refer to the Committee draft rules and also Parliamentary Bills after they have received a second reading.

INDIA OFFICE.

Secretary of State.

The Right Hon. The Earl of Birkenhead.

Under-Secretaries of State.

Major Rt. Hon. Earl Winterton.

Sir Arthur Hirtzel, K.C.B.

Deputy Under Secretary of State

Sir Malcolm Seaton, K.C.B.

Assistant Under-Secretaries of State

Sir Louis Kershaw, K.C.B., O.B.E.

S. K. Brown

Council.

Frederick Crauford Goodenough

Sir Malcolm Hogg

Sir Edward Albert Galt, K.C.B., O.B.E.

Sir Benjamin Robertson, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., O.B.E.

Sir William H. H. Vincent, G.C.L.E., K.C.B.

Sir Rajagopal Chari, K.C.B., O.B.E.

Narayan M. Samsarth

General Sir Haydock Hudson, K.C.B., K.C.I.E.

Sir Reginald A. Mant, K.C.B., O.B.E.

Sir Robert Kiskine Holland, K.C.I.E.

Clerk of the Council, Sir Malcolm Seaton

Deputy Clerk of the Council, K. W. H. Smith

Private Secretary to the Secretary of State, R. H. A. Cartar

Assistant Private Secretary, Wilfrid Johnston, M.C.

Political A-D O to the Secretary of State, Lieut.-Col. A. D. Arcey G. Bannerman, O.B.E., O.V.O.

Private Secretary to Sir A. Hirtzel, G. H. Baxter

Private Secretary to Mr. Richards, W. D. Tomkinson

Heads of Departments

SECRETARIES.

Financial, W. Robinson, C.B.E., C.H. Kisch, C.B.

Judicial and Public, J. E. Ferard, C.B.E.

Military, General Sir A. S. Coble, V.C. K.C.B., K.C.B., D.S.O.

Ditto (Joint), S. K. Brown

Political and Secret, L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Public Works, W. Stanhall, O.B.E.

Economic and Overseas, E. J. Turner, C.B.E.

Services and General and Establishment Officer—P. H. Dumell

Director-in-Chief of the Indo-European Telegraph, Public Works Department, M. G. Simpson

Accountant General, Sidney Turner, F.I.A. also Director of Funds and Official Agent to Administrators-General in India

RECORD DEPARTMENT—Superintendent of Records, H. Mitchell.

Auditor, W. A. Sturdy

Miscellaneous Appointments

Government Director of Indian Railway Companies, Sir A. E. S. Bell, O.B.E.

Librarian, Fredk. W. Thomas, M.A., Ph.D.

Historiographer—W. Foster, O.B.E.

President of Medical Board for the Examination of Officers of the Indian Service and Adviser to the Secretary of State on Medical matters, Major General J. B. Smith, C.B.E., O.B.E.

Member of the Medical Board, Lt.-Col. Sir L. Rogers, O.B.E.

Legal Adviser and Solicitor to Secretary of State, Sir Edward Chamber, K.C.I.E.

Inspector of Military Equipment and Clothing, Col. H. E. Garstin, D.S.O., R.A. (retd.)

Ordinance Consulting Officer, Col. J. H. Lawrence Archer, O.B.E.

HIGH COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE.

(42, Grosvenor Gardens.)

The High Commissioner, A. O. Chatterjee, O.B.E.

Secretary, J. O. B. Drake, O.B.E.

Chief Accountancy Officer, G. H. Stoker, O.B.E.

Personal Assistant, W. Marlow

General Department Assistant Secretary, R. R. Montgomery

Indian Trade Commissioner, H. A. F. Lindsay, O.B.E.

Joint Secretaries for Indian Students, N. C. Sen, O.B.E., and T. Quayle, D. Litt. (Lond.).

Store Department Depot at Belvedere Road, Lambeth, S. E. 1

Director General Lieut. Col. S. S. W. Paddon, O.B.E., A.I.M.E.

Deputy Director, R. B. Howlett

Superintendent of Depot, (Acting) F. B. Benest, M.I.E.E.

Secretaries of State for India

	Assumed charge.
Lord Stanley (a)	1855
Sir Charles Wood, Bart. (b)	1859
Earl de Grey and Ripon (c)	1866
Viscount Cranborne (d)	1866
Sir Stafford Northcote, Bart. (e)	1867
The Duke of Argyll, K.T.	1868
The Marquis of Salisbury (2nd time)	1874
Gathorne Hardy, created Viscount Cranbrook, 14 May, 1878 (f)	1878
The Marquis of Hartington (g)	1880
The Earl of Kimberley	1882
Lord Randolph Churchill	1885
The Earl of Kimberley, K.G., (2nd time)	1886
Sir Richard Assheton Cross, G.C.B., created Viscount Cross, 19 Aug., 1886	1886
The Earl of Kimberley, K.G. (3rd time)	1892
H. H. Fowler (h)	1894
Lord George F. Hamilton	1895
Sir John Brodrick (i)	1903
John Morley O.M. (j)	1905
The Earl of Crewe, K.G.	1910
Viscount Morley of Blackburn, O.M.	1911
The Earl of Crewe, K.G. (k)	1911
Austen Chamberlain, M.P.	1916
Lt. S. Montagu, M.P.	1917
Viscount Peel	1922
Lord Oliver	1924
Lord Birkenhead	1924

(a) Afterwards (by succession) Earl of Derby

(b) " (by creation) Viscount Halifax

(c) " (by creation) Marquess of Ripon

(d) " (by succession) Marquess of Salisbury

(e) " (by creation) Earl of Iddesleigh

(f) " (by creation) Earl Cranbrook

(g) " (by succession) Duke of Devonshire

(h) " (by creation) Viscount Wolverhampton, G.C.S.I.

(i) " (by succession) Viscount Middleton

(j) " (by creation) Viscount Morley of Blackburn, O.M.

(k) " (by creation) Marquess of Crewe, K.G.

The Indian States.

The area enclosed within the boundaries of India is 1,773,168 square miles, with a population of 315,182,637 of people—nearly one fifth of the human race. But of this total a very large part is not under British Administration. The area covered in the Indian States is 675,267 square miles with a population of seventy millions. The Indian States embrace the widest variety of country and jurisdiction. They vary in size from petty states like Lawa, in Rajputana, with an area of 12 square miles, and the Simla Hill States, which are little more than small holdings, to States like Hyderabad as large as Italy, with a population of thirteen millions. They include the inhospitable regions of Western Rajputana, Baroda, part of the Garden of India, Mysore, rich in agricultural wealth, and Kashmir, one of the most favoured spots on the face of the globe.

Relations with the Paramount Power

So diverse are the conditions under which the Indian States were established and came into political relation with the Government of India, that it is impossible even to summarise them. But broadly it may be said that as the British boundaries expanded, the states came under the influence of the Government and the rulers were confirmed in their possessions. To this general policy however there was, for a brief period, an important departure. During the regime of Lord Dalhousie the Government introduced what was called annexation through lapse. That is to say, when there was no direct heir, the Government considered whether public interests would be secured by granting the right of adoption. Through the application of this policy, the states of Satara and of Nagpur fell in to the East India Company and the kingdom of Oudh was annexed because of the gross misgovernment of its rulers. Then came the Mutiny. It was followed by the *transference* of the dominions of the East India Company to the Crown, and an irrevocable declaration of policy toward the Indian States. In the historic Proclamation of Queen Victoria it was set out that "We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions, and while we will permit no aggression on our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity, we shall allow no encroachments on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity and honour of the Native Princes as our own, and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government. Since the issue of that proclamation there has been no encroachment on the area under Indian rule by the Government of India. On the contrary the movement has been in the opposite direction. In 1881 the State of Mysore, which had been so long under British administration that the traditions of Native rule were almost forgotten, was restored to the old Hindu ruling house. In 1911 the Maharajah of Benares, the great landlord of Oudh, was granted ruling powers over his extensive pos-

sessions. On many occasions the Government of India has had to intervene, to prevent gross misgovernment, or to carry on the administration during a long minority, but always with the undeviating intention of restoring the territories as soon as the necessity for intervention passed. Almost all states possess the right of adoption in default of heirs.

Rights of Indian States.

The rights and obligations of the Indian States are thus described by the *Imperial Gazetteer*. The Chiefs have, without exception, gained protection against dangers from without and a guarantee that the protector will respect their rights as rulers. The Paramount Power acts for them in relation to foreign Powers and other Indian States. The inhabitants of the Indian States are the subjects of their rulers, and except in case of personal jurisdiction over British subjects, these rulers and their subjects are free from the control of the laws of British India. Criminals escaping to an Indian State must be handed over to it by its authorities; they cannot be arrested by the police of British India without the permission of the ruler of the State. The Indian Princes have therefore a sovereign power which acts for them in all external affairs, and at the same time scrupulously respects their internal authority. The sovereign also intervenes when the internal peace of their territories is seriously threatened. Finally they participate in all the benefits which the protecting power obtains by its diplomatic action, or by its administration of its own dominions, and thus secure a share in the commerce, the railways, the ports, and the markets of British India. Except in rare cases, applied to maritime states, they have freedom of trade with British India although they levy their own customs and their subjects are admitted to most of the public offices of the British Government.

Obligations of Indian States

On the other hand, the Indian States are under an obligation not to enter into relations with foreign nations or other states, the authority of their rulers has no existence outside their territories. Their subjects outside their dominions become for all intents and purposes British subjects. Where foreign interests are concerned, the Paramount Power must act so that no just cause of offence is given by its subordinate allies. All Indian States alike are under an obligation to refer to the British every question of dispute with other states. Inasmuch as the Indian States have no use for a military establishment other than for police, or display, or for co-operation with the Imperial Government, their military forces, their equipment and armament are prescribed by the Paramount Power. Although old and unaltered treaties declare that the British Government will have no manner of concern with any of a Maharajah's dependents or servants, with respect to whom the Maharajah is absolute, logic and public opinion have endorsed the principle which Lord Can-

ning set forth in his minute of 1860, that the "Government of India is not precluded from stepping in to set right such serious abuses in a Native Government as may threaten any part of the country with anarchy or disturbance, nor from assuming temporary charge of a Native State when there shall be sufficient reason to do so." Of this necessity the Governor-General in Council is the sole judge subject to the control of Parliament. Where the law of British India confers jurisdiction over British subjects or other specified persons in foreign territory, that power is exercised by the British courts which possess it. The subjects of European Powers and the United States are on the same footing. Where cantonments exist in an Indian State, jurisdiction both over the cantonment and the civil station is exercised by the suzerain power.

Political Officers.

The powers of the British Government are exercised through Political Officers who, as a rule, reside in the states themselves. In the larger states the Government is represented by a Resident, in groups of states by an Agent to the Governor-General, assisted by local Residents or Political Agents. These Officers form the sole channel of communication between the Indian States and the Government of India and its Foreign Department, with the officials of British India and with other Indian States. They are expected to advise and assist the Ruling Chiefs in any administrative or other matters on which they may be consulted. Political Agents are similarly employed in the larger States under the Provincial Governments but in the petty states scattered over British India the duties of the Agent are usually entrusted to the Collector or Commissioner in whose district they lie. All questions relating to the Indian States are under the special supervision of the Supreme Government, and in the personal charge of the Governor-General.

Closer Partnership

Events have tended gradually to draw the Paramount Power and the Indian States into closer harmony. Special care has been devoted to the education of the sons of Ruling Chiefs, first by the employment of tutors, and afterwards by the establishment of special colleges for the purpose. These are now established at Ajmere, Rajkot, Indore and Lahore. The Imperial Cadet Corps, whose headquarters are at Dehra Dun, imparts military training to the sons of the ruling chiefs and noble families. The spread of higher education has played a part in the disposal of the Indian States the products of the Universities. In

these ways there has been a steady rise in the character of the administration of the Indian States, approximating more closely to the British ideal. Most of the Indian States have also come forward to bear their share in the burden of Imperial defence. Following on the spontaneous offer of military assistance when war with Russia appeared to be inevitable over the Peking incident in 1885, the states have raised a portion of their forces up to the standard of the troops in the Indian Army. These were until recently termed Imperial Service Troops, but are now designated Indian State Forces, they belong to the States, they are offered by Indians, but they are inspected by a regular cadre of British officers under the general direction of an Inspector-General. Their numbers are approximately 22,000 men, their armament is the same as that of the Indian Army and they have done good service often under their own Chiefs, on the Frontier and in China, in Somaliland and in the Great War. Secure in the knowledge that the Paramount Power will respect their rights and privileges the Ruling Chiefs have lost the suspicion which was common when their position was less assured, and the visits of the Prince of Wales in 1875, of the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1905-06 and of the King and Queen in 1911-12 have tended to seal the devotion of the great feudatories to the Crown. The improvement in the standard of native rule has also permitted the Government of India largely to reduce the degree of interference in the internal affairs of the Indian States. The new policy was authoritatively laid down by Lord Minto, the then Viceroy, in a speech at Udaipur in 1906, when he said:—

"Our policy is with rare exceptions, one of non-interference in the internal affairs of the Native States. But in guaranteeing their internal independence and in undertaking their protection against external aggression it naturally follows that the Imperial Government has assumed a certain degree of responsibility for the general soundness of their administration and could not consent to incur the reproach of being an indirect instrument of misrule. There are also certain matters in which it is necessary for the Government of India to safeguard the interests of the community as a whole as well as those of the paramount power, such as railways, telegraphs and other services of an Imperial character. But the relationship of the Supreme Government to the State is one of suzerainty. The foundation stone of the whole system is the recognition of identity of interests between the Imperial Government and Rulers and the minimum of interference with the latter in their own affairs."

HYDERABAD

Hyderabad, the premier Indian State in India, is in the Deccan. Its area is 82,698 square miles and population 12,471,770. The general physical characteristics of the State are an elevated plateau, divided geographically and ethnologically by the Manjira and Godavari rivers. To the North-West is the Trappese region, peopled by Marathas, a country of black cotton soil

producing wheat and cotton. To the South-East is the granitic region of the Telugu producing rice.

HISTORY—In pre-historic times Hyderabad came within the great Dravidian zone. The date of the Aryan conquest is obscure, but the dominions of Asoka 272 to 231 B.C. embraced the northern and western portions of the State.

Three great Hindu dynasties followed, those of the Pallavas, Chalukyas and Yadavas. In 1294 the irruption of the Mahomedans under Ala-ud-din Khilji commenced, and thence forward till the time of Aurangzebe, the history of the State is a confused story of struggles against the surviving Hindu kingdom of the South, and after the fall of Vijayanagar, with each other. Aurangzebe stamped out the remains of Mahomedan independence of the South, and set up his General, Asaf Jah, of Turcoman descent, as Viceroy, or Subhedar of the Deccan in 1718. In the chaos which followed the death of Aurangzebe, Asaf Jah had no difficulty in establishing and maintaining his independence, and thus founded the present House. During the struggle between the British and the French for mastery in India, the Nizam finally threw in his lot with the British, and unshaken even by the excitement of the mutiny, has been so staunch to his engagements as to earn the title of "Our Faithful Ally". The present ruler is His Exalted Highness Sir Usman Ali Khan Bahadur Fateh Jung, G.C.S.I.

THE BERAR.—A most important event in the history of the State occurred in November 1902, when the Assigned Districts of Berar were leased in perpetuity to the British Government. These districts had been administered by the British Government on behalf of the Nizam since 1853 under the treaties of 1853 and 1860, they were "assigned" without limit of time to the British Government to provide for the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent, a body of troops kept by the British Government for the Nizam's use, the surplus revenue, if any, being payable to the Nizam. In course of time it had become apparent that this maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent on its old footing as a separate force was inexpedient and unnecessary, and that similarly the administration of Berar as a separate unit was very costly, while from the point of view of the Nizam the precarious and fluctuating nature of the surplus was financially inconvenient. The agreement of 1902 re-affirmed His Highness' sovereignty over Berar, which instead of being indefinitely "assigned to the Government of India, was leased in perpetuity to an annual rental of 25 lakhs (nearly £1,67,000), the rental is for the present charged with an annual debt towards the repayment of loans made by the Government of India. The Government of India were at the same time authorised to administer Berar in such manner as they might think desirable, and to redistribute, reduce, re-organise and control the Hyderabad Contingent, due provision being made as stipulated in the treaty of 1853, for the protection of His Highness' dominions. In accordance with this agreement the Contingent ceased in March 1906 to be a separate force and was re-organised and redistributed as an integral part of the Indian Army, and in October 1908 Berar was transferred to the administration of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.

ADMINISTRATION.—The Nizam is supreme in the State and exercises the power of life and death over his subjects. The form of government was changed in 1919, an Executive Council being established which consists of seven ordinary and

one extraordinary members under a president. Below the Secretariat the State is divided into Subbas or Divisions, Districts and Talukas. Fifteen District and 103 Taluka Boards are at work in the District. A Legislative Council, consisting of 23 members, of whom 15 are official and 8 non-official, is responsible for making laws. The State maintains its own currency. In 1904 an improved coin known as the Mahabubia rupee after the name of the then Ruler of the State with a subordinate coinage was struck. The current coin known as the Osmaniah Sikka after the name of the present Ruler exchanges with the British rupee at the ratio of 116-10-8 to 100 (Government rate). It has its own postal system and stamps for internal purpose. It maintains its own Army, comprising 20,287 troops, of which 6,685 are classed as Regular Troops and 13,602 as Irregular. There are 14 additional Imperial Service Troops.

FINANCE.—After many vicissitudes, the financial position of the State is strong. For the year 1920-21 receipts amounted to Rs. 504 lakhs and expenditure to Rs. 438 lakhs.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY.—The principal industry of the State is agriculture, which maintains 57.1 per cent of the population. The common system of land tenure is ryotwari. As no reliable figures are available to show the gross produce it is impossible to say what proportion the land revenue bears to it, but it is collected without difficulty. The principal food crops are millet and rice, the staple money crops cotton, which is grown extensively on the black cotton soils, and oil-seeds. The State is rich in minerals. The great Warangal coal measures are worked at Singareni, but the efforts to revive the historic gold and diamond mines have met with very qualified success. The manufacturing industries are consequent on the growth of cotton, and comprise three spinning and weaving mills and ginning and pressing factories in the cotton tracts.

COMMUNICATIONS.—One hundred and thirty-seven miles of the broad gauge line from Bombay to Madras traverse the State. At Wadi, on this section, the broad gauge system of the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway takes off, running East to Warangal and South-East toward Besvada, a total length of 330 miles. From Hyderabad the metre gauge Godavari Railway runs North-West to Manmad on the Great Indian Peninsula Company's system 391 miles and the Secunderabad Kurnool line as far as Gadwal, a distance of 109 miles. There are thus 471 miles of broad gauge and 500 of metre in the State. The Barak Light Railway owns a short extension to Latur. The roads are generally inferior.

EDUCATION.—The Osmaniah University at Hyderabad imparts instruction in all the faculties through the medium of Urdu, English being taught as a compulsory language. The Nizam College at Hyderabad (first grade) is, however, affiliated to the Madras University. In 1921-23 the total number of Educational institutions rose from 3,556 (1918-19) to 4,365, the number of Primary schools in particular having been largely increased.

British Resident.—The Hon Sir Lennox Russell, Kt. C.B.

MYSORE.

The State of Mysore is surrounded on all sides by the Madras Presidency except on the north and the north-west where it is bounded by the districts of Dharwar and North Canara respectively and towards the south-west by Coorg. It is naturally divided into two regions of distinct character, the hill country (the malnad) on the west and the wide spreading valleys and plains (the maidan) on the east. The State has an area of 29,469 square miles excluding that of the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore and a population of 5,978,898 of whom over 98 per cent are Hindus. Kannadi is the distinctive language of the State.

HISTORY.—The ancient history of the country is varied and interesting. Tradition connects the table land of Mysore with many a legend enshrined in the great Indian epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Coming down to historical times, the north-eastern portion of the country formed part of Asoka's Empire in the third century B.C. Mysore then came under the rule of the Andhra dynasty. From about the third to the eleventh century A.D. Mysore was ruled by three dynasties, the north-western portion by the Kadambas, the eastern and northern portions by the Pallavas and the central and the southern portions by the Gangas. In the eleventh century, Mysore formed part of Chola dominion, but the Cholas were driven out early in the twelfth century by the Hoysalas, and indigenous dynasty with its capital at Halebidu. The Hoysala power came to an end in the early part of the fourteenth century. Mysore was next connected with the Vijayanagar empire. At the end of the fourteenth century Mysore became associated with the present ruling dynasty. At first tributary to the dominant empire of Vijayanagar the dynasty attained its independence after the downfall of Vijayanagar in 1565. In the latter part of the eighteenth century the real sovereignty passed into the hands of Hyder Ali and then his son, Tipu Sultan. In 1799, on the fall of Seringapatam, the British Government restored the State comprised within its present limits, to the ancient dynasty in the person of Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar Bahadur III. Owing to the insurrections that broke out in some parts of the country, the management was assumed by the British Government in 1831. In 1881 the State was restored to the dynasty in the person of Sri Chamarajendra Wodeyar Bahadur under conditions and stipulations laid down in the Instrument of Transfer. That ruler with the assistance of Mr. (afterwards Sir) K. Seshadri Iyer, K.C.S.I., as Dewan, brought Mysore to a State of great prosperity. He died in 1894, and was succeeded by the present Maharaja Colonel Sir Sri Krishnarajendra Wodeyar Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., who was installed in 1902. In November 1915 the Instrument of Transfer was replaced by a Treaty which indicates more appropriately the relation subsisting between the British Government and the State of Mysore.

ADMINISTRATION.—The City of Mysore is the Capital of the State, but Bangalore City is the administrative headquarters. His Highness the Maharaja is the ultimate authority in the State, and the administration is conducted under

his control, by the Dewan and Members of Council including the Extraordinary Member. The Chief Court consisting of three Judges is the highest Judicial tribunal in the State. There are two constitutional Assemblies in the State—the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The Representative Assembly was established in 1881 by an executive order of Government, and its powers and functions have been increased from time to time by similar orders of Government. Under the scheme of constitutional developments announced in October 1923 the Representative Assembly has been placed on a statutory basis and given a definite place in the constitution by the promulgation of the Representative Assembly Regulation XVIII of 1923. The franchise has been extended and the disqualification of women on the ground of sex, from exercising the right to vote has been removed. The privilege of moving resolutions on the general principles and policy underlying the budget and on matters of public administration has been granted in addition to those already enjoyed of making representations about wants and grievances and of interpellating Government. The Assembly is also to be consulted on all proposals for the levy of new taxes and on the general principles of all measures of legislation before their introduction into the Legislative Council. Besides the Budget Session (formerly Birthday Session) and the Dasaara Session, provision has been made for one or more special sessions of the Assembly to be summoned by Government when the State or Public business demands it.

The strength of the Legislative Council has been raised from 30 to 50 of whom 20 are official and 30 are non-official members. The Council which exercised the privileges of interpellation, discussion of the State Budget and the moving of the resolutions on all matters of public administration is, under the reformed constitution, granted the powers of moving resolutions on the budget and voting on the demands for grants. The Dewan is the Ex-officio President of both the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council.

The Legislative Council has also a Public Accounts Committee which will examine all audit and appropriation reports and bring to the notice of Council all deviations from the wishes of the Council as expressed in its Budget grant.

STANDING COMMITTEES.—With a view to enlarge the opportunities of non-official representatives of the people to influence the every day administration of the State three Standing Committees consisting of Members of the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council, have been formed, one in connection with Railway, Electrical and P. W. Departments, one in connection with Local Self-Government and the Departments of Medicine, Sanitation and Public Health and the third in connection with Finance and Taxation.

All the important branches of the administration are controlled by separate Heads of Departments. The contingent strength of the Military Force at the end of 1922-23 was 2,797 of whom 474 were in the Mysore Infantry, 394 in the My-

sore Horse, 239 in the Transport Corps, and the remaining 1,690 in the Infantry. The total annual cost is about 16 and a quarter lakhs. The cost of the Police Administration during the same period was about 15 lakhs.

FINANCES—The actual total receipts and disbursements charged to Revenue for the past five years together with the revised budget estimate for 1923-24 and budget for 1924-25 were as below—

Year.	Receipts	Disbursements	Surplus	Deficit
	Rs	Rs	Rs.	Rs.
1920-21	3,13,12,865	3,27,85,460		— 14,72,795
1921-22	3,12,05,289	3,27,45,479		— 15,40,09
1922-23	3,30,70,534	3,30,47,897	+22,637	
1923-24 (revised)	3,24,02,000	3,29,12,000		— 5,10,000
1924-25 budget)	3,35,89,000	3,35,42,000	+47,000	

AGRICULTURE—Nearly three-fourths of the population are employed in agriculture and the general system of land tenure is ryotwari. The principal food crops are ragi, rice, jola, millets, gram and sugar cane, and the chief fibres are cotton and san hemp. Nearly fifty thousand acres are under mulberry, the silk industry being the most profitable in Mysore next to Gold Mining. A Superintendent of Sericulture has been appointed and the Sericulture Department affiliated to the Agricultural Department. Arrangements are being made for the supply of disease free seed, and a central and five taluk popular schools have been doing good work. The department of Agriculture is popularising agriculture on scientific lines by means of demonstrations, investigations and experiments. There is one central farm at Hebbal to deal with all classes of crops and two others, one at Hiriyur in connection with cotton and crops suited to localities where the rainfall is light, and the other at Marathur in the region of heavy rainfall. A sugar cane farm has been opened under the new Krishnarajasagara Works, and Committees have been constituted in several districts for the development of the sugar cane cultivation. A live-stock expert has been appointed to consider measures regarding the encouragement of cattle breeding, and to improve the general live-stock.

INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE—A Department of Industries and Commerce was organised in 1913 with a view to the development of Industries and Commerce in the State. Its main functions are stimulating private enterprise by the offer of technical advice and other assistance for starting new industries, undertaking experimental work for pioneering industries and developing existing industries and serving as a general bureau of information in industrial and commercial matters. The sandal-wood oil factory started on an experimental basis is now working on a commercial scale. A factory is working at Bangalore, and another at Mysore. A large plant at a cost of more than 170 lakhs of rupees has been constructed at Bhadravathi for purposes of manufacturing charcoal, pyrites, distilling wood-alcohol, and developing subsidiary industries. The works are on the borders of an

extensive forest area and practically at the foot of the hills containing rich deposits of iron manganese and bauxite, and are not far from the Gersoppa Water Falls estimated to be capable of producing 100,000 horsepower of electric energy.

EDUCATION—A separate University for Mysore was established on the 1st July 1916. It is of the teaching and residential type composed of the central and Engineering Colleges at Bangalore and the Maharaja's College at Mysore, with headquarters at Mysore. An important feature is that the University course is one of three years, what corresponds to the first year in other Universities being in the Collegiate High School which specially trains students for one year to fit them for the University course. The Colleges are efficiently equipped and organised, and there is a training College for men located at Mysore. There is also a College for Women at Mysore, i.e., the Maharani's College.

With the introduction of compulsory Education in select towns and the increase in the number of village schools, primary education has during recent years made considerable advance. Schools have been started for imparting instruction in agricultural, commercial, engineering and other technical subjects. There were altogether in 1922-23 7,839 public and 953 private educational institutions in the State. This gives one school to every 3.35 square miles of the area and to every 666 of the population.

Resident in Mysore and Chief Commissioner of Coorg—Vacant.

Deputy—Rajamantradhuriah, Alhori Rajkumar Banerji, Esq., M.A., O.S.I., C.I.E.

Extraordinary Member of Council—H. H. Sri Sri Kantirava Narasimharaja Wadiyar Bahadur, G.C.I.E.

Members of the Executive Council—Nambikunnam Mr. Narayana Nambik, Esq., B.A., B.L. and K. R. Srinivasa Iyengar, Esq., M.A.

BARODA

The State of Baroda is situated partly in Gujarat and partly in Kathiawar. It is divided into four district blocks: (1) the southern district of Navsari near the mouth of the Tapi river, and mostly surrounded by British territory; (2) central district, North of the Narbada, in which lies Baroda, the capital city; (3) to the North of Ahmedabad, the district of Kadi, and (4) to the West, in the Peninsula of Kathiawar, the district of Amreli, formed of scattered tracts of land. The area of the State is 8,134 square miles, the population is 2,189,522 of whom over four-fifths are Hindus.

HISTORY—The history of the Baroda State as such dates from the break up of the Mughal Empire. The first Maratha invasion of Gujarat took place in 1706. In later expeditions Piplaji Gaikwar, who may be considered as the founder of the present ruling family, greatly distinguished himself. Songhad was the headquarters till 1766. After 1723 Piplaji regularly levied tribute in Gujarat. His son Damaji finally captured Baroda in 1784, since then it has always been in the hands of the Gaikwars, but Mughal authority in Gujarat did not end until the fall of Ahmedabad in 1763, after which the country was divided between the Gaikwar and the Peshwa. In spite of the fact that Damaji was one of the Maratha chiefs defeated at Panipat by Ahmed Shah, he continued to add to his territory. He died in 1768, leaving the succession in dispute between two rival sons. He was succeeded in turn by his sons Sayaji Rao I, Fattasingh Rao, Manaji Rao and Govind Rao. The last died in 1800, and was succeeded by Anand Rao. A period of political instability ensued which was ended in 1802 by the help of the Bombay Government, who established the authority of Anand Rao at Baroda. By a treaty of 1806 between the British Government and Baroda, it was arranged *inter alia* that the foreign policy of the State should be conducted by the British, and that all differences with the Peshwa should be similarly arranged. Baroda was a staunch ally of the British during the wars with Bajji Rao Peshwa, the Pindari hordes and Holkar. But from 1820 to 1841, when Sayaji Rao II was Gaikwar, differences arose between the two Governments, which were settled by Sir James Carmichael, Governor of Bombay. In 1841 Ganpat Rao succeeded Sayaji Rao in 1847. During his rule, the political supervision of Baroda was transferred to the Supreme Government. His successor Khande Rao, who succeeded the Gaik in 1856, introduced many reforms. He stood by the British in the Mutiny. He was succeeded by his brother Malhar Rao in 1870. Malhar Rao was deposed in 1875 for "notorious misconduct" and "gross misgovernment," but the suggestion that he had instigated the attempt to poison Col. Mordaunt, the Resident, was not proved. Sayaji Rao III, a boy of 13 years of age, who was descended from a distant branch of the family, was adopted as heir of Khande Rao in 1875 and in the present Gaikwar. He was invested with full powers in 1901.

ADMINISTRATION—An executive council consisting of the principal officers of the State, carries on the administration, subject to the control of the Maharaja, who is assisted by a Dewan and other officers. A number of departments have been formed, which are presided over by officials corresponding to those in British India. The State is divided into four *prants* each of which is sub-divided into *Mahals* and *Pata Mahals* of which there are in all 42. Attempts have for some years been made to restore village autonomy, and village *panchayats* have been formed which form part of a scheme for local self government. There is a Legislative Department, under a Legal Remembrancer, which is responsible for making laws. There is also a Legislative Council, consisting of nominated and elected members. A High Court at Baroda possesses jurisdiction over the whole of the State and hears all final appeals. From the decisions of the High Court, appeals lie in certain cases, to the Maharaja, who decides them on the advice of the *Nyaya Sabha*. The State Army consists of 5,066 Regular forces and 3,806 Irregular forces.

FINANCE—In 1922-23, the total receipts of the State were Rs. 2,21,26,401 and the disbursements Rs. 2,11,38,886. The principal Revenue heads were—Land Revenue, Rs. 1,18,68,569, Abkari, Rs. 29,39,953, Optum, Rs. 6,17,844, Railways, Rs. 12,91,863, Interest, Rs. 13,49,972, Tribute from other States, Rs. 6,66,889. British Currency was introduced in 1901.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY—Agriculture and pasture support 63 per cent of the people. The principal crops are rice, wheat, gram, castor oil, rapeseed, poppy, cotton, saffron, tobacco, sugarcane, maize, and garden crops. The greater part of the State is held on *ryotwari* tenure. The State contains few minerals, except sandstone, which is quarried at Bonger, and a variety of other stones which are little worked. There are 92 industrial or commercial concerns in the State registered under the State Companies' Act. There are four Agricultural Banks and 548 Co-operative Societies in the Baroda State.

COMMUNICATIONS—The B B & C I Railway crosses part of the Navsari and Baroda *prants*, and the Rajputana-Malwa Railway passes through the Kadi *prant*. A system of branch lines has been built by the Baroda Durbar in all the four *prants*, in addition to which the Tapi Valley Railway and the Baroda-Godhra Chord line (B B & C I) pass through the State. The Railways constructed by the State are about 652 miles in length. Good roads are not numerous.

EDUCATION—The Education Department controls 2,886 institutions of different kinds, in 48 of which English is taught. The Baroda College is affiliated to the Bombay University. There are a number of high schools, technical schools, and schools for special classes, such as the jungle tribes and uncivilised classes. The State is "in a way pledged to the policy of free and compulsory primary education." It maintains a system of rural and travelling



libraries. Ten per cent. of the population is returned in the census as literate. Total expense on Education is Rs. 80,10,905

CAPITAL CITY—Baroda City with the cantonment has a population of 94,712. It contains a public park, a number of fine public buildings, palaces and offices, and it is crowded with Hindu temples. The cantonment is to the north-west of the city and is garrisoned by an infantry battalion of the Indian Army. An

Improvement Trust has been formed to work in Baroda City and has set itself an ambitious programme.

RULER—His Highness Farzand-i-Khas-i-Dowlat-i-Englishia Maharaja Sir Sayaji Rao Gaekwar Sena Khas Khel, Samsher Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of Baroda.

Resident—E. H. Kealy, I.C.S.

Deewan—Sir Manubhai N. Mehta, Kt., C.S.I.

BALUCHISTAN AGENCY.

In this Agency are included the Indian States of Kalat, Kharan and Las Bela. The Khan of Kalat is head of the Baluchistan tribal chiefs whose territories are comprised under the following divisions—Jhalawan, Sarawan Makran, and Kachi. These districts form what may be termed Kalati Baluchistan, and occupy an area of 5,713 square miles. The inhabitants of the country are either Brahuis or Baluchis, both being Mahomedans of the Sunni sect. The country is sparsely populated, the total number being about 800,543. It derives its chief importance from its position with regard to Afghanistan on the north-western frontier of British India. The relations of Kalat with the British Government are governed by two treaties of 1854 and 1876, by the latter of which the Khan agreed to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. There are, however, agreements with Kalat in connection with the construction of the Indo-European telegraph, the cession of jurisdiction on the railways and in the Bolan Pass, and the permanent leases of Quetta, Nushki and Nasirabad. The Khan is assisted in the administration of the State by a Wazir. Asam at present a retired officer from the British service. The Governor-General's Agent in Baluchistan conducts the relations between the Government of India and the Khan, and exercises his general political supervision over the district. The revenue of the State is about Rs. 15,12,000. The present Khan

is His Highness Beglar Begi Mir Sir Mahmud Khan of Kalat, G.C.I.E. He was born in 1864.

Kharan extends in a westerly and south-westerly direction from near Nushki and Kalat to the Persian border. Its area is 18,565 square miles, it has a population of 27,735 and an annual average revenue of about Rs. 1,00,000.

The present Chief, Sardar Bahadur Sardar Nawab Habibullah Khan, was born about 1897 and succeeded his father Sardar Yakub Khan in 1911, when the latter was murdered by his uncle Amir Khan. The State is divided into 13 Niabats and the whole sources of income are chiefly agricultural.

Las Bela is a small State occupying the valley and delta of the Puruliriver, about 50 miles west of the Sind boundary. Area, 7,182 square miles, population 50,696, chiefly Sunni Mahomedans, estimated average revenue about Rs. 3,41,000. The Chief of Las Bela, known as the Jam, is bound by agreement with the British Government to conduct the administration of his State in accordance with the advice of the Governor-General's Agent. This control is exercised through the Political Agent in Kalat. The Jam also employs an approved Wazir, to whose advice he is subject and who generally assists him in the transaction of State business.

Agent to the Governor-General for Baluchistan—Hon. Mr. R. B. Pons, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

RAJPUTANA AGENCY.

Rajputana is the name of a great territorial circle with a total area of about 130,462 square miles, which includes 18 Indian States, two chiefdoms, and the small British province of Ajmer-Merwara. It is bounded on the west by the Sind, on the north-west by the Punjab State of Bahawalpur, on the north and north-east by the Punjab, on the east by the United Provinces and Gwalior, while the southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular zigzag line. Of the Indian States 17 are Rajput, 2 (Bharatpur and Dholpur) are Jat, and one (Tonk) is Mahomedan. The Chief administrative control of the British district is vested ex-officio in the political officer, who holds the post of Governor-General's Agent for the supervision of the relations between the several Native States of Rajputana and the Government of India. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups—Bikaner, Stroli and Jhalawar in direct relation with the Agent to the Governor-General; Eastern Rajputana Agency, 6 States (Bharatpur, Dholpur,

Karauli), Harauti and Tonk Agency, 2 States (Bundi and Tonk) and Chiefship of Shikhpura, Jalpur Residency, 2 States (principal State, Jalpur), Mewar Residency and Southern Rajputana States Agency, 8 States (principal State, Banswara) and Kuchalgah Chiefship, Western Rajputana States Residency, 2 States (principal State, Marwar).

The Aravalli Hills intersect the country almost from end to end. The tract to the north-west of the hills is, as a whole, sandy, ill-watered and unproductive, but improves gradually from being a mere desert in the far west to comparatively fertile lands to the north-east. To the south-east on the Aravalli Hills lie higher and more fertile regions which contain extensive hill ranges and which are traversed by considerable rivers.

COMMUNICATIONS—The total length of railways in Rajputana is 1,576 miles, of which 739 are the property of the British Government. The Rajputana-Malwa (Government) runs from

Ahmedabad to Bandikui and from there branches to Agra and Delhi. Of the Native State-railways the most important is the Jodhpur-Bikaner line from Marwar Junction to Hyderabad (Hind) and to Bikaner.

INHABITANTS—Over 50 per cent of the population are engaged in some form of agriculture, about 20 per cent of the total population are maintained by the preparation and supply of material substances, personal and domestic service provides employment for about 5 per cent and commerce for 2½ per cent of the population. The principal language is *Brajbhasi*. Among castes and tribes, the most numerous are the Brahmans, Jats, Mahajans, Chamars, Rajputs, Minas, Gujars, Bhils, Malls and Balais. The Rajputs are, of course, the aristocracy of the country, and as such hold the land to a very large extent, either as receivers of rent or as cultivators. By reason of their position as integral families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the kinsmen of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India, and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a tribe or clan (as distinguished from a caste) in India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rajput stocks.

The population and area of the States are as follows—

Name of State	Area in square miles	Population in 1921
<i>In direct Political relation with A. G. G.—</i>		
Bikaner	23,311	659,685
Sirohi	1,904	1,58,639
Jhalawar	810	96,182
<i>Mewar Residency—</i>		
Udaipur	12,053	13,80,003
<i>Southern Rajputana States Agency—</i>		
Banswara	1,946	1,90,362
Dungarpur	1,447	1,39,272
Parbhargarh	886	67,114
Kushalgarh	340	29,162
<i>Western State Residency—</i>		
Jodhpur	34,963	18,41,642
Jaisalmer	16,062	67,652
<i>Jajpur Residency—</i>		
Jajpur	15,579	23,38,802
Kishangarh	958	77,784
Lawa	19	2,362
<i>Harnoti-Tonk Agency—</i>		
Bundi	2,220	1,87,068
Tonk	1,114	2,37,898
Shahpura	405	65,142
<i>Eastern States Agency—</i>		
Bharatpur	1,982	4,96,437
Dholpur	1,155	2,29,734
Karauli	1,242	1,38,730
Alwar	3,141	7,01,114
<i>Kotah-Jhalawar Agency—</i>		
Kotah	5,684	9,30,060

Udaipur State (also called Mewar) was founded in about 646 A.D. The capital city is Udaipur, which is beautifully situated on the slope of a low ridge, the summit of which is crowned by His Highness the Maharana's palaces, and to the north and west, houses extend to the banks of a beautiful piece of water known as the Pichola Lake in the middle of which stand two island palaces. It is situated near the terminus of the Udaipur-Chitor Railway, 697 miles north of Bombay. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharana Sir Fateh Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.B., G.C.V.O., who was born in 1849 and succeeded in 1884. He is the head of the Soesodia Rajputs and is the Premier Chief. The administration is carried on by the Maharana, assisted by Shriman Maharaj Kumar Sir Bhopal Singhji Bahadur, K.C.I.B., to whom certain powers have been delegated. The revenue and expenditure of the State are now about 45 and 45 lakhs a year respectively. Udaipur is rich in minerals which are little worked. Its archaeological remains are numerous, and stone inscriptions dating from the third century have been found.

Banswara State, is the southernmost State of Rajputana within the Political Agency of the Southern Rajputana States. The area of the State is 1,946 square miles, and population 219,824 souls, including Patia Kushalgarh. It is thus in regard to size eleventh among the States of Rajputana. Banswara with Dungarpur originally formed a country known as Nagar, which was, from the beginning of the 13th century until about the year 1629, held by certain Rajput Chiefs of the Ghehot or Sisodia clan, who claimed descent from an elder branch of the family now ruling in Udaipur. After the death of Udai Singh, the ruler of Nagar, his territory was divided between his two sons, Prithi Singh and Jagmal Singh, about 1629, and the descendants of the two families are the present Chiefs of Dungarpur and Banswara. Where the town of Banswara now stands there was a large Bhil pal or colony under a powerful Bhil Chieftain, named Waana, who was defeated and slain by Jagmal about 1630. The name Banswara is by tradition said to be a corruption of Waanawara or the country of Waana. Others assert that the word means the country (*waara*) of bamboos (*hans*). Nearly three centuries after its foundation by Jagmal, Maharawal Bijai Singh, anxious to get rid of the supremacy of the Mahrattas, offered to become a tributary to the British Government. In 1818 a definite treaty was made with his successor, Maharawal Umed Singh. Banswara has been described as the most beautiful portion of Rajputana. It looks at its best just after rains. The principal rivers are the Mahi, the Ana, the Eran, the Chap and the Haran.

The present Chief is His Highness Ral Rayan Maharawal Sahib Shree Prithi Singhji Bahadur who was born on July 15, 1886, and is the 21st in descent from Maharawal Jagmal Singhji. His Highness was educated in the Mayo College and succeeded his father in 1918. His Highness is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The State is ruled by the Maharawal with the assistance of the Diwan and the Judicial and Legislative Council, of which the Diwan is the President. The Revenue of the State is about 9 lakhs and the normal expenditure is about the same.

Dewan — Mr N Bhattacharya, M A

Dongargarh State, with Benaswara, formerly comprised the country called the Bagar. It was invaded by the Mahratas in 1818. As in other States inhabited by hill tribes, it became necessary at an early period of British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhils. The State represents the Gadi of the oldest branch of the Sisodiyas and dates its separate existence from about the close of the 13th Century. Samant Singh, King of Chitor, when driven away by Kartalpal of Jalor, fled to Bagad and killed Chowrasimal, Chief of Baroda, and founded the State of Dongargarh. The present Chief is His Highness Rai Rayan Maharawal Shri Lakshman Singhji born on 7th March 1908 and succeeded on 15th November 1918. His Highness being minor, the administration is carried on by the Executive Council of the State under the supervision of the Political Agent, Southern Rajputana States. No railway line crosses the territory, the nearest railway station, Udaipur, being 65 miles distant. Revenue a little above 6½ lakhs.

Partabgarh State, also called the Kanthal, was founded in the sixteenth century by a descendant of Rana Mokal of Mewar. The town of Partabgarh was founded in 1698 by Partab Singh. In the time of Jaswant Singh (1775-1844), the country was overrun by the Marathas, and the Maharawat only saved his State by agreeing to pay Holkar a tribute of *Safim Shahs* Rs 72,700 (which then being coined in the State Mint was legal tender throughout the surrounding Native States), in lieu of Rs 15,000 formerly paid to Delhi. The first connexion of the State with the British Government was formed in 1804, but the treaty then entered into was subsequently cancelled by Lord Cornwallis, and a fresh treaty by which the State was taken under protection was made in 1818. The tribute to Holkar is paid through the British Government, and in 1904 was converted to Rs. 36,350 British currency. The present ruler is His Highness Maharawat Shri Raghunath Singh Bahadur K C I E, who was born in 1859 and succeeded in 1890. The State is governed by the Maharawat with the help of the Dewan, and, in judicial matters, of a Committee of eleven members styled the Raj Sabha or State Council. Revenue about 6 lakhs expenditure nearly 5 lakhs. The financial administration is under the direct supervision of the State.

Jodhpur State, the largest in Rajputana also called Marwar, consists largely of sandy country. The Maharaja of Jodhpur is the head of the Rathor Clan of Rajputs and claims descent from Rama, the deified king of Ayodhya. The earliest known king of the clan lived in the sixth century from which time onwards their history is fairly clear. After the breaking up of their Kingdom at Kanauj they founded this State about 1212 and the foundations of Jodhpur City were laid in 1459 by Rao Jodha. The State entered into a treaty of alliance with the British Government in 1818. Jaswant Singh succeeded in 1873 and reformed the State. His son Sardar Singh was invested with powers in 1898, the minority rule having been carried on by his uncle Maharaja Shri Pratap Singh. He died in 1911 and was suc-

ceeded by his eldest son Maharaja Sumer Singh Bahadur, who was then 14 years of age. The administration of the State was carried on by a Council of Regency, presided over by General Maharaja Shri Pratap Singh. On the outbreak of the European War both the Maharaja and the Regent offered their services and were allowed to proceed to the Front. The young Maharaja was, for his services at the Front, honoured with an Honorary Majority in the British Army and K B E and was invested with full ruling powers in 1916 and died on 3rd October 1918. He was succeeded by his younger brother Major Maharaja Shri Umed Singhji Bahadur, K C V O who, on attaining majority, has taken over charge of the administration from the 27th January 1923. Revenue Rs 1,20,31,788, expenditure Rs 100 lakhs.

Jaisalmer State is one of the largest States in Rajputana and covers an area of 16,062 square miles. The Rulers of Jaisalmer belong to the Jadon clan and are the direct descendants of Krishna. Jaisalmer City was founded in 1156, and the State entered into an alliance of perpetual friendship with the British Government in 1818. In 1844 after the British conquest of Sind the forts of Shahgarh, Garsia and Ghotaru, which had formerly belonged to Jaisalmer, were restored to the State. The present Ruling Prince is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharawal Shri Shri Jawahar Singhji Bahadur, K C S I. Revenue about four lakhs.

Sirohi State is much broken up by hills of which the main feature is Mount Abu, 5,650 feet. The Chiefs of Sirohi are Deora Rajputs, a branch of the famous Chauhan clan which furnished the last Hindu kings of Delhi. The present capital of Sirohi was built in 1425. The city suffered in the eighteenth century from the wars with Jodhpur and the depredations of wild Mina tribes. Jodhpur claimed suzerainty over Sirohi but this was disallowed and British protection was granted in 1823. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharao Shri Shri Sarup Ram Singh Bahadur, K C S I. The State is ruled by the Maharao with the assistance of Ministers and other officials. Revenue about 9½ lakhs, expenditure 9 lakhs.

Jaipur is the fourth largest State in Rajputana. It consists for the most part of level and open country. It was known to the ancients as Matsya Desh, and was the kingdom of the King Virata mentioned in the Mahabharata, in whose court, the five Pandava brothers during their last period of exile resided. Bhairat in the Jaipur State has been identified.

The Maharaja of Jaipur is the head of the Kuchawa clan of Rajputs, which claims descent from Kush, son of Rama, King of Ayodhya, the famous hero of the famous epic poem, the Ramayana. This dynasty in Eastern Rajputana dates as far back as ninth century A D. Dulha Rai, one of its most early rulers, made Amber the capital of the State in 1037 A D. About the end of 12th century one of the rulers, Pajun at the head of the army of Prithvi Raj, Emperor of Delhi, defeated Shahabuddin Ghori in the Khyber Pass and pursued him as far as Ghazni. Prithvi Raj had given his sister in marriage to him. History of India records several distinguished rulers of Jaipur from

amongst whom the following require particular mention. **Man Singh 1590-1615** He was a victorious general, intrepid commander and tactful administrator, whose fame had spread throughout the country. During most troublous times, he maintained Imperial authority in Kabul and was the brilliant character of Akber's time. **Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh (1700-44)** was the first town planner in India. He removed the capital of the State to Jaipur, so named after him. During his time, the State acquired great power and fame. He was a great mathematician and scientist of his age, and is famous for his astronomical observations which he built at several important centres in India. His court was visited by foreign astronomers. **Maharaja Sawai Ram Singh 1856-1880** He was one of the most enlightened princes in India at that time. He encouraged art and learning. He embellished the city in various ways and improved the administration and material condition of the people. **Maharaja Sawai Madho Singh II, 1880-1922** He was a very wise and intelligent ruler who followed in the foot-steps of his father. He maintained and steadily improved all the useful measures initiated by the late Maharaja. His administration is characterized by great liberality, catholicity and a broad outlook on affairs. His deep religious devotion and piety and unswerving generosity and genuine and active sympathy are well known. His staunch loyalty and maintenance of the traditions of his house raised him in the estimation of the paramount power. He passed away after a long reign of 41 years. His late Highness' donations and subscriptions to works of charity are enormous and too numerous to detail. His Highness the present Maharaja **Sawai Man Singh II Bahadur** was born on 21st August 1911. He was adopted by His late Highness on 24th March 1921. He is a son of the Rajawat House of Isarda, and ascended the gadi on the 7th September 1922. He is studying at the Mayo College and promises to be an ideal ruler having given abundant evidence already of the keen and sympathetic interest he takes in all that concerns the welfare of his people and mankind in general.

The administration is carried on by Cabinet assisted by a Council, and there is a Chief Court of Judicature. The army consists of Cavalry, Infantry, Transport and the Artillery. The normal revenue is above one crore and the expenditure about 95 lakhs. The population of Jaipur at the last census of 1921 was 2,338,902. In area it is 16,882 square miles.

Kishangarh State is in the centre of Rajputana and consists practically of two narrow strips of land separated from each other with an area of 858 square miles (population 77,734), the northern mostly sandy, the southern generally flat and fertile. The Ruling Princes of Kishangarh belong to the Rathor clan of Rajputs and are descended from Maharaja Kishan Singh (Second son of Maharaja Uday Singh of Jodhpur) who founded the town of Kishangarh in 1611. The present ruler is Lieut. Col. His Highness **Maharajadhiraj Sir Madan Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Umdal Rajpal-Buland Makan**, who was born in 1884 and was invested with powers in 1905. He administers the State with the help of a Council. His Highness served in France in

1914-15 and was mentioned in despatches by Field-Marshal Lord French. Revenue 6 lakhs. Expenditure 5 lakhs.

Lawa State, or Chief of Rajputana is a separate chieftainship under the protection of the British Government and independent of any Native States. It formerly belonged to Jaipur and then became part of the State of Tonk. In 1847, the Nawab of Tonk murdered the Thakur's uncle and his followers, and Lawa was then raised to its present State. The Thakurs of Lawa belonged to the Naruka sept of the Kachwaha Rajputs. The present Thakur, **Raghubir Singh**, was born in 1899, and succeeded to the estate in January 1923. Revenue about Rs 20,000.

Bundi State is a mountainous territory in the south-east of Rajputana. The Chief of Bundi is the head of the Hara sept of the great clan of Chohan Rajputs and the country occupied by this sept has for the last five or six centuries been known as Haroti. The State was founded in the early part of the thirteenth century and constant feuds with Mewar and Malwa followed. It threw in its lot with the Mahomedan emperors in the sixteenth century. In later times it was constantly ravaged by the Marathas and Pindaries and came under British protection in 1815 at which time it was paying tribute to Holkar. The present ruler of the State—which is administered by the Maharaja Raja and a Council of 8 in an old fashioned but popular manner—is His Highness **Maharaja Raja Sir Raghubir Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., G.O.V., G.S.I.** He was born in 1869 and succeeded in 1899. Revenue about 10 lakhs. Expenditure 9.6 lakhs.

Tonk State—Partly in Rajputana and partly in Central India, consists of six Parganas separated from one another. The ruling family belongs to the Salawat Clan of the Bunerwa, Afghan tribe. The founder of the State was Nawab Mahomed Amir Khan Bahadur, General of Holkar's Army from 1798-1806. Holkar bestowed grants of land on him in Rajputana and Central India and the land so granted him was ratified by the peace made between the British and the Chiefs of Rajputana in 1817 and was consolidated into the present State. His grandson was deposed. The present ruler of the State is His Highness **Amud-Doula Wazir-Malik Nawab Sir Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur, G.C.I., G.O.I.E.**, succeeded the deceased in 1868. The administration is conducted by the Nawab assisted by a Council of four members, viz.—(1) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada **Mohammad Ishaque Khan** (Home Member), (2) **S. T. Hollins, Esq.**, I.P.S. (Judicial Member and Vice-President), (3) **Sahibzada Mohammad Abdul Wahab Khan** (Financial Member), (4) **Captain W. F. Webb, I.A.** (on leave), Revenue Member. Revenue Rs 21,10,842. Expenditure Rs 20,55,024.

Shahpura Chieftainship is a small State. The ruling family belongs to the Secodia clan of Rajputs. The Chieftainship came into existence about 1820, being a grant from the Emperor Shah Jahan to one Surjan Singh. The present Chief is **Sir Natar Singh, K.C.I.E.**, who succeeded by adoption in 1870 and received full powers in 1876. In addition to holding Shahpura by grant from the British Government,

the Raja Dhiraj possesses the estate of Kachhola in Udaipur for which he pays tribute and does formal service as a great noble of that State. Revenue 5 lakhs. Expenditure 4 lakhs.

Bharatpur State.—Consists largely of an immense alluvial plain, watered by the Ban ganga and other rivers.

The present ruling family of Bharatpur are Jats, of the Sisodiya clan who trace their pedigree to the eleventh century. The family derives its name from its old village Sisodiya. Bharatpur was the first State in Rajputana that made alliance with the British Government in 1803. It helped Lord Lake with 5,000 horse in his conquest of Agra and battle of Laswari wherein the Maratha power was entirely broken and received 5 districts as reward for the service. In 1804, however, Bharatpur sided with Jaswant Rao Holkar against the British Government which resulted in a war. Peace was re-established in 1806 under a treaty of alliance and it continues in force. The Gadi being usurped by Darjan Sal in 1825, the British Government took up the cause of the rightful heir Maharaja Balwant Singh Shab. Bharatpur was besieged by Lord Combermere, and as the faithful subjects of the State also made common cause with the British Army the usurper was quickly disposed of, and Maharaja Balwant Singh, the rightful heir to the Throne, came into his own. Bharatpur also rendered valuable service to the British Government during the Mutiny. During the great War the Bharatpur Durbar gave valuable help to the Imperial Government. The Bharatpur Imperial Service Infantry served in East Africa and the Mule Transport Corps served in all theatres of war except Africa. The following are among the most important contributions made by the State during the great war: (1) reinforcement sent to E. Africa for the Imperial Service Infantry, 714 rank and file, and 64 followers, (2) reinforcements for the Imperial Service Transport Corps, 430 rank and file and 64 followers, (3) State subscriptions to war loans 20 lakhs, (4) State subscriptions to Imperial Indian Relief Funds, Soldiers Comfort Fund, Aeroplane Fleet Fund, Lord Kitchener's Memorial Fund St John's Ambulance Serbian Relief Fund, and Red Cross 2 lakhs, (5) public subscriptions to various war funds Rs. 26,000 and (6) public subscriptions to war bonds Rs. 60,000. Immediately upon their return from Europe the Bharatpur Transport Corps sent to the North West Frontier, and remained on active service there during the Afghan War. The Corps returned to Bharatpur at the conclusion of peace in February 1920. The present Chief is His Highness Lieut. Colonel Shri Maharaja Vrijendra Sawal Kishan Singh Bahadur, Bahadur Jung, who was born in 1899 and succeeded in the following year his father Maharaja Ram Singh, who was deposed. Revenue 32 lakhs. Expenditure 31 lakhs.

Dholpur State.—The family of the ruling Chiefs of Dholpur belongs to the Bamroliya Jats, the adopted home of one of their ancestors. The family takes the name of Bamroliya about the year 1367. They next migrated to Gwalior, where they took the part of the Rajputs in their struggles against the Emperor's Officers. Even-

tually the Bamroliya Jats settled near Johad, and 1505 Surjan Deo assumed the title of Rana of Gohad. After the overthrow of the Maharajas at Panipat, Rana Bhim Singh in 1761 possessed himself of the fortress of Gwalior but lost it six years later. In order to bar the encroachments of the Maharajas, a treaty was made with the Rana in 1779 by the British Government under Warren Hastings, and the joint forces of the contracting parties re-took Gwalior. In the treaty of the 13th October 1781 between the British Government and Scindia, it was stipulated that so long as the Maharaja Rana observes his treaty with the English, Scindia should not interfere with his territories. The possession of Gohad however led to disputes between the British and Scindia, and in 1805 the Governor General transferred Gwalior and Gohad to Scindia, and that of Dholpur, Bar, Baseri, Sepau and Rajakhara to Maharaja Rana Kirat Singh. Maharaja Rana Kirat Singh died in 1836 and was succeeded by his son Maharaja Rana Bhagwant Singh on whose death in 1870 his grandson, the late Chief Maharaja Rana Nehal Singh, succeeded to the Gadi. Major His Highness Rana-ul-Daula Sipahdar-ul-Mulk Saranad Rajah Hind Maharajadhiraj Sri Bahadur Maharaja Rana Sir Udal Bhan Singh Lokindra Bahadur Diler Jang Jal Deo, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., the present ruler, is the second son of Maharaja Rana Nehal Singh and was born on the 12th February 1893. On the death of his brother Maharaja Rana Ram Singh His Highness succeeded to the Gadi on March 1911. He was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination and won several prizes. After a short course of training in the Imperial Cadet Corps at Dehra Dun, His Highness went on a tour to Europe in 1912 and was invested with full ruling powers on the 9th October 1913.

By clan and family the Maharaja Rana is connected with the Jat Chiefs of Patiala, Jhind, Nabha and Bharatpur. His mother was the second sister of late Shahzada Basmoo Singh Sahib Bahadur of the family of Maharaja Hanjit Singh of Lahore. His Highness is married to the daughter of the Sardar of Badrukha in the Jhind State.

Karauli State.—A State in Rajputana under the Political control of the Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States Agency, lying between 26° and 27° north latitude and 76° 30' and 77° 30' east longitude. Area, 1,242 square miles. The river Chambal forms the south-eastern boundary of the State, dividing it from Gwalior (Scindia's Territory) on the south-west it is bounded by Jalpur, and on the north-east by the States of Bharatpur, Jalpur and Dholpur. The State pays no tribute to Government. Languages spoken Hindi and Urdu.

Ruler.—His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharaja Sir Bhanwar Pal, Deo Bahadur, Yadukul Chandra Dhal, J.O.I.C. Chief Member, State Council, Rao Sahab Pandit Shanker Nath Sharma.

Kotah State belongs to the Hara section the clan of Chauhan Rajputs, and the early history of their house is, up to the 17th century, identical with that of the Bundi family from which they are an offshoot. Its existence as a separate State dates from 1325. It came under

British protection in 1817. The present ruler is H. H. Lieut.-Colonel Maharao Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.O.I.E., G.B.E., who was born in 1878 and invested with full powers in 1896. In administration he is assisted by two members, Rai Bahadur Pandit Bishwanath Nath, M.A., and Major-General Onkar Singh, G.B.E. The most important event of his rule has been the restoration, on the deposition of the late Chief of the Jhalawar State, of 16 out of the 17 districts which had been ceded in 1858 to form that principality. Revenue 53 lakhs. Expenditure 48 lakhs.

Jhalawar State consists of two separate tracts in the south-east of Rajputana. The ruling family belongs to the Jhala clan of Rajputa. The last ruler was deposed for misgovernment in 1898, part of the State was reassigned to Kotah, and Kunwar Bhawan Singh, son of Thakur Chhatraji of Fatehpur, was selected by Government to be the Ruler of the new State. He was born in 1874 and was created a K.C.S.I. in 1908. He is assisted in administration by a Council has established many useful institutions, and has done much to extend education in the State. Revenue 7 lakhs.

The Bikaner State in point of area is the 7th largest of all the Indian States and the second largest in Rajputana. The population of the State is 659,685 of whom 84 per cent. are Hindus, 11 per cent. Mohammedans and 5 per cent. Jains. The Capital City of Bikaner, with its population including the suburbs of 60,410, is the 3rd City in Rajputana.

The northern portion of the State consists of level loam land, whilst the remainder is for the most part sandy and undulating. The average rain fall is about 12 inches. The water level over most of the State is from 150 feet to 300 feet deep.

The reigning Family of Bikaner is of the Rathore clan of Rajputa, and the State was founded in 1465 A.D. by Rao Bikaji, son of Rao Jodhaji Ruler of Marwar (Jodhpur), and after him both the Capital and the State are named Rai Singhji, the first to receive the title of Rajah, was one of Akbar's most distinguished Generals, and it was during his reign that the present Fort of Bikaner was built in 1593. The title of Maharajah was conferred on Rajah Anup Singhji by the Mughal Emperor in 1687 in recognition of his distinguished services in the capture of Golconda. The conspicuous services of Maharajah Sardar Singhji who in the Indian Mutiny of 1857 personally led his troops to co-operate with the British forces in the field on the outbreak of the Mutiny was acknowledged by the Government of India by the transfer of the Sub Tehsil of Tibhi consisting of 41 villages, from the adjoining Sirsa Tehsil in the Punjab to the Bikaner State.

The present Ruler, Major General His Highness Maharajah Dhiraj Rai Rajeswar Narendra Shriomani Sri Sir Ganga Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.O.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., E.L.D., is the 21st of a long line of distinguished rulers renowned for their bravery and statesmanship. He was born on the 3rd October 1890, and assumed full ruling powers in December, 1908. He was awarded the first class Khas-i-Hind Medal for the active part he took in relieving the famine of 1899-1900, and soon after

he went on active service to China in connection with the China War of 1900-1901 in command of his famous Ganga Risala and was mentioned in despatches and received the China Medal and K.C.I.E. The State Forces consist of the Camel Corps, known as Ganga Risala, whose sanctioned strength is 465 strong, an Infantry Regiment 448 strong a Regiment of Cavalry 342 strong, including Body Guard, a Battery of Artillery (6 guns) and Camel Battery 60. At the outbreak of the Great War in 1914, His Highness immediately placed the services of himself and his State forces and all the resources of the State at the disposal of His Imperial Majesty the King Emperor and the Ganga Risala reinforced by the Infantry Regiment, which became incorporated in the Camel Corps in the field rendered very valuable services in Egypt and Palestine. An extra force was also raised for internal security. His Highness personally went on active service in August 1914 and enjoys the honour of having fought both in France and Egypt, and thus has the distinction of having fought for the British Crown on three Continents, viz. Asia, Europe and Africa. He was mentioned in despatches both in Egypt and France. His Highness also played a very conspicuous political part during the period of the War when he went twice to Europe as the Representative of the Princes of India, once in 1917 to attend the meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, and again in 1918-19 to attend the Peace Conference where he was one of the signatories to the treaty of Versailles.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns (personal) whilst the permanent local salute of the State is also 19. His Highness has also the honour of having been elected the first Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes in 1921, a post which he still fills.

His Highness is assisted in the administration of the State by the State Council consisting of 6 Members under the Heir Apparent as Chief Minister and the President of Council. A Legislative Assembly was inaugurated in 1913, and consists of 45 Members, 15 out of whom are elected Members and which meets twice a year.

The revenues of the State are over ninety lacs of rupees and the State owns a large Railway system, the total mileage being 563.48. Several projects for its extension are under contemplation, including the new scheme of railway line connecting Delhi with Sindh and running through the Bikaner and Jaisalmer States. At present there is practically no irrigation in the State, the crops depending wholly on the scanty rainfall, but the Sutlej Canal Project which is now under construction will irrigate annually 620,000 acres in the north and help to protect the State against the serious famines from which it has suffered in the past. Even larger expectations are held out from the Bhakra Dam Project from which it is hoped that the remaining level lands in the north of the State will be irrigated. A coal mine is worked at Palana 14 miles south from the Capital.

Alwar State is a hilly tract of land in the East of Rajputana. Its Rulers belong to the Lalawat Naruka branch of Khatris, Solar Dynasty. This ruling family is descended from Raja Udai Karanji, who was the common ancestor of both Alwar and Jaipur. The State

was founded by Pratab Singh, who before his death in 1791 had secured possession of large territories. His successor sent a force to co-operate with Lord Lake in the war of 1803 and an alliance was concluded with him in that year. Disputes about successions mark the history of the State during the earlier part of the nineteenth century. The present chief, H. H. Veerendra Shironani Dev Col. Shri Sewal Maharaja Sir Jey Singhji Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., who was born in 1882, succeeded his father in 1892 and was invested with powers in 1903. He carries on the administration with the assistance of four Ministers, Members of His Highness' Council and various heads of departments. The normal revenue and expenditure are about Rs. 40 lakhs a year. The State besides maintaining other forces, maintains also the Imperial Service Troops which His Highness the late Maharaja was the first prince in Rajputana to offer (in 1888) in the defence of the Empire. Alwar stood first in recruiting in Rajputana at the time of the Great War and enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The capital is Alwar on the Rajputana Malwa Railway, 98 miles west of Delhi.

RAJPUTANA

Agent to Governor-General—Vacant

UDAIPUR

Resident—W. H. J. Wilkinson, C.I.E.

JAIPUR.

Resident—Lieut.-Col. G. H. Anderson

EASTERN RAJPUTANA STATES

Political Agent—Major W. G. Neale

WESTERN RAJPUTANA STATES

Resident—Lt. Col. A. D. Macpherson

HARAOI AND TONK

Political Agent—Major R. I. Macnabb

SOUTHERN RAJPUTANA STATE.

Political Agent—Major H. V. Biscoe

CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY.

Central India is the name given to the country occupied by the Indian States grouped together under the supervision of the Political officer in charge of the Central India Agency. These States lie between 21° 24' and 26° 32' N. lat. and between 74° 0' and 83° 0' E. long. The British districts of Jhansi and Lalitpur divide the agency into two main divisions—Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand lying to the east, and Central India proper to the west. The total area covered is 51,506 square miles, and the population (1921) amounts to 59,97,023. The great majority of the people are Hindus. The principal States are seven in number—Indore, Bhopal, Rewa, Dhar, Jaora, Datia and Orcha, of which two, Bhopal and Jaora, are Mahomedan and the rest are Hindu. Besides these there are a multitude of petty States held by their rulers under the immediate guarantee of the British Government but having feudal relations with one or other of the larger States. The total number of States amounts to 153. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups: Baghelkhand Agency, 12 States (principal State, Rewa); Bhopal Agency, 19 States (principal State, Bhopal); Southern States Agency, 21 States (principal State, Dhar); Bundelkhand Agency, 22 States (principal States, Datia and Orcha); Indore Residency, 9 States (principal State, Indore); Malwa Agency, 38 States (principal State, Jaora). The Agency may be divided into three natural divisions, the plateau, low lying, and hilly. The plateau tract includes the Malwa plateau, the Highland tract stretching from the great wall of the Vindhya to Marwar, the land of open rolling plains. The low-lying tract embraces Northern Gwalior and stretches across

into Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand up to the Kaimur Range. The hilly tract lies along the ranges of the Vindhya and the Satpura. There agriculture is little practised, the inhabitants being mostly members of the wild tribes. The territories of the different States are much intermingled, and their political relations with the Government of India and each other are very varied. Eleven Chiefs have direct treaty engagements with the British Government.

The following list gives the approximate size, population and revenue of the eight principal States above mentioned—

Name	Area in square miles.	Population.	Revenue lakhs. Rs.
Indore	9,519	11,51,578	125
Bhopal	6,902	6,92,448	53
Rewa	18,000	14,01,524	37
Dhar	1,777	2,30,333	13
Jaora	601	85,778	10
Datia	911	1,48,659	11
Orcha	2,079	2,84,948	10

Gwalior—The house of Scindia traces its descent to a family of which one branch held the hereditary post of patal in a village near Satara. The head of the family received a patent of rank from Aurangzeb. The founder of the Gwalior House was Ranoji Scindia who held a

military rank under the Peshwa Baji Rao. In 1786 the Peshwa granted deeds to Puar, Holkar and Scindia, empowering them to levy "Chauth" and "Sardesmukhi" and retain half the amount for payment to their troops. In 1786 Banoji Scindia accompanied Baji Rao to Delhi where he and Mulhar Rao Holkar distinguished themselves in military exploits. Banoji fixed his headquarters at the ancient city of Ujjain, which for the time became the Capital of the Scindia dominions. During the time of Mahadji Scindia and Dowlat Rao Scindia Gwalior played an important part in shaping the history of India. Despite the partial reverses which Mahadji Scindia's troops suffered at the hands of the British in 1780, reverses which led to the treaty of Salbai (1782), Scindia's power remained unbroken. For the first time he was now recognized by the British as an independent sovereign and not as a vassal of the Peshwa.

In 1790 his power was firmly established in Delhi. While he was indulging ambitions hopes he fell a prey to fever which ended his remarkable career on 12th February, 1794. Himself a military genius, Mahadji Scindia's armies reached the zenith of their glory under the disciplined training of the celebrated French adventurer—De Boigne. Mahadji was succeeded by his grand nephew Daulat Rao in whose service Perron, a Military Commander of great renown played a leading part. The strength of Scindia's Army was, however, considerably weakened by the reverses, sustained at Ahmednagar, Assaye, Asirgarh and Laswari. Daulat Rao Scindia died in 1827. Till his death he remained in undisputed possession of almost all the territory which belonged to him in 1805.

Daulat Rao was succeeded by Jankoji Rao who passed away in the prime of life. On his demise in 1843 intrigue and party spirit were rampant and the Army was in a state of mutiny with the result that it came into collision with the British forces at Maharajpore and Pannihar.

Jankoji Rao was succeeded by Jijaji Rao, whose adherence to the British cause during the dark days of Mutiny, when his own troops deserted him, was unshakable. In 1861 he was created a Knight Grand Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India and in 1877 was made a Councillor of the Empress. Subsequently he received other titles and entered into treaties of mutual exchange of territories with the British Government. He died on the 20th June 1886 and was succeeded by his son Maharaja Madho Rao Scindia.

The present ruler is Lieutenant-General H. H. Maharaja Sir Madho Rao Scindia, Alijah Bahadur, G.C.V.O., G.C.B., G.C.M., A.D.C. to the King. He succeeded in 1886 and obtained powers in 1894. In 1901 he went to China during the war, he holds the rank of honorary Lieutenant General of the British Army and the honorary degrees of LL.D. Cambridge, and D.C.L., Oxon. He is also a Donor of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England. The ruler of the State enjoys a salute of 21 guns. The State is in direct relations with the Government of India. The State administration is controlled by the Maharaja assisted by nine members of the *Majlis-i-Khas* with portfolios.

The northern part of the State is traversed by the G.I.P. Railway and two branches run from Bhopal to Ujjain and from Bina to Baran. The

Gwalior Light Railway runs for 250 miles from Gwalior to Bina, from Gwalior to Sheopur and from Gwalior to Shivpuri. The main industries are cotton spinning, which is done all over the State, fine muslins made at Chanderi, leather work, etc. The State maintains three regiments of Imperial Service Cavalry, two battalions of Imperial Service Infantry and a transport corps. Laahkar, the Capital city, is two miles to the south of the ancient city and the fort of Gwalior. Annual income about 2 crores and expenditure about 175 lakhs.

Indore.—The founder of the House of the Holkars of Indore was Malhar Rao Holkar, born in 1693. His soldierly qualities brought him to the front under the Peshwa, who took him into his service and employed him for his conquests. When the Maratha power was weakened at the battle of Panipat in 1761, Malhar Rao had acquired territories stretching from the Deccan to the Ganges as a reward for his career as a military commander. He was succeeded by his grandson. On his death without issue his mother Ahilya Bai became the Ruler and her administration is still looked upon with admiration and reverence as that of a model ruler. She was succeeded by Tukoji Holkar who indeed had been associated with her to carry the military administration and had in the course of it distinguished himself in various battles. Tukoji was succeeded by Kashi Rao, who was supplanted by Jaswant Rao, his step brother, a person of remarkable daring and strategy as exhibited in a number of engagements in which he had taken part. The brilliant success he obtained at the battle of Poona against the combined armies of Peshwa and Scindia made him a dictator of Poona for some time and he declared in consequence the independence of Holkar State. During 1804-5 he had a protracted war with the British, closed by a Treaty which recognised the independence of Holkar State with practically no diminution of its territories and rights. Jaswant Rao showed signs of insanity from 1808 onwards and succumbed to that malady in 1811, when he was succeeded by his minor son Malhar Rao II. During the Regency which followed, the power of the State was weakened by various causes the most important of which was the refractory conduct of the Military Commanders. On the outbreak of the war between the English and the Peshwa in 1817, some of these commanders, with a part of the army, rebelled against the authority of the State and were disposed to befriend the Peshwa, while the Regent, mother and her Ministers were for friendship with the British. There was a battle between the British Army and this refractory portion of the Holkar Army which culminated in the latter's defeat. Holkar had to come to terms and to cede extensive territories and rights over the Rajput Princes to the British, but the internal sovereignty remained unaffected. The Treaty of 1818 which embodied these provisions still regulates the relations between the British Government and the State.

Malhar Rao was well served by his able Minister Tatyasa Jog. He died a premature death in 1833. Then followed the weak administration of Hari Rao and his son. In 1844 Tukoji Rao II ascended the throne, but as he was a minor, the administration was carried on by

a Regency which was fortunate in having Sir Robert Hamilton, the Resident as its Adviser. The prosperity of the State revived a great deal during this administration and the progress was maintained after the Maharaja assumed powers in 1852. It was interrupted by the outbreak of Mutiny in 1857 in British India. This wave of disaffection did not leave some of the State troops untouched. The Maharaja with his adherents and the remaining troops remained however staunch to the British and gave every possible assistance to the British authorities at Indore, Mhow and other places, which was recognised by the British Government. The Maharaja died in 1886 after having effected various reforms in the administration and raised the position of the State to a high degree of prosperity and honour. He was succeeded by Shivaji Rao who reigned for 16 years and will be specially remembered for his beneficent measures in matters of education, sanitation, medical relief and abolition of transit duties. The present Maharaja succeeded in 1905 while yet a minor. The Regency Administration continued till 1911 and it deserves credit for a number of reforms effected in all the branches of administration. The policy of the Regency has been maintained by the Maharaja and since his assumption of powers the State has advanced in education in general including female education, commerce and industrial developments, municipal franchise and other representative institutions. This prosperity is specially reflected in the Indore city the population of which has risen by 40 per cent. The city has a first grade College, 3 High Schools and 1 Sanskrit College, with a number of other Medical and Educational institutions. It has also 7 Spinning and Weaving Mills with two more nearing completion and a number of factories.

During the War of 1914 the Maharaja placed all his resources at the disposal of the British Government. His troops took part in the various theatres of war and the contribution of the State towards the War and Charitable Funds in money was 41 lakhs and its subscriptions to the War Loans amounted to Rs. 82 lakhs, while the contributions from the Indore people amounted to over one crore. This assistance received the recognition of the British Government. In the administration His Highness is assisted by his Prime Minister and a Council. The State Army consists of about 3,000 officers and men. The State is traversed by the Holkar State Railway the principal Station of which is Indore, R. M. Railway and B. B. & C. I. Railway and the U. B. Section of the G. I. P. Railway. Besides the trunk roads, there are 600 miles of roads constructed and maintained by the State.

The chief imports are.—Cloth, Machinery, Coal, Sugar, Salt, Metal and Kerosene Oil. The chief exports are.—Cotton, Cloth, Tobacco and Cereals.

The area of the State is 9,520 square miles with a revenue of about one crore and twenty-five lakhs.

His Highness is a keen sportsman and has travelled extensively in India and Europe. He has one son Prince Yashwant Rao Holkar and two daughters.

Bhopal.—The principal Muhammadan State in Central India ranks next in importance to

Hyderabad among the Muhammadan States of India. The ruling family was founded by Dost Mohammed Khan, a Tiran Afghan. He was granted a *Sansad* of Bairaia and Nasirabad Parganahs in recognition of his meritorious services to the Emperor of Delhi. With the disintegration of the Mogul Empire Bhopal State developed into an independent State. In the early part of the 19th century, the Nawab successfully withstood the invasions of Beindia and Bhandala and by the agreement of 1817 Bhopal undertook to assist the British with a contingent force and to co-operate against the Pindari bands.

The present ruler of the State, Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jahan Begum, O.I., G.C.S.I., G.O.I., G.S.M., is the third in the successive line of lady rulers, who have ruled the destinies of the State with marked ability. Having succeeded in 1901 she personally conducts, and has introduced a number of reforms in the administration of her State. The names of members of Her Highness' State Council are given below in order of precedence.—

1. Khan Bahadur Mulvi Mohammed Matinuraman Khan, B.A., F.S.S., Member, Revenue Department.

2. Dabirulmulk Khan Bahadur Sir Israr Hasan Khan, Kt., O.I., Member, Home Department.

3. Rai Bahadur Munshi Oudh Narain Biscarya, B.A., Member, Council Affairs and Education Department.

Her Highness has kept the Political Department under her direct control. The Secretary in charge of the Department is Kazi Ali Halder Abbas. Along with other Troops, the State maintains one full strength Pioneer Battalion for Imperial Service. The Capital, Bhopal city, situated on the Northern bank of an extensive lake is the junction for the Bhopal Ujjain section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Bewa.—This State lies in the Baghelband Agency, and falls into two natural divisions separated by the scarp of the Kaimur range. The area is 13,000 sq. miles with a population of 14 lakhs. Its Chiefs are Baghel Rajputs descended from the Solanki clan which ruled over Gujarat from the tenth to the thirteenth century. In 1812, a body of Pindaries raided Mirzapur from Bewa territory and the Prince, who had previously rejected overtures for an alliance, was called upon to accede to a treaty acknowledging the protection of the British Government. During the Mutiny, Bewa offered troops to the British, and for his services then, various parganas, which had been seized by the Marathas, were restored to the Bewa Chief. The present chief is H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur who was born in 1905. He was married in 1919 to the sister of His Highness the Maharaja of Jodhpur. Upon the death of his father Col. H. H. Maharaja Sir Venkat Raman Singh Bahadur, on 30th October, 1918, H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur succeeded to the gaddi on 31st October, as a minor. During the period of minority the State was administered by a Council of Regency with H. H. Maharaja Sir Rajan Singh Bahadur Colonel, M.C.S.I., M.C.V.O., A.D.C., of Rutlam as

Regent. H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur attained majority in 1922 and was invested with full ruling power on 31st October, 1922, by H. H. the Viceroy and the administration of the State is now carried on by him with the aid of four Commissioners.

Dhar—This State, under the Agency for Southern States in Central India, takes its name from the old city of Dhar, long famous as the capital of the Paramara Rajputs, who ruled over Malwa from ninth to the thirteenth century and from whom the present chiefs of Dhar—Power Marathas—claim descent. In the middle of the 18th century the Chief of Dhar, Anand Rao, was one of the leading chiefs of Central India, sharing with Holkar and Scindia the rule of Malwa. But in 1819, when a treaty was made with the British, the State had become so reduced that it consisted of little more than the capital. The ruler is Major H. H. Maharaja Sir Udayi Rao Power, Sahib Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., K.B.E., who was born in 1886, and has control of all civil, criminal, and all administrative matters. There are 22 feudatories, of whom 13 hold a guarantee from the British Government. The average expenditure is about 18 lakhs. Rao Bahadur K. Naksar is Dewan of the State.

Jaora State—This State is in the Malwa Agency covering an area of about 600 square miles with a total population of 86,817, and has its headquarters at Jaora town. The Chiefs of Jaora claim descent from Abdul Majid Khan an Afghan of the Tajik Khel, from Swat, who came to India to acquire wealth. The first Nawab was Ghafur Khan who obtained the State about the year 1908. The present chief is Lt.-Colonel H. H. Fakhruddin, Nawab Sir Mahomed Iftikhar Ali Khan Sahib Bahadur Saadat Jang K.C.I.E., who was born in 1883 and is an Honorary Lt.-Colonel in the Indian Army. The administration is at present controlled by a Council of State of which His Highness the Nawab is the President. Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sarfraz Ali Khan is the Officiating Chief Secretary to His Highness and Vice President of the State Council. The Council is constituted of a President, a Vice President and six other members whose names are (1) Pandit Amar Nath Katju, B.Sc., LL.B. (Revenue Secretary), (2) Munshi Ram Dayal (Financial Secretary), (3) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sher Ali Khan (Military Secretary), (4) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sarfraz Ali Khan (Home Secretary), (5) Sahibzada Mohammad Mchub Ali Khan (Private Secretary) and (6) Sahibzada Saifdar Ali Khan (Council Secretary). The soil of the State is among the richest in Malwa, being mainly of the best black cotton variety bearing excellent crops of poppy. The average annual revenue is Rs 10 lakhs.

Rutlam—Is the premier Rajput State in the Malwa Agency. It covers an area of 871 square miles, including that of the Jagir of Khara in the Kuchalgah Chiefship, which pays an annual tribute to the Rutlam Darbar. The State was founded by Raja Batan Singhji, a great grandson of Raja Uday Singh of Jodhpur, in 1652. The ruler of Rutlam is the religious head of the Rajputs of Malwa, and important caste questions are referred to him for decision. The

State enjoys full and final civil and criminal powers. The present Ruler of Rutlam is Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Bajjan Singh, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H. H. the Prince of Wales, who was born in 1880, educated at Duly College, Indore, received military training in Imperial Cadet Corps and invested with full powers in 1898. His Highness served in the war in France and Egypt from 1915 to 1918, was mentioned in despatches and received the Croix d'Officiers de legion d'Honneur. He is also Regent of Rewa State. Salute 13 guns local 15 guns.

Dewan—Rai Bahadur B. N. Zutshi, O.B.E., B.A., LL.B.

Datis State—The rulers of this State, in the Bundelkhand Agency are Bundela Rajputs of the Orchha house. The territory was granted by the chief of Orchha to his son Bhagwan Rao in 1626, and this was extended by conquest and by grants from the Delhi emperors. The present ruler is H. H. Maharaja Lokendra Sir Govind Singh Bahadur K.C.S.I., who was born in 1886 and succeeded in 1907. H. H. enjoys a salute of 15 guns. The heir apparent, Raja Bahadur Bahubadra Singh (b. 1907), is being educated at the Mayo College, Ajmere and has married a daughter of the Maharaja Bahadur of Balrampur.

Orchha State—The rulers of this State are Bundela Rajputs claiming to be descendants of the Gahawars of Benares. It was founded as an independent State in 1048 A.D. It entered into relations with the British by the treaty made in 1812. The present ruler is His Highness Sir Pratap Singh, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1854. He has the hereditary titles of His Highness Sararam I, rajah Bundelkhand, Maharaja Mahendra Sawai Bahadur. The present chief enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The State has a population of about 830,032 and an area of 2,080 square miles. The capital is Tikamgarh 36 miles from Lalitpur Station on the G.I.P. Railway. Orchha, the old capital, has fallen into decay but is a place of interest on account of its magnificent buildings of which the finest were erected by Maharaj Bir Singh Deo the most famous ruler of the State (1605-1627).

GWALIOR

Resident—L. M. Crump, C.I.E.

BHOJAL

Political Agent—A. R. Jeff

BUNDELKHAND

Political Agent—Major D. G. Wilson

BAGHELKHAND

Political Agent—J. A. O. Fitzpatrick, C.I.E., C.B.E.

Sikkim.

Sikkim is bounded on the north and north-east by Tibet, on the south-east by Bhutan, on the south by the British district of Darjeeling, and on the west by Nepal. The population consists of Bhutias, Lepchas, and Nepalees. It forms the direct route to the Chumbi Valley in Tibet. The main axis of the Himalayas, which runs east and west forms the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet. The Singalia and Chola ranges, which run southwards from the main chain, separate Sikkim from Nepal on the

west, and from Tibet and Bhutan on the east. On the Singalila range rise the great snow peaks of Kinchinjunga (28,146 feet), one of the highest mountains in the world. The Chola range which is much loftier than that of Singalila, leaves the main chain at the Dongkya La.

Tradition says that the ancestors of the Rajas of Sikkim originally came from eastern Tibet. The State was twice invaded by the Gurkhas at the end of the eighteenth century. On the outbreak of the Nepal War in 1814, the British formed an alliance with the Raja of Sikkim and at the close of the war the Raja was rewarded by a considerable cession of territory. In 1835 the Raja granted the site of Darjeeling to the British and received Rs. 12,000 annually in lieu of it. The State was previously under the Government of Bengal, but was brought under the direct supervision of the Government of India in 1903. The State is thinly populated, the area being 2,818 square miles, and the population 81,721, chiefly Buddhists and Hindus. The most important crops are maize and rice. There are several trade routes through Sikkim from Darjeeling District into Tibet. In the convention of 1890 provision was made for the opening of a trade mart but the results were disappointing, and the failure of the Tibetans to fulfil their obligations resulted in 1904 in the despatch of a mission to Lhasa, where a new convention was signed. Trade with the British has increased in recent years, and is now between 40 and 50 lakhs yearly. A number of good roads have been constructed in recent years. The present ruler, His Highness Maharajah Sir Tashi Namgyal, K.C.I.B., was born in 1893 and succeeded in 1914. His Highness was invested with full ruling powers on the 5th April 1918. The title of a C.I.E. was conferred upon the Maharaja on the 1st January 1918 and K.C.I.B. on 1st January 1923. The average revenue is Rs. 4,02,422.

Political Officer in Sikkim—Major F. M. Bailey, C.I.E.

Bhutan.

Bhutan extends for a distance of approximately 190 miles east and west along the southern slopes of the central axis of the Himalayas, adjacent to the northern border of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Its area is 18,000 square miles and its population, consisting of Buddhists and Hindus, has been estimated at 800,000. The country formerly belonged to a tribe called Tekpa, but was wrested from them by some Tibetan soldiers about the middle of the seveneenth century. British relations with Bhutan commenced in 1772 when the Bhotias invaded the principality of Cooch Behar and British aid was invoked by that State. After a number of raids by the Bhutaneses into Assam, an envoy (the Hon A. Eden) was sent to Bhutan, who was grossly insulted and compelled to sign a treaty surrendering the Duars to Bhutan. On his return the treaty was disallowed and the Duars annexed. This was followed by the treaty of 1865, by which the State's relations with the Government of India were satisfactorily regulated. The State formerly received an allowance of half a lakh a year from the British Government in consideration of the cession in 1865 of some areas on the southern borders. This

allowance was doubled by a new treaty concluded in January 1910, by which the Bhutaneses Government bound itself to be guided by the advice of the British Government in regard to its external relations, while the British Government undertook to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan. On the occasion of the Tibet Mission of 1904, the Bhotias gave strong proof of their friendly attitude. Not only did they consent to the survey of a road through their country to Chumbi, but their ruler, the Tongsa Penlop accompanied the British troops to Lhasa, and assisted in the negotiations with the Tibetan authorities. For these services he was made a K.C.I.B. and he has since entertained the British Agent hospitably at his capital. The ruler is now known as H.H. the Maharaja of Bhutan, Sir Ugyen Wangchuk, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.B. At the head of the Bhutan Government, there are nominally two supreme authorities, the Dharma Raja, known as Shaping Benpoche, the spiritual head, and the Deb or Depa Raja, the temporal ruler. The Dharma Raja is regarded as a very high incarnation of Buddha, far higher than the ordinary incarnations in Tibet, of which there are several hundreds. On the death of a Dharma Raja a year or two is allowed to elapse, and his reincarnation then takes place always in the Choje, or royal family of Bhutan.

Cultivation is backward and the chief crop is maize. The military force consists of local levies under the control of the different chiefs. They are of no military value.

Nepal.

The kingdom of Nepal is a narrow tract of country extending for about 520 miles along the southern slope of the central axis of the Himalayas. It has an area of about 54,000 square miles, with a population of about 5,000,000, chiefly Hindus. The greater part of the country is mountainous the lower slopes being cultivated. Above these is a rugged broken wall of rock leading up to the chain of snow-clad peaks which culminate in Mount Everest (29,002 feet) and others of slightly less altitude. The country before the Gurkha occupation was split up into several small kingdoms under Newar kings. The Gurkhas under Prithvi Narayan Shah overran and conquered the different kingdoms of Patan, Kathmandu, and Bhadgaon, and other places during the latter half of the 18th century and since then have been rulers of the whole of Nepal. In 1846 the head of the Rana family obtained from the sovereign the perpetual right to the office of Prime Minister of Nepal, and the right is still enjoyed by his descendant. In 1850 Jung Bahadur paid a visit to England and was thus the first Hindu Chief to leave India and to become acquainted with the power and resources of the British nation. The relations of Nepal with the Government of India are regulated by the treaty of 1816 and subsequent agreements by which a representative of the British Government is received at Kathmandu. By virtue of the same treaty Nepal maintains a representative at Delhi and her treaty relations with Tibet allow her to keep a Resident at Lhasa of her own. Her relation with China is of a friendly nature. Ever since the conclusion of the treaty of 1816 the friendly relations with the

British Government have steadily been maintained and during the rule of the present Prime Minister it has been at its height as is evidenced by the valuable friendly help in men and money which has been given and which was appreciatively mentioned in both the Houses of Parliament and by Mr. Asquith in his Guildhall speech in 1915. The message from His Majesty the King Emperor to the Nepalese Prime Minister sent on the termination of hostilities and published at the time as also the Viceroy's valditory address to the Nepalese contingent on the eve of their return home after having laudably fulfilled their mission in India eloquently and gratefully acknowledged the valuable help rendered by Nepal during the four and a half years of war. To further strengthen and cement the bonds of friendship that have subsisted so long between the two countries the present Prime Minister and Marshal signed a new Treaty of friendship concluded between the Governments of Nepal and Great Britain on the 21st December 1923.

From the foregoing account of the history of Nepal it will be seen that the Government of the country has generally been in the hands of the Minister of the day. Since the time of Jung Bahadur this system of government has been clearly laid down and defined. The sovereign, or Maharajadhiraja, as he is called, is but a dignified figure head, whose position can best be likened to that of the Emperor of Japan during the Shogunate. The present King, His

Majesty Maharajadhiraja Tribhubasa Bir Bikram Jung Bahadur Shum Shere Jung, ascended the throne on the death of his father in 1911. The real ruler of the country is the Minister who, while enjoying complete monopoly of power, couples with his official rank the exalted title of Maharaja. Next to him comes the Commander-in-Chief, who ordinarily succeeds to the office of Minister.

The present Minister at the head of affairs of Nepal is Maharaja Sir Chandra Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana, G.C.S., G.C.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.C.L. Thong-lin pimma-Kokang-wang Syan (Highest honour in the Chinese military order) and Honorary General in the British Army and Hon. Colonel of the 4th Gurkha Rifles. He has been Prime Minister and Marshal of Nepal since June, 1901.

Rice, wheat and maize form the chief crops in the low lands. Mineral wealth is supposed to be great, but, like other sources of revenue, has not been developed. Communications in the State are primitive. The revenue is about two crores of rupees per annum. The standing army is estimated at 45,000, the high posts in it being filled by relations of the Minister. The State is of considerable archaeological interest and many of the sites connected with scenes of Buddha's life have been identified in it by the remains of inscribed pillars.

British Envoy—(Offg.) W. H. J. Wilkinson, O.L.B., C.V.O.

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER STATES.

The Indian states of the North West Frontier Provinces are Amb, Chitral, Dir and Phulera. The total area is about 7,704 square miles and the population, mainly Mahomedan, is 1,622,094. The average annual revenue of the first three is about Rs. 4,65,000, that of Phulera is unknown.

Amb—Is only a village on the western Bank of the Indus in Independent Tanawala.

Chitral—Runs from Dir to the south of the Hindu Kush range in the north, and has an area of about 4,500 square miles. The ruling dynasty has maintained itself for more than three hundred years, during the greater part of which the State has constantly been at war with its neighbours. It was visited in 1885 by the Lockhart Mission, and in 1889, on the establishment of a political agency in Gilgit, the ruler of Chitral received an annual subsidy from the British Government. That subsidy was increased two years later on condition that the ruler, Anam-ul-Mulk, accepted the advice of the British Government in all matters connected with foreign policy and frontier defence. His sudden death in 1892 was followed by a dispute as to the succession. The eldest son Nizam-ul-Mulk was recognized by Government, but he was mur-

dered in 1895. A war was declared by Umra Khan of Jandul and Dir against the Indfeds and the Agent at Gilgit, who had been sent to Chitral to report on the situation, was besieged with his escort and a force had to be despatched (April 1895) to their relief.

The three valleys of which the State consists are extremely fertile and continuously cultivated. The internal administration of the country is conducted by His Highness Sir Shuja-ul-Mulk, K.C.I.B., the Mehtar of Chitral, and the foreign policy is regulated by the Political Agent at Malakand.

Dir—The territories of this State, about 5,000 square miles in area, include the country drained by the Panjkora and its affluents down to the junction of the former river with the Bajaur Rud. The Nawab of Dir is the overlord of the country, exacting allegiance from the petty chiefs of the clans. Dir is mainly held by Yusufzal Pathans, the old non-Pathan inhabitants being now confined to the upper portion of the Panjkora Valley known as the Bakhkar.

Political Agent for Dir, Swat and Chitral Lieut.-Colonel H. Stewart, C.I.E.

STATES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Madras Presidency includes 5 Indian States covering an area of 28,087 square miles. Of these the States of Travancore and Cochin represent ancient Hindu dynasties. Endukottal is the inheritance of the chieftain called the Tondiman, Banganapalle and Sander,

two petty States, of which the first is ruled by a Nawab, lie in the centre of two British districts.

Name.	Area sq miles.	Popula- tion.	Estimated Gross Revenue in lakhs of rupees.
Travancore	7,685	4,006,062	200.79
Cochin	1,417½	979,019	70.61
Pudukottai	1,179	426,813	24.60
Banganapalle	255	36,692	3.70
Sandur	167	11,684	1.45

These States were brought into direct relation with the Government of India on October 1st, 1923.

Travancore—This State occupies the south-west portion of the Indian Peninsula, forming an irregular triangle with its apex at Cape Comorin. The early history of Travancore is in great part traditional; but there is little doubt that H. H. the Maharaja is the representative of the Chera dynasty, one of the three great Hindu dynasties which exercised sovereignty at one time in Southern India. The petty chiefs, who had subsequently set up as independent rulers within the State, were all subdued, and the whole country, included within its present boundaries, was consolidated and brought under one rule, by the Maharaja Marthanda Varma (1729-58). The English first settled at Anjengo, a few miles to the north of Trivandrum, and built a factory there in 1694. In the wars in which the East India Company were engaged in Madras and Tinnevely, in the middle of the 18th century, the Travancore State gave assistance to the British authorities. Travancore was reckoned as one of the staunchest allies of the British Power and was accordingly included in the Treaty made in 1784 between the East India Company and the Sultan of Mysore. To protect the State from possible inroads by Tippu, an arrangement was come to in 1788 with the East India Company, and in 1796 a formal treaty was concluded, by which the Company agreed to protect Travancore from all foreign enemies. In 1805 the annual subsidy to be paid by Travancore was fixed at 8 lakhs of rupees.

Hon. Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sri Rama Varma, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1867 and ascended the masnad in 1885, died in August 1924. The Government is conducted by a Regent. The work of legislation is entrusted to a Council brought into existence in 1898 and now containing a majority of non-official elected members. The Council is invested with the powers of voting on the budget, moving resolutions and asking questions including supplementary questions. Women are placed on a footing of complete equality with men in the matter of both electorship and membership. This is the largest measure of constitutional reform introduced in any Indian State. A representative assembly known as the Sri Mahan Popular Assembly meets once a year. Its members who are the elected representatives of the people are given an opportunity to express direct to the Dewan their wants and wishes and their views regarding

the administrative measures adopted from time to time. The State supports a military force of 1,475 men. Education has advanced considerably in recent years and the State takes a leading place in that respect. The principal food-grain grown is rice, but the main source of agricultural wealth is the coconut. Other crops are pepper, areca-nut, jack-fruit and tapioca. Cotton weaving and the making of matting from the coir are among the chief industries. The State is well provided with roads, and with a natural system of backwaters, besides canals and rivers navigable for country crafts. One line of railway about one hundred miles in length cuts across the State from east to west and then runs along the Coast through Travancore territory. More railway lines are in contemplation. The capital is Trivandrum.

Political Agent C W E Cotton, C.I.E., I.O.S.

Dewan Dewan Bahadur T. Raghaviah, C.I.E.

Cochin—This State on the south-west coast of India is bounded by the Malabar District of the Madras Presidency and the State of Travancore. Very little is known of its early history. According to tradition, the Rajas of Cochin hold the territory in right of descent from Cheraman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar, as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as an independent ruler. In 1502, the Portuguese were allowed to settle in what is now British Cochin and in the following year they built a fort and established commercial relations in the State. In the earlier wars with the Zamorin of Calicut, they assisted the Rajas of Cochin. The influence of the Portuguese on the west coast began to decline about the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in 1663 they were ousted from the town of Cochin by the Dutch with whom the Raja entered into friendly relations. About a century later, in 1759, when the Dutch power began to decline, the Raja was attacked by the Zamorin of Calicut, who was expelled with the assistance of the Raja of Travancore. In 1776, the State was conquered by Hyder Ali, to whom it remained tributary and subordinate, and subsequently to his son, Tipu Sultan. A treaty was concluded in 1791 between the Raja and the East India Company, by which His Highness agreed to become tributary to the British Government for his territories which were then in the possession of Tipu, and to pay a subsidy.

His Highness Raja Sri Sri Rama Varmah, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1852, and who ascended the Masnad in 1895, having abdicated in December, 1914, His Highness Sri Sri Rama Varmah, G.C.I.E., who was born on 6th October, 1888, succeeded to the throne and was duly installed as Raja on the 21st January 1915. The administration is conducted under the control of the Maharaja whom chief Minister and Executive Officer is the Dewan, Rao Bahadur P. Narayana Menon, I.O.O. The forests of Cochin form one of its most valuable assets. They abound in teak, ebony, blackwood, and other valuable trees. Rice forms the staple of cultivation. Coconuts are largely raised in the sandy tracts, and their products form the chief exports of the State.

Communications by road and back-waters are good, and the State owns a line of railway from Shoranore to Beauland, the capital of the State, and a Forest Steam Tramway used in developing the forests. The State supports a force of 55 officers and 250 men.

Political Agent O W E. Cotton, C.I.E., I.O.S.

Pudukkottai—This State is bounded on the north and west by Trichinopoly, on the south by Ramanad and on the east by Tanjore. In early times a part of the State belonged to the Chola Kings and the southern part to the Pandya Kings of Madura. Relations with the English began during the Carnatic wars. During the siege of Trichinopoly by the French in 1762, the Tondiman of the time did good service to the Company's cause by sending them provisions, although his own country was on at least one occasion ravaged as a consequence of his fidelity to the English. In 1765 he sent some of his troops to assist Muhamd Yussuf, the Company's sepoy commandant, in settling the Madura and Tinnevely countries. Subsequently he was of much service in the wars with Nadar Ali. His services were rewarded by a grant of territory subject to the conditions that the district should not be alienated (1806). Apart from that there is no treaty or arrangement with the Raja. The present ruler is His Highness Sri Brhaddamba Daa, Sir Marthanda Bhairava Tondiman Bahadur, C.I.E., who is eighth in descent from the founder of the family. He succeeded in 1886. The Collector of Trichinopoly is ex-officio Assistant Agent to the Governor-General for Pudukkottai. The administration of the State, under the Raja, is entrusted to a Regent. The various departments are constituted on the British India model. The principal food crop is rice. The forests, which cover about one-seventh of the State, contain only small timber. There are no large industries. The State is well provided with roads, but Pudukkottai is the only municipal town in the State.

Assistant Agent to the Governor-General P. Macqueen, I.O.S.

Manganapalle—This is a small State in two detached portions which in the eighteenth century passed from Hyderabad to Mysore and back again to Hyderabad. The control over it

was ceded to the Madras Government by the Nizam in 1800. The present ruler is Nawab Meer Faeis Ali Khan Bahadur. The chief food-grain is cholam. The Nawab pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The revenue of the State is over 3 lakhs. The Nawab enjoys a salute of 9 guns.

Agent to the Governor-General C W E. Cotton, C.I.E., I.O.S.

Sandur—The State is almost surrounded by the District of Bellary, the Collector of which is the Assistant to the Governor-General Agent. After the destruction of the Empire of Vijayanagar in 1565 the State came to be held by semi-independent chiefs under the nominal sovereignty of the Sultan of Bijapur and in 1728 one of these chiefs, a Poligar of Bedar tribe, was turned out by an ancestor of the present Raja named Siddiqi Rao of the Bhosale family of the famous Maharatta Chief Sivaji, they were Senapathies of Sivaji. In Sivaji Rao's time the State came under the Madras Government and his heirs in perpetuity with full powers, Civil and Criminal. In 1876 the title of Raja was conferred on the Chief as a hereditary distinction. The present Ruler is Raja Srimanth Venkata Rao Rao Sabalo. He was born in 1892. He married Rani Srimanth Tara Raja, sister of the late Raja of Alakot, in the Bombay Presidency. The State is administered by the Raja and the Dewan (Mohanbhai T. Ramachandra Ayyar). The Raja pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The most important staple crop is cholam. Teak and sandalwood are found in small quantities in the forests.

The minerals of the State possess unusual interest. The hematites found in it are probably the richest ore in India. An outcrop near the southern boundary forms the crest of a ridge 150 feet in height, which apparently consists entirely of pure steel grey crystalline hematite (specular iron) of intense hardness. Some of the softer ores used to be smelted, but the industry has been killed by the cheaper English iron. Manganese deposits have also been found in three places, and during 1911 to 1914 over 223,000 tons of manganese ore were transported by one company.

Assistant Agent to the Governor-General A G. Duff, I.O.S.

STATES OF WESTERN INDIA

Owing to the large number of States concerned and the interlocking of their territories with neighbouring British districts, the transfer of States under the Bombay Government to direct political relations with the Government of India (which was advocated in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report on the Constitutional Reform) had been delayed. The first stage of that process, however, was carried out in October, 1924, when a new Residency was created in direct relation with the Government of India comprising the whole of the compact area making up the Kathiawar, Dutch and Palanpur Agencies under the Government of Bombay.

Resident of the First Class and Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India—C C Watson, C.I.E. I.O.S.

Judicial Commissioner in the States of Western India—J. Murphy, I.O.S.

Kathiawar Agency—Kathiawar is the peninsula or western portion of the Province of Gujarat, Bombay. Its extreme length is about 220 miles and its greatest breadth about 165 miles, the area being 23,445 square miles. Of this total about 20,882 square miles with a population of 2,542,435 is the territory forming the Agency formerly subordinate to the

Government of Bombay, established in 1822, having under its control nearly 200 separate States whose chiefs divided amongst themselves the greater portion of the peninsula. The Kathiawar Agency was divided for administrative purposes into two divisions, Western and Eastern Kathiawar States (four prants—Jhalwar, Halar, Sorath and Gohiwar) and the States have since 1863 been arranged in seven classes.

Bhavnagar—This State lies at the head and west side of the Gulf of Cambay. The Gohel Rajputs, to which tribe the Ruler of Bhavnagar belongs, are said to have settled in the country about the year 1260, under Rajakji from whose three sons—Ranoji, Saranji and Shahji—are descended respectively the chiefs of Bhavnagar, Lathi and Palitana. An intimate connexion was formed between the Bombay Government and Bhavnagar in the eighteenth century when the chief of that State took pains to destroy the pirates which infested the neighbouring seas. The State was split up when Gujarat and Kathiawar were divided between the Peshwa and the Gaekwar, but the various claims over Bhavnagar were consolidated in the hands of the British Government in 1807. The State pays an annual tribute of Rs 1,22,000 to the British Government, Rs 3,581 8-0 as Peshkashi to Baroda, and Rs 22,858 as Zorlati to Junagadh. During the minority of His Highness the Minor Maharaja Krishna Kumarsinhji who succeeded to the gadi on the death of his father, Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji, K.O.S.I., on 17th July 1919, the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration. The Council consists of Sir Prabhashankar D. Pattani, K.O.S.I., as President, and Major R.C. Burke as Vice-President. The other members of the Council are Rao Bahadur T.K. Trivedi and Mr S.A. Goghwala, M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-law. One noteworthy feature in the administration is the complete separation of judicial from executive functions and the decentralisation of authority is another. The authority and powers of all the Heads of Departments have been clearly defined, and each within his own sphere is independent of the others, being directly responsible to the Council.

The chief products of the State are grain, cotton, sugar-cane and salt. The chief manufactures are oil, copper and brass vessels and cloth. The Bhavnagar State Railway is 280 miles in length. The capital of the State is the town and port of Bhavnagar, which has a good and safe harbour for shipping and carries on an extensive trade as one of the principal markets and harbours of export for cotton in Kathiawar. Bhavnagar supplies 268 State Lancers and 222 State Infantry.

Population (in 1921) was 426,404 of whom 86 per cent were Hindus and 8 per cent Mahomedans. The average income for the last five years was Rs 65,43,006 and the average expenditure Rs 55,18,790.

Dhrangadhra State is a State of the First Class in Kathiawar with a population of nearly one lakh and an area of 1,167 square miles exclusive of the Dhrangadhra portion of the Bann of Kutich. The ruler of Dhrangadhra is the head of the Jhala family of Rajputs,

originally called the Makvansa. This Rajput clan is of great antiquity having migrated to Kathiawar from the North, establishing itself first at Patli in the Ahmedabad District, thence moving to Halvad and finally settling in its present seat. Being the guardians of the North Eastern marches of Kathiawar they had to suffer repeatedly from the successive inroads of the Mahomedans into that Peninsula, but after suffering the various vicissitudes of war they were confirmed in their possession of Halvad, its surrounding territories and the salt-pans attached thereto by an Imperial Firman issued by Emperor Aurangzeb. The States of Vankaner, Limbdi, Wadhwan, Chuda, Sayla and Than Lakhtar are offshoots from Dhrangadhra. His Highness Maharaja Shri Sir Ghanshyamsinhji, G.O.S.I., K.C.S.I., Maharaja Raj Saheb, is the ruler of the State and the titular head of all the Jhalas. The administration is conducted under the Maharaja's directions by the Dewan Rana Shri Mansinhji S. Jhala, C.I.E. The soil being eminently fit for cotton cultivation, the principal crops are long-stapled cotton and cereals of various kinds. Excellent building and ornamental stone is quarried from the hills situated within the State. Wadagum salt of an excellent quality with Magnesium chloride and other bye-products of salt are also manufactured at the State Salt works at Kuda which offer practically in exhaustive supplies for their manufacture. The capital town is Dhrangadhra, a fortified town, 75 miles west of Ahmedabad.

Dhrangadhra State owns the Railway from Wadhwan Junction to Halvad, a distance of 40 miles, which is worked by the B.B. & C.I. Railway. An extension of this line to Malya is under construction.

Gondal State—The Ruling Prince of Gondal is a Rajput of the Jadeja stock with the title of H.H. Thakore Sahib, the present Ruler being H.H. Shri Bhagvat Singhji, G.O.S.I. The early founder of the State Kumbhoji I. had a modest estate of 20 villages. Kumbhoji II, the most powerful Chief of the House, widened the territories to almost their present limits by conquest, but it was left to the present ruler to develop its resources to the utmost, and in the words of Lord Reay, Governor of Bombay, by its "importance and advanced administration" to get it recognised as a First Class State. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,10,721. The chief products are cotton and grain and the chief manufactures are cotton and woollen fabrics and gold embroidery. Gondal has always been pre-eminent amongst the States of its class for the vigour with which public works have been prosecuted, and was one of the earliest pioneers of railway enterprise in Kathiawar, having initiated the Dhasa Dhoraji line. It owns the Dhasa-Jam Jodhpur section called the Gondal Railway and manages it along with the Jetalpur Rajkot Railway and H.H. Gaekwad's Khajadiya-Dhari line. It subsequently built the Jetalpur-Rajkot Railway in partnership with other Native States in Kathiawar. There are no export and import dues, the people being free from taxes and duties. Comparatively speaking Gondal stands first in Kathiawar in respect of the spread of education. Compulsory female

education in the State has been recently ordered by His Highness. Rs. 18 lakhs has been spent on irrigation tanks and canals and water supply to the town of Gondal. The Capital is Gondal, a fortified town on the line between Rajkot and Jodhpur.

Junagadh State.—This is a first class State under the Kathiawar Political Agency and lies in the south western portion of the Kathiawar Peninsula between 24° 44' and 21° 53' North latitude and 70° and 72° east longitude with the Halar Division of the province as its northern boundary, and Gohelwad Prant to its east. It is bounded on the south and west by the Arabian Sea. The State is divided into 13 Mahals. It has 16 ports of which the principal are Veraval and Mangrol. The principal rivers in the State are the Bhadar, Uben, Omat, Hiran, Saraswati, Machhundri, Singhoda, Meghal, Vrajini, Naval and Sabli. The capital town of Junagadh which is one of the most picturesque towns in India, is situated on the slope of the Girnar and Datar Hills, while in antiquity and historical interest it yields to none. The Upperkote or old citadel contains interesting Buddhist caves and the whole of the ditch and neighbourhood is honeycombed with caves or their remains. There are a number of fine modern buildings in the town. The famous Ashoka inscription of the Buddhistic time carved out on a big boulder of black granite stone is housed at the foot of the Girnar Hill which is sacred to the Jains, the Shrivates, the Valahnavaites and other Hindus. To the south west of the Girnar Hill lies the extensive forest of Gir comprising 494 sq. miles, 823 acres and 10 gunthas. It supplies timber and other natural products to the residents of the State and the neighbouring districts and is unique as the sole stronghold of the Indian lion. The area of the State is 3,336.9 square miles and the average revenue amounts to Rs. 56,90,945. The total population according to the census of 1921 was 485,493 of which 368,003 were Hindus, 90,091 Mahomedans, 7,216 Jains, 90 Christians, 58 Parsis, while 40 were of other castes. Until 1472 when it was conquered by Sultan Mahomed Begra of Ahmedabad, Junagadh was a Rajput State ruled by Chiefs of the Chudasama tribe. During the reign of the Emperor Akbar it became a dependency of Delhi under the immediate authority of the Mughal Viceroy of Gujarat. About 1725 when the representative of the Mughals had lost his authority in Gujarat, Sherkhat Babi, the ancestor of the present Babi Rulers expelled the Mughal Governor, and established his own rule. The ruler of Junagadh first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The principal articles of production in the State are cotton, bajri, jowar, sesamum, wheat, rice, sugarcane, cereals, grass, kharber, stone, castor-seed, fish, country tobacco, groundnuts, coconuts, bamboo, etc., while those of manufacture are glass, molasses, superphosphate, copper and brass-ware, dyed cloth, gold and silver embroidery, pottery, hardware, leather, bamboo furniture, etc. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 28,394 annually to the Paramount Power and a Peshkash of Rs. 67,210 to His Highness the Gaekwar. On the other hand, the State of Junagadh receives a tribute styled Zorabai amounting to Rs. 92,421 from 134 States, a relic of the days of

Mahomedan supremacy. The State maintains Junagadh State Forces the sanctioned strength of which is 173.

2. The Chief bears the title of Nawab, the present Nawab His Highness Mahabat Khan III is the ninth in succession and seventh in descent from His Highness Bahadurkhanji I, the founder of the Babi family of Junagadh. In 1735 A. D. His Highness the Nawab Bahub is born on 2nd August 1900 and succeeded to the gad in 1911, visited England in 1913-14, received his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and has been invested with full powers in March 1920. His Highness the Nawab Bahub is the Ruler of the Premier State in Kathiawar, ranks first amongst the Chiefs of Kathiawar, exercising plenary powers and enjoys a salute of 15 guns personal, 13 permanent and 15 local within the territorial limits of the Junagadh State.

Ruler—His Highness Mahabat Khanji Bahadurkhanji.

Heir-Apparent—Mahomed Dilwar Khanji. A second prince named Prince Mahomed Hissat Khanji was born on 16th February 1924.

Navanagar State, on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch, has an area of 3,791 square miles. The Maharaja of Navanagar is a Jadeja Rajput by caste, and belongs to the same family as the Rao of Cutch. The Jadejas originally entered Kathiawar from Cutch, and dispossessed the ancient family of Jethwas then established at Ghumli. The town of Navanagar was founded in 1540. The present Jam Sahib is the well known cricketer, H. H. Jam Sahib Shri Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, who was born in 1872 and succeeded in 1907. The principal products are grain, cotton and oil-seeds, shipped from the ports of the State. A small pearl fishery lies off the coast. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,20,093 per annum jointly to the British Government, the Gaekwar of Baroda and the Nawab of Junagadh. The State maintains two squadrons of Imperial Service Lancers. The Capital is Jamnagar, a flourishing place, nearly 4 miles in circuit, situated 5 miles east of the port of Bedi. Population 345,353. Revenue nearly Rs. 60 lakhs.

Revenue Secretary Gokulbhai B. Desai, Bar-at-law.

Political Secretary Parshuram B. Junnagar, B.A., LL.B.

General Secretary Hirabhai M. Mehta, B.A. (Contab.), Bar-at-law.

Cutch—The State is bounded on the north and north-west by Sind, on the east by the Palanpur Agency, on the south by the Peninsula of Kathiawar and the Gulf of Cutch and the south-west by the Indian Ocean. It is an extension of the great salt marsh called the Rann of Cutch, is 7,516 square miles. The capital is Bhuj, where the ruling Chief (The Maharaja) His Highness Maha Rao Sri Khengarji Savai Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., resides. Upon its isolated position, the special character of its people, their peculiar dialect, and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the peninsula of Cutch has more of the elements of a distinct national-

ity than any other of the dependencies of Bombay. The earliest historic notices of the State occur in the Greek writers. Its modern history dates from its conquest by the Sind tribe of Samma Rajputs in the fourteenth century. The section of the Sammas forming the ruling family in Cutch were known as the Jadejas or 'children of Jada'. The British made a treaty with the State in 1815. There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch, and wheat, barley and cotton are cultivated. Both iron and coal are found but are not worked. Cutch is noted for its beautiful embroidery and silverwork and its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance. Trade is chiefly carried by sea. The ruling chief is the supreme authority. A few of the Bhayats are invested with jurisdictional powers in varying degrees in their own Estates and over their own ryots. A notable fact in connection with the administration of the Cutch State is the number and position of the Bhayat. These are Rajput nobles forming the brotherhood of the Rao. They were granted a share in the territories of the ruling chief as provision for their maintenance and are bound to furnish troops on an emergency. The number of these chiefs is 137, and the total number of the Jadeja tribe in Cutch is about 16,000. The British military force having been withdrawn from Bhuj, the State now pays Rs 82,257 annually as an Anjar equivalent to the British Government. The military force consists of about 1,000 in addition to which there are some irregular infantry and the Bhayats could furnish on requisition a mixed force of four thousand.

Palanpur Agency—This group of States in Gujarat comprises two first class States, Palanpur and Radhanpur, and a few minor States and petty talukas. Its total area is 6,398 square miles and the population is 518,566.

The gross revenue is about 27 lakhs. The territory included in the Agency has, like the more central parts of Gujarat, passed during historical times under the sway of the different Rajput dynasties of Anhilwada, the early Khilji and Tughlak Shahi dynasties of Delhi, the Ahmedabad Sultans, the Mughal Emperors, the Mahrattas, and lastly the British. The State from which the Agency takes its name is under the rule of Captain His Highness Zebdattul Malik Dewan Mahakhan Talay Muhammad Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., Nawab of Palanpur. His Highness is descended from the Usafai Lohani Pathan, an Afghan tribe who appeared in Gujarat in the 14th century. The connection of the British Government with the State dates from 1819 in which year the Ruler was murdered by a body of nobles. Two high roads from Ahmedabad pass through the State and a considerable trade in cloth, grain, sugar and rice is carried on. The State pays tribute of Rs 38,402 to the Gaekwar of Baroda. The capital is Palanpur situated on the D. B. & C. I. Railway, and is the junction station of the Palanpur-Deesa Branch of D. B. & C. I. Railway. It is a very old settlement of which mention was made in the 8th century.

Radhanpur is a State, with an area of 1,150 square miles, which is held by a branch of the Babi family, who since the reign of Humayun have always been prominent in the annals of Gujarat. The present chief is H. H. Jalal-ud-din Khanji, the Nawab of Radhanpur. He has powers to try his own subjects even for capital offences without permission from the Political Agent. The State maintains a Police force of 208. The principal products are cotton, wheat and grain. The capital is Radhanpur town, a considerable trade centre for Northern Gujarat and Cutch.

INDIAN STATES UNDER LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

More than a half of the total number of the very various units counted as Indian States in India are under the Government of Bombay. The characteristic feature of the Bombay States is the great number of petty principalities, the peninsula of Kathiawar alone contains nearly two hundred separate States. The recognition of these innumerable jurisdictions is due to the circumstance that the early Bombay administrators were induced to treat the *de facto* exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction by a landholder as carrying with it a quasi-sovereign status. As the rule of succession by primogeniture applies only to the larger principalities, the minor States are continually suffering disintegration. In Bombay as in Central India, there are to be found everywhere the traces of disintegration and disorder left by the eighteenth century. In no part of India is there a greater variety of principalities. Some of the largest are of modern origin, having been founded by Marathas in the general scramble for power in the middle of the eighteenth century, but the Rajput houses date from earlier times. Interesting traces of ancient history are to be found at Saurashtra, Janjira and Jafarabad, where chiefs of foreign ancestry, descended from Abyss-

inian admirals of the Deccan fleets, still remain. A few aboriginal chiefs Bhils or Kolis, exercise an enfeebled authority in the Dangas and the hilly country that fringes the Mahi and the Narmada rivers.

The control of the Bombay Government is exercised through Political Agents, whose positions and duties vary greatly. In some of the more important States their functions are confined to the giving of advice and the exercise of a general surveillance, in other cases they are invested with an actual share in the administration, while States whose rulers are minors—and the number of these is always large—are directly managed by Government officers. Some of the States are subordinate to other States and not in direct relations with the British Government, in these cases the status of the feudatories is usually guaranteed by Government. The powers of the chiefs are regulated by treaty or custom, and range downwards to a mere right to collect revenue in a share of a village, without criminal or civil jurisdiction, as in the case of the petty chiefs of Kathiawar.

The number of Indian States in the Bombay Presidency before the creation of the Agency of Western India States was 377. Area

68,000 square miles. Population (1921) 7,409,429 They were divided for administrative purposes into the following agencies — Belgaum Agency, 1 State (Savantvadi) Bijapur Agency, 1 State (Jath), Cutch Agency, 1 State, Dharwar Agency, 1 State (Savanur), Kaira Agency, 1 State (Cambay), Kathiawar Agency, 187 States (principal States, Junagadh, Nawangan, Bhavnagar, Dhrangadhra, Porbandar, Morvi, Gondal). Kolaba Agency, 1 State (Janjira), Kolhapur Agency, 9 States (principal State, Kolhapur, with 9 feudatory States), Mahi Kantha Agency, 51 States (principal State, Idar), Nasik Agency, 1 State (Surana), Palanpur Agency, 17 States (principal States, Palanpur and Radhanpur), Poona Agency, 1 State (Bhor), Rewa Kantha Agency, 62 States (principal State, Rajpipla), Satara Agency, 2 States (Aundh and Phaltan) Sholapur Agency, 1 State (Akalkot) Sukkur Agency, 1 State (Khairpur), Surat Agency, 3 States (Banda, Dharampur and Sachin), Thana Agency, 1 State (Jawhar) The table below gives details of the area, etc., of the more important States —

State	Area in sq miles	Popula- tion (in 1921)	Approx Revenue in lakhs of rupees
Bhavnagar	2,860	426,404	86
Cutch	7,616	484,526	38
Dhrangadhra	1,167	84,406	25
Gondal	1,024	167,071	47
Idar	1,669	226,855	10
Junagadh	3,336	465,493	50 (gross)
Khairpur	6,050	193,152	23
Kolhapur	3,217	833,726	105
Morvi	822	96,697	22
Navanagar	3,791	845,853	00
Palanpur	1,765	236,994	9
Porbandar	642	101,881	22
Radhanpur	1,160	67,789	6
Rajpipla	1,517	168,454	18

Bijapur Agency—This comprises the Satara Jaghir of Jath (9808 square miles in area). On the annexation of Satara, in 1849, Jath and Daphlapur like other Satara Jaghirs became feudatories of the British Government. The latter has more than once interfered to adjust the peculiar affairs of the Jath Jaghir and in consequence of numerous acts of oppression on the part of the then ruler was compelled to assume direct management from 1874 to 1885. The small estate of Daphlapur with an area of 968 square miles lapsed to the Jath Jaghir on the demise of its last ruler Banbal Sahob Daphle in January 1917. The Chief of Jath who belongs to the Maratta caste, ranks as a first class Sardar. He holds a sanad of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The gross revenue of the State is about 3 lakhs chiefly derived from land revenue. The Jath State pays to the British Government Rs 6,400 per annum in lieu of horse contingent and Rs 4,847 on account of Sardeshmukhi rights.

Political Agent—R. G. Gordon, I.C.S.,
Collector of Bijapur

Dharwar Agency—This comprises only the small State of Savanur. The founder of the reigning family who are Mahomedans of Pathan origin was a Jagirdar of Emperor Aurangzeb. At the close of the last Maratha War the Nawab of Savanur, whose conduct had been exceptionally loyal, was confirmed in his possessions by the British Government. The State pays no tribute. The principal crops are jowar and cotton. The area is 70 square miles and population 18,830. The revenue is Rs 1,54,160-3-2. The present chief is Captain Meherban Nawab Abdul Majid Khan Diler Jang Bahadur, Nawab of Savanur.

Political Agent J. Monteth, I.C.S.

Kaira Agency—This includes only the State of Cambay at the head of the Gulf of the same name. Cambay was formerly one of the chief ports of India and of the Anhilwada Kingdom. At the end of the thirteenth century it is said to have been one of the richest towns in India. At the beginning of the sixteenth century also it formed one of the chief centres of commerce in Western India. Factories were established there by the English and the Dutch. It was established a distinct State about 1780, the founder of the present family of Chiefs being the last but one of the Mahomedan Governors of Gujarat. The present Nawab is His Highness Mirza Hussain Yarwan Khan who is a Shahi Mogul of the Najumian family of Persia, and was born on the 16th May 1911. His father, the late Nawab Jaffer Ali Khan, died on 21st January 1915 leaving him a minor. The State is therefore under British Administration. The State pays a tribute of Rs 21,924 to the British Government. Wheat and cotton are the principal crops. There is a broad gauge line from Cambay via Petlad, connecting with the B. B. & C. I. Railway at Anand. Cambay is a first class State having full jurisdiction. Revenue is about eight lakhs. The area of the State is 350 square miles, population 71,715.

Political Agent J. W. Smyth, I.C.S.

Administrator V. K. Namjoshi

Kolaba Agency—This Agency includes the State of Janjira in the Konkan, a country covered with spurs and hill ranges and much intersected by creeks and backwaters. The ruling family is said to be descended from an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizam Shahi Kings of Ahmednagar at the end of the fifteenth century. The most noticeable point in its history is the successful resistance that it alone, of all the States of Western India, made against the determined attacks of the Marathas. The British on succeeding the Marathas as masters of the Konkan, refrained from interfering in the internal administration of the State. The chief is a Sunni Mahomedan, by race a Sidi or Abyssinian, with a title of Nawab. He has a sanad guaranteeing succession according to Mahomedan law and pays no tribute. Till 1868 the State enjoyed singular independence, there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year the mal-administration of the chief, especially in matters of police and criminal justice, became flagrant, those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands and vested in a

Political Agent The last ruler, H H Nawab Sidi Sir Ahmed Khan, C.O.I. S. died on 2nd May 1922, and was succeeded by his son Sidi Muhammad Khan, born on the 7th March 1914. The area of the State is 377 square miles, and the population 98,330. The average revenue is 7 lakhs. The State maintains an irregular military force of 236. The capital is Murud on the mainland, the name of Janjira being retained by the island fort opposite. The Chief is entitled to a dynastic salute of 11 guns. In recognition of services rendered in connection with the war the last ruler's salute was raised on the 1st January 1918 to 13 guns personal and 18 permanent within the limits of his own State from the 1st January 1921.

Kolhapur Agency—Kolhapur is a State with an area of 3,217 square miles and population of 838,726. Subordinate to Kolhapur are nine feudatories, of which the following five are important: Vichalgarh, Bavda, Kagal (senior), Kagal and Ichalkaranji. The ruling house traces its descent from a younger son of Shivaji, founder of the Maratha power. The prevalence of piracy from the Kolhapur port of Malvan compelled the Bombay Government to send expeditions against Kolhapur in 1766, and again in 1792, when the Raja agreed to give compensation

for the losses which British merchants had sustained since 1785, and to permit the establishment of factories at Malvan and Kolhapur. Internal dissensions and wars with neighbouring States gradually weakened the power of Kolhapur. In 1812 a treaty was concluded with the British Government, by which, in return for the cession of certain ports, the Kolhapur Raja was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government. The principal articles of production are rice, jawar and sugar cane and the manufactures are coarse cotton and woollen cloths, pottery and hard ware. The State pays no tribute, and supports a military force of 600. The nine feudatory estates are administered by their holders, except in the case of two whose holders are minors. Kolhapur proper is divided into five pethas or talukas and four mahals and is managed by the Maharaja who has full powers of life and death. The Southern Mahratta Railway passes through the State and is connected with Kolhapur City by a line which is the property of the State.

Resident and Senior Political Agent for Kolhapur and the Southern Mahratta Country—Lieut Col R. S. Pottinger

Southern Maratha Country States—The Agency consists of the following eight States—

Name of State	Area in square miles	Population	Tribute to British Government	Average revenue
			Rs.	Rs.
Sangli	1,136	221,321	1,35,000	11,90,208
Miraj (Senior)	342	82,580	12,558	3,86,962
Miraj (Junior)	196½	34,626	7,389	3,27,403
Kurundwad (Senior)	182	40,168	9,619	1,82,425
Kurundwad (Junior)	114	34,288		1,81,344
Jamkhandi	524	101,195	20,516	7,32,562
Mudhol	368	60,140	2,672	8,95,849
Ramdurg	169	38,997		1,98,039
Total	3,032	608,265	1,87,754	85,94,792

Mahikant—This group of States has a total area of 3,184 square miles and a population of 450,478, including that of Idar, which is 226,851. The revenue is about 14 lakhs. The Agency consists of the first class State of Idar and 51 small States. The Native State of Idar covers more than half the territory. It has an area of 1,668 square miles and an average revenue of Rs. 12,24,782. The present ruler of Idar, Lieutenant-Colonel H. H. Maha-

raja Dhiraaj Maharajaji Shri Sir Dowlat Singhji, C.O.I., is a Rajput of the Rathod clan. He was born in 1878 and ascended the Gadi in 1911. His Highness had been on active service in Egypt during the great war. The subordinate feudatory Jagirdars are divided into 3 classes. The Jagirdars comprised in the class of Bhayats are cadets of the Ruling House to whom grants have been made in maintenance or as a Jivarak. Those known as Sardar Pat-

tawats are descendants of the military leaders who accompanied Anand Singh and Rai Singh the founder of the present Marwar dynasty when they took possession of the State in the first quarter of the eighteenth century and to whom grants of land were made by Maharaja Anand Singh in 1741 A.D. on condition of military service. In the class of the Bhoomias are included all subordinate Feudatories who were in possession of their Pattas prior to the advent of the present Marwar dynasty. The Pattas which they hold were acquired by their ancestors by grant from the former Rao rulers of the State. The Maharaja receives Rs. 52,427 annually on account of Khichdi and other Raj Raks from its subordinate Sardars, the tributary Talukas of the Mahi Kantha Agency and others and pays Rs. 30,340 as Ghasdana to Gaekwar of Baroda through the British Government. Of the smaller states Polo and Danta are important two second class States. The names of their Chiefs are Rao Shri Hamir Singhji, and Maharana Shri Hamir Singhji. Nine other States are of some importance and the remainder are estates belonging to Rajput or Koli Thakurs, once the lawless feudatories of Baroda, and still requiring the anxious supervision of the Political Officer.

Political Agent—Lt Col A. H. E. Moase, I.A.

Nasik Agency—This consists of one State Surgana, lying in the north west corner of the Nasik District. Surgana has an area of 380 square miles and a population of 14,912. The ruling chief is Prataprao Shankarrao Deshmukh who is descended from a Maratha Pawar family. He rules the State subject to the general control of the Collector and Political Agent, Nasik. The revenue of the State is about Rs. 59,776.

Bewa Kantha Agency—This Agency with an area of 4,956 square miles and a population of 666,099 comprises 61 States of which Rajpipla is a first class State, 6 are second class one is third class and the rest are either petty States or talukas. Among those petty States are Sanjeli in the north Bhadava and Umata in the west, Jambhughoda in the south-east and two groups of Mehwas. The 26 Sankheda Mehwas petty estates lie on the right bank of the Narbada, while the 24 Pandu Mehwas petty estates including Dodka, Anghad and Balika, which together form the Dodka Mehwas are situated on the border of the Mahi.

The following are the statistics of area and population for the principal States —

State	Area in square miles	Population
Balasainor	189	44,030
Bariya	813	137,291
Chhota Udaipur	873	125,702
Lunnavada	388	83,136
Narukot (Jambhughoda)	143	9,540
Rajpipla	1,517	168,425
Sunth	394	70,957
Other Jurisdictional States Civil Stations and Thana Circles	639	113,977

Under the first Anhilvada dynasty (746-961) almost all the Rewa Kantha lands except Champaner were under the government of the Bariyas, that is Koli and Bhil chiefs. In the eleventh twelfth and thirteenth centuries chiefs of Rajput or part Rajput blood, driven south and east by the pressure of Muhammadan invasions, took the place of the Koli and Bhil leaders. The first of the present States to be established was the house of the Maharaja of Rajpipla, a Gohel Rajput.

Rajpipla—This State lies to the south of the Narbada. It has an area of 1,517 square miles. The lands are rich and very fertile and except a few forest-clad hills are suitable and available for cultivation in large quantities in the south-east talukas. The family of the Maharaja of Rajpipla, H. H. Maharana Shri Vijayasinghji, K. C. S. I. is said to derive its origin from a Rajput of the Gohel clan. The State pays an annual sum of Rs. 50,000 on account of Ghasdana to the Gaekwar of Baroda. Cotton is the most important crop in the State. In the hills there are valuable teak forests. The capital is Nandod, which is connected with Anklesvar by railway built by the State.

Satara Jagirs—Under this heading are grouped the following six States —

State	Area in sq miles	Population	Revenue in lakhs
Aundh	501	68,995	3
Phaltan	397	55,996	2
Bhor	925	144,801	5
Akalkot	498	89,082	4
Jath	884	69,810	2
Daphlapur	96	8,833	2

These were formerly feudatory to the Raja of Satara. In 1849 five of them were placed under the Collector of Satara, and Akalkot under the Collector of Sholapur. Subsequently the Jagir of Bhor was transferred to the Collector of Poona and Jath and Daphlapur to the Southern Marhatta country. The last two are now under the Collector of Bijapur. The ruling chiefs are as follows—

State	Ruling Chiefs	Tribute to British Government. Rs
Aundh	Bhavanrao Shrinivasrao alias Baba Saheb, Pant Pratindhi	
Phaltan	Mudhojirav Janrav Nimbalkar	9,600
Bhor	H H Shankarrao Chimnaji, Pant Sachiv	4,684
Akalkot		14,592
Jath	Ramrav Amritrav alias Aba Saheb Daphle	6,400
Daphlapur	Bani Bai Saheb Daphle, widow of Ramchandrarav Venkatrav Chavan Daphle	

Savantwadi—This State has an area of 925 square miles and population of 206,440. The average revenue is Rs 681,030. It lies to the north of the Portuguese territory of Goa the general aspect of the country being extremely picturesque. Early inscriptions take the history of the State back to the sixth century. So late as the nineteenth century the ports on this coast swarmed with pirates and the country was very much disturbed. The present chief is Khem Savant V alias Bapu Saheb Bhonsle. Rice is the principal crop of the State, and it is rich in valuable teak. The sturdy Marathas of the State are farouche troops for the Indian Army and supply much of the immigrant labour in the adjacent British districts. The Capital is Savantwadi, also called Sunder Vadi, or simply Vadi.

Sholapur Agency—This contains the State of Akalkot which forms part of the tableland of the Deccan. It has an area of 498 square miles and a population of 81,260. In the beginning of the eighteenth century the Akalkot territory, which had formerly been part of the Mussulman kingdom of Ahmednagar, was granted by the Raja of Satara to a Maratha Sardar, the ancestor of the present chief, subject to the supply of a contingent of horse. In 1849 after the annexation of Satara, the Akalkot Chief became a feudatory of the British Government.

Baria—The State has an area of 813 square miles with a population of 137,291 and is situated in the heart of the Panchmahals district. The Capital Devgad Baria is reached by road from Pipod station on the B E & C I Railway, at a distance of eight miles. The average revenue of the State is about 8 lakhs. The State enjoys plenary powers. The Ruler Captain His Highness Maharaoi Shree Sir Ranjitlalji, K C S I, is the direct descendant of the Great House of Kichhi Ohowhan Rajputs who ruled over Gujrat for 244 years with their capital at Champener, with the proud title of Pavapatis. His family has the noblest historical traditions. The state pays no tribute either to the British Government or any other Indian state.

Surat Agency—This is a small group of

He enjoys a salute of eleven guns. He served in France and Flanders in the Great European War and in the Afghan War, 1919. The staple crop is maize. The forests are rich in teakwood and all sorts of jungle produce. There is a large scope for forest industries.

The Sukkur Agency—This consists of the Khairpur State, a great alluvial plain in Sind. It has an area of 6,050 square miles and a population of 193,152, and revenue of over 24 lakhs. The present chief, H H Mir Ali Nawaz Khan, belongs to a Baloch family called Talpur. Previous to the accession of this family on the fall of the Kalohra dynasty of Sind in 1783, the history of Khairpur belongs to the general history of Sind. In that year Mir Fateh Ali Khan Talpur established himself as Ruler or ruler of Sind and subsequently his nephew, Mir Sohrab Khan Talpur, founded the Khairpur branch of the Talpur family. In 1832 the individuality of the Khairpur State, as separate from the other Talpur Mirs in Sind, was recognised by the British Government in a treaty, under which the use of the river Indus and the roads of Sind were secured to the British. The chief products of the State are oil-seeds, ghee, hides, tobacco, fuller's earth, carbonate of soda, cotton, wool and grain. The manufactures comprise cotton fabrics and various kinds of silverware and metal work. There is an industrial school at the capital where lacquer work, carpets, pottery, etc., are produced. The Railway from Hyderabad to Rohri runs through the whole length of the State. The rule of the Mir is patriarchal, but many changes have been made in recent years introducing greater regularity of procedure into the administration. The Wazir, an officer sent from British service, conducts the administration under the Mir. The State supports a military force of 364 rank and file composed of 216 Infantry, 22 Transport, 24 Cavalry and 42 Band and Bag pipes including an Imperial Service Camel and Baggage Corps which is 139 strong and served at the Front.

Political Agent. The Collector of Sukkur

Agent, Surat

State	Ruling Chiefs	Area in sq. miles	Population (1921).
Dharampur	Maharana Shri Vijayadevi Mohandevji	704	96,171
Banada	Maharaval Shri Indrasinhji Pratapsinhji	215	40,125
Sachin	His Highness Nawab Sidi Ibrahim Muhammad Yakut Khan Mubassarat Danila Nasrat Jung Bahadur	49	19,977

The joint revenue of these States is 22 lakhs. Tribute is paid to the British Government of Rs. 9,154. There is also attached to this Agency a tract of country known as the Dangs which has an area of 853 square miles and a population of 24,576 and a revenue of Rs. 14,268. The country is divided into 14 Dangs or States of very unequal area, each under the purely nominal rule of a Bhil Chief with the title of Raja, Naik, Pradhan or Povar.

Thana Agency—This includes the State of Jawhar, in the Thana District on a plateau above the Konkan plain. It has an area of

310 square miles and a population of 49,662 and revenue of 6 lakhs. Up to 1294, the period of the first Mahomedan invasion of the Deccan, Jawhar was held by a Varli, not a Koli chief. The first Koli chief obtained his footing in Jawhar by a device similar to that of Dido, when he asked for and received as much land as the hide of a bull would cover. The Koli chief cut a hide into strips and thus enclosed the territory of the State. The present chief is Raja Vikramshah Patangshah, who administers the State, assisted by a Karbhari under the supervision of the Collector of Thana who is Political Agent of the State.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL

Cooch Behar—This State, which at one time comprised almost the whole of the Northern Bengal, Assam and a part of Bhutan now known as the Duars, is a low lying plain in North Bengal. It has an area of 1,807 square miles, a population of 592,472 and a revenue of nearly 36 lakhs. By the demise of the late Maharaja His Highness Maharaja Bir Jitendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur in December 1922 in England, his eldest son Yuvaraj Kumar Jagaddipendra Narayan (born on December 15, 1915) succeeded to the gadi at the age of 7, which necessitated a minority administration under the guidance of a Regent. His Highness the Maharaja belongs to the Kshatriya Varna of Kshatriya origin. The present Maharaja has three sisters Maharajkumari Ila Devi (aetat 9), Ayecha Devi (aetat 5) and Menaka Devi (aetat 4) and one brother Maharajkumar Indrajit Narayan (aetat 6). Her Highness the Maharani Sahiba of Cooch Behar was appointed Regent under the wishes of the late Maharaja and administers the State on behalf of her minor son with a Council of Regency, comprising four members at present, of which Her Highness is the President. Cooch Behar once formed part of the famous kingdom of Kamrup. British connection with it began in 1772 when owing to inroads of the Bhutias, the assistance of the East India Company was invoked. The chief products of the State are rice, jute, mustard seed and tobacco. The capital is Cooch Behar, which is reached by the Cooch Behar State Railway, a branch from the Eastern Bengal State Railway System.

Tripura—This State lies to the east of the district of Tippera and consists largely of hills covered with dense jungles. It has an area of 4,116 square miles and a population of 804,487. The revenue from the State is about 14 lakhs and from the Zemindari to British territory a slightly smaller sum. The present ruler is Maharaja Bir Bikram Kishore Deb Barman Manikya Bahadur, who is a Kshatriya by caste and comes of the Lunar race and is entitled to a salute of 18

guns. He succeeded the late Maharaja Bharendra Kishore Manikya Bahadur on 13th August 1923 and is only 15 years of age. The military prestige of Tripura dates back to the fifteenth century and a mythical account of the State takes the history to an even earlier date. Both as regards its constitution and its relations with the British Government, the State differs alike from the large Native States of India, and from those which are classed as tributary. Besides being the ruler of Tripura, the Maharaja also holds a large landed property situated in the plains of the Districts of Tippera, Noakhali and Sylhet. This estate covers an area of 600 square miles, and is held to form with the State an indivisible Raj. Disputes as to the right of succession have occurred on the occasion of almost every vacancy in the gadi, producing in times gone by disturbances and domestic wars, and exposing the inhabitants to serious disorders and attacks from the Kukis, who were always called in as auxiliaries by one or other of the contending parties. The principles which govern succession to the State have recently, however, been embodied in a *sanad* which was drawn up in 1904. The chief products of the State are rice, cotton, *til*, tea and forest produce of various kinds, the traffic being carried chiefly by water. Owing to the fact that the Maharaja is too young to have full administrative powers the administration is conducted by a Council of members—President—Maharaj Kumar Navadrip Chandra Deb Barman Vice President—Raj J. C. Sen Bahadur, lent to the State by the British Government.

Maharajkumar Brojendra K. Shore Deb Barman and Thakur Protap Chandra Roy, *Members*.

The State Courts are authorised to inflict capital punishment.

Political Agent—Magistrate and Collector of Tippera (*ex-officio*).

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Under this Government there are the Chota Nagpur Feudatory States of Kharsawan and Sarakela, and the Orissa Feudatory States, 24 in number. The total area is 28,656 square miles, and the total population 3,961,808. The revenue is Rs. 79,37,471. The inhabitants are hill-men of Kolarian or Dravidian origin and their condition is still very primitive. The

chief of Kharsawan belongs to a junior branch of the Porahat Raja's family. The State first came under the notice of the British in 1798, when, in consequences of disturbances on the frontier of the old Jungle Mahals, the Thakur of Kharsawan and the Kunwar of Sarakela were compelled to enter into certain agreements relating to the treatment of fugitive rebels.

The chief is bound, when called upon, to render service to the British Government, but he has never had to pay tribute. His present sanad was granted in 1919. He exercises all administrative powers, executive and judicial, subject to the control of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The Bengal Nagpur Railway runs through a part of the State. The adjoining State of Seraikela is held by the elder branch of the Porahat Raja's family.

Orissa Feudatory States—This group of 24 dependent territories is situated between the Mahanadi Delta and the Central Provinces, and forms the mountainous background of Orissa. The names of the individual States are Athgarh, Talcher, Mayurbhanj, Nilgiri Keonjhar, Pal Lahara, Dhenkanal, Athmalik, Hindol, Narasinghpur, Baramba, Tigiria Khanpara, Nayagarh, Ranpur Dasapalla and Baud. To these there were added in 1905 the following States: Bamra, Kalakhol, Sonpur, Patna and Kalahandi from the Central Provinces, and Gangpur and Bonai from the Chota Nagpur States. The total population is 3,808,857 with a revenue of Rs 76,31,025. The Feudatory States have no connected or authentic history. Comprising the western and hilly portion of the province of Orissa, they were never brought under the central government, but from the earliest times consisted of numerous petty principalities which were more or less independent of one another. They were first inhabited by aboriginal races, who were divided into innumerable communal or tribal groups each under its own chief or headman. These carried on incessant warfare with their neighbours on the one hand and with the wild beasts of the forests on the other. In course of time their hill retreats were penetrated by Aryan adventurers, who gradually overthrew the tribal chiefs and established themselves in their place. Tradition relates how these daring interlopers, most of whom were Rajputs from the north, came to Puri on a pilgrimage and remained behind to found kingdoms and dynasties. It was thus that Jai Singh became ruler of Mayurbhanj over 1,300 years ago, and was succeeded by his eldest son, while his second son seized Keonjhar. The chiefs of Baud and Dasapalla are said to be descended from the same stock, and a Rajput origin is also claimed by the Rajas of Athmalik, Narasinghpur, Pal Lahara, Talcher and Tigiria. Nayagarh, it is alleged, was founded by a Rajput from Rewah, and a scion of the same family was the ancestor of the present house of Khandpara. On the other hand, the chiefs of a few

States, such as Athgarh, Baramba and Dhenkanal, owe their origin to favourites or distinguished servants of the ruling sovereigns of Orissa. The State of Ranpur is believed to be the most ancient, the list of its chiefs covering a period of over 3,600 years. It is noteworthy that this family is of Khond origin, and furnishes the only known instance in which, amid many vicissitudes, the supremacy of the original settlers has remained intact. The States acknowledged the suzerainty of the paramount power and were under an implied obligation to render assistance in resisting invaders, but in other respects neither the ancient kings of Orissa nor their successors, the Mughals and Marathas, ever interfered with their internal administration. All the States have annals of the dynasties that have ruled over them, but they are made up in most part of legend and fiction and long genealogical tables of doubtful accuracy, and contain very few features of general interest. The British conquest of Orissa from the Marathas, which took place in 1803, was immediately followed by the submission of ten of the Tributary States, the chiefs of which were the first to enter into treaty engagements.

The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. They were taken over from the Marathas in 1803 with the rest of Orissa, but, as they had always been tributary states rather than regular districts of the native governments, they were exempted from the operation of the general regulation system. This was on the ground of expediency only and it was held that there was nothing in the nature of British relations with the proprietors that would preclude their being brought under the ordinary jurisdiction of the British courts, if that should ever be found advisable. In 1882 it was held that the States did not form part of British India and this was afterwards accepted by the Secretary of State.

The staple crop in these States is rice. The forests in them were at one time among the best timber producing tracts in India, but until lately forest conservancy was practically unknown. The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. The relations with the British Government are governed mainly by the sanads granted in similar terms to all the chiefs in 1894. They contain ten clauses reciting the rights, privileges, duties and obligations of the chiefs, providing for the settlement of boundary disputes, and indicating the nature and extent of the control of the Political Agent and Commissioner.

Political Agent and Commissioner C. L. Phillip

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Three States—Rampur, Tehri and Benares are included under this Government—

State	Area Sq Miles	Population	Revenue in lakhs
Rampur	892	453,607	60
Tehri (Garhwal)	4,500	300,725	11
Benares	875	359,574	23

Rampur is a fertile level tract of country. The ruler Colonel His Highness Alijeh Farsandi Dilpizir-i-Daulat-Inglishia, Mukhlis-ud-Daulah, Nasir ul Mulk, Amir ul Umra, Nawab Sir Syed Mohammed Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur Mustaid Jung, GCSI, GCIE, GCVO, ADC, to His Imperial Majesty the King Emperor. Born 31st August 1875, descended from the famous Sadats of Bahera. Succeeded in February 1889, His Highness is the sole surviving representative of the once great Rohilla power in India. He is the premier ruler in the United Provinces, and rules over a territory of 892 square miles with

a population of 455,607. His Highness is an enlightened Prince and is well educated in Arabic, Persian and English languages. He is a keen supporter of education for Mohammedans, and has travelled extensively in America and Europe. During the Mutiny of 1857 the then Nawab of Rampur displayed his unwavering loyalty to the British Government by affording pecuniary aid, protecting the lives of Europeans, and rendering other valuable services which were suitably recognised by the Paramount Power. Under the reorganisation scheme, the State forces consist of Rampur Pioneers (including one training company formerly known as Rampur Infantry) 591, Rampur Lancers 331, Rampur Infantry (formerly called 2nd Battalion) 652, Artillery 205, Goorkha Company 151, Palace Guards 825, Band 40, and Cyclists 20.

During the great War the Rampur Infantry was sent to East Africa where it rendered valuable services to the Imperial cause and returned to Rampur after a stay of about four years. A detachment of Rampur Lancers trained Government Horses at the Remount Depots of Bellary and Aurangabad while another escorted Government horses to Europe. During the Afghan War the two Regiments were sent on garrison duty in British India.

His Highness has three sons, the eldest Nawab Syed Baza Ali Khan Bahadur being the heir apparent.

The State has an income of over fifty lakhs of rupees a year.

His Highness enjoys a permanent salute of 15 guns.

Tehri State (or Tehri-Garhwal).—This State lies entirely in the Himalayas and contains a tangled series of ridges and spurs radiating from a lofty series of peaks on the border of Tibet. The sources of the Ganges and the Jumna are in it. The early history of the State is that of Garhwal District, the two tracts having formerly been ruled by the same dynasty. Pradyumna Shah, the last Raja of the whole territory, was killed in battle, fighting against the Gurkhas, but at the close of the Nepalese War in 1815, his son received from the British the present State of Tehri. During the Mutiny the latter rendered valuable assistance to Government. He died in 1859 without issue, and was succeeded by his near relative Bhawani Shah, and he subsequently received a *sanad* giving him the right of adoption. The present Raja is Captain H. H. Narendra Shah, C.S.I. The principal product is rice, grown

on terraces on the hill sides. The State forests are very valuable and there is considerable export of timber. The Raja has full powers within the State. A unit of Imperial Service Bappers is maintained. The capital is Tehri, the summer capital being Pratapnagar, 8,000 feet above the sea level.

Agent to the Governor-General. The Governor of the U. P. of Agra and Oudh.

Benares.—The founder of the ruling family of Benares was one Manas Ram, who entered the service of the Governor of Benares under the Nawab of Oudh in the early eighteenth century. His son, Balwant Singh, conquered the neighbouring countries and created a big state out of them over which he ruled till 1770. Raja Chet Singh succeeded him, but was expelled by Warren Hastings in 1781. In 1794, owing to the maladministration of the estates which had accumulated under the Raja of Benares an agreement was concluded by which the lands held by the Raja in his own right were separated from the rest of the province of which he was simply administrator. The direct control of the latter was assumed by the Government, and an annual income of one lakh of rupees was assured to the Raja while the former constituted the Domains. Within the Domains the Raja had revenue powers similar to those of a Collector in a British District, which were delegated to certain of his own officials. There was thus constituted what for over a century was known as the Family Domains of the Maharaja of Benares. On the 1st of April 1911 these Domains became a State consisting of the parganas of Bhadohi (or Konrh) and Chakla (or Kera Mangraur) with the town of Ramnagar and its neighbouring villages. The Maharaja's powers are those of a ruling chief, subject to certain conditions, of which the most important are the maintenance of all rights acquired under laws in force prior to the transfer, the reservation to Government of the control of the postal and telegraph systems, of pendency criminal jurisdiction within the State over servants of the British Government and European British subjects, and of a right of control in certain matters connected with excise. The present ruler is Lieut. Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Prabhu Narayan Singh Bahadur, C.C.S.I., C.C.I.B., who was born in 1855 and succeeded to the State in 1889. He is entitled to a salute of 15 guns and is a Hon. Lt.-Colonel in the Indian Army.

PUNJAB STATES.

The 13 Salute States of the Punjab were transferred to the Political charge of the Government of India with effect from the 1st November 1921. Area, 80,746 square miles. Population (1921) 4,008,077. Revenue Rs. 3,02,95,684.

These States may be grouped under three main classes. The Hill States which lie in the Punjab

Himalayas are held by families of ancient Rajput descent. To the south-west lies the large Mohamadan State of Bahawalpur. The remaining Sikh States of Patiala, Jind, Nabha, Kapurthala and Faridkot and the Mohammedan Chiefships of Malerkotla and Loharu lie east of Lahore in the eastern plains of the Punjab.

The list below gives details of the area, population and revenue of the 13 States. —

Name	Area in square miles	Population (Census of 1921)	Revenue approximate in lakhs.
Bahawalpur	15,000	7,81,191	44,48,290 44½
Bilaspur (Kahlur)	448	98,000	3,20,750 3½
Chamba	3,216	1,41,867	4,75,279 2½
Faridkot	642	1,50,661	17,02,327 18
Jind	1,259	3,08,183	25,00,000 25
Kapurthala	630	2,84,275	37,00,000 37
Loharu	222	20,621	1,06,676 1
Malerkotla	167	80,322	14,08,525 14
Mandi	1,200	1,85,048	8,00,000 8
Nabha	928	2,68,394	22,45,387 22½
Patiala	5,412	14,90,739	1,15,18,000 115½
Sirmur (Nahan)	1,198	1,40,448	6,00,000 6
Suket	420	54,828	3,85,600 3¾
Total	30,746	40,08,077	3,02,95,684

Bahawalpur—This State, which is about 800 miles in length and about 40 miles wide, is divided lengthwise into three great strips. Of these the first is a part of the Great Indian Desert, the central tract is chiefly desert, not capable of cultivation, identical with the Bar or Pat uplands of the Western Punjab, and the third, a fertile alluvial tract in the river valley, is called the Sind. The ruling family claims descent from the Abbaside Khalifas of Egypt. The tribe originally came from Sind, and assumed independence during the dismemberment of the Durrani empire. On the rise of Ranjit Singh, the Nawab made several applications to the British Government for an engagement of protection. These, however, were declined, although the Treaty of Lahore in 1809, whereby Ranjit Singh was confined to the right bank of the Sutlej, in reality effected his object. The first treaty with Bahawalpur was negotiated in 1833, the year after the treaty with Ranjit Singh for regulating traffic on the Indus. It secured the independence of the Nawab within his own territories and opened up the traffic on the Indus and Sutlej. During the first Afghan War the Nawab rendered assistance to the British and was rewarded by a grant of territory and life pension. On his death the succession was disputed and for a time the State was in the hands of the British. The present Nawab is Capt H. H. Bakhsh, Dauda, Nasrat-ul-Jang, Hafiz-ul-Mulk, Nawab Sir Sadik Mohammad Khan Bahadur Ahsan V, K C V O, who was born in 1904 and succeeded in 1907. During his minority the State was managed by a Council of Regency which ceased to exist in March 1924, when H. H. the Nawab was invested with full power. His Highness is now assisted in the administration of his State by four Ministers and a Chief Minister, Major Nawab Malik Tallie Mohide Khan, O.B.E., The chief crops are wheat, rice and millet. The Lahore-Karachi branch of the North-Western State Railway passes through the State. The State supports an Imperial Service combined Mounted Rifle Infantry, in addition to other troops. The capital is Bahawalpur, a walled town built in 1748.

Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States—
Lieutenant-Colonel A. B. Minchin, O.B.E., I.A.

Chamba—This State is enclosed on the west and north by Kashmir, on the east and south by the British districts of Kangra and Gurdaspur, and it is shut in on almost every side by lofty hill ranges. The whole country is mountainous and is a favourite resort of sportsmen. It possesses a remarkable series of copper plate inscriptions from which its chronicles have been completed.

Founded probably in the sixth century by Marut, a Surajbansi Rajput, who built Brahmapura, the modern Baramaur, Chamba was extended by Meru Varma (680) and the town of Chamba built by Sahil Varma about 980. The State maintained its independence, until the Moghul conquest of India.

Under the Moghals it became tributary to the empire, but its internal administration was not interfered with, and it escaped almost unscathed from Sikh aggression. The State first came under British influence in 1846. The part, west of the Ravi, was at first handed over to Kashmir, but subsequently the boundaries of the State were fixed as they now stand, and it was declared independent of Kashmir. The present chief is H. H. Raja Ram Singh, who was born in 1891, and succeeded in 1919. The principal crops are rice, maize and millets. There are some valuable forests which were partly leased to Government in 1864 for a term of 99 years, but the management of them has now been retroceded to the Chamba Durbar. The mountain ranges are rich in minerals which are little worked. The principal road to Chamba town is from Pathankot, the terminus of the Amritsar Pathankot branch of the North-Western Railway. Chamba town, on the right bank of the Ravi, contains a number of interesting temples, of which that of Lakshmi Narayan, dating possibly from the tenth century, is the most famous.

Faridkot—The ruling family of this sandy level tract of land belongs to the Siddhu-Rajpoot clan of the Rajpoots.

the same stock as the Phulkian houses. Their occupation of Faridkot and Kot Kapura dates from the time of Akbar, though quarrels with the surrounding Sikh States and internal dissensions have greatly reduced the patrimony.

The present Ruling Prince, Farzand-i-Saadat Nihari Hazara-i-Kaimur, 15th Bar Bara Raja Har Indar Singh Bahadur was born in 1915 and succeeded his father in 1919. Under the orders of the Government of India the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration consisting of a President, Sardar Bahadur Sardar Indar Singh B.A. and four members. The State has an area of 645 square miles with a population of 150,661 and has an annual income of 18 lakhs. The Ruler is entitled to a salute of 11 guns and a visit and return visit from the Viceroy. The State Forces consist of State Sappers and Household Troop (Cavalry and Infantry).

Jind—Jind is one of the three Phulkian States (the other two being Patiala and Nabha). Its area is 1,268 square miles, with a population of 308,183 souls and an income of 25 lakhs.

The history of Jind as a separate State dates from 1763, when Raja Gajpat Singh, the maternal grand-father of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, and great grand-son of the famous Phul, established his principality. He was succeeded by Raja Bhag Singh, who greatly assisted Lord Lake in 1805. His grand-son Raja Sangat Singh was succeeded by the nearest male collateral Raja Sarup Singh in 1837. In the crisis of 1857 Raja Sarup Singh rendered valuable services to the British and was rewarded with a grant of nearly 600 square miles of land, known as Dadri territory. He was succeeded by his son Maharaja Raghubir Singh, who gave help to the British Government on the occasion of Kuka outbreak (1872) and the 2nd Afghan War (1878). The present ruler Maharaja Ranbir Singh was born in 1879, succeeded in 1887, and invested with full powers in 1899. The State rendered exemplary services in the Great European War. It supplied 8,673 men to the Indian Army and Imperial Service Troops and doubled the strength of its Imperial Service Infantry. The total contribution amounted to nearly 30 lakhs, in gifts of cash, materials, animals and loan.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 16 guns. The capital is Sangrur, which is connected by a State Railway with the North-Western Railway. The principal executive Officer of the State is called Chief Minister.

Ruler—Lieut.-Col. His Highness Farzand-i-Dilband Raakhut-i-Kaid, Daulat-i-Ingilab Raja-i-Bajjan Maharaja, Sir Ranbir Singh Bajendra Bahadur G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., etc.

Kapurthala—This State consists of three detached pieces of territory in the great plain of the Jullundur Doab. The ancestors of the ruler of Kapurthala at one time held possessions both in the Cis and Trans-Sutlej and also in the Bari Doab. In the latter lies the village of Ahlu, whence the family springs, and from which it takes the name of Ahluwalla. When the Jullundur Doab came under the dominion of the British Government in 1846, the estates north of the Sutlej were maintained in the independent possession of the Ahluwalla Raja, conditional on his paying a commutation in cash for the services rendered by which he had previously

been bound to Ranjit Singh. The Bari Doab estates are held by the head of the house as a jaghir in perpetuity, the civil and police jurisdiction remaining in the hands of the British authorities. For good services during the Mutiny, the present Maharaja's grandfather was rewarded with a grant of other States in Oudh. The present Ruler is H. H. Maharaja Sir Jagatjit Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., G.O.I.E., who was born in 1872 and succeeded in 1877. He was granted the title of Maharaja as an hereditary distinction in 1911. The rulers of Kapurthala are Sikhs and claim descent from Rana Kapur, a member of the Rajput House of Jaisalmer. Only a small proportion of the population however are Sikhs, the majority being Mahomedans. The chief crops are wheat, gram, maize, cotton and sugarcane. The town of Sultanpur in this State is famous for hand painted cloths. The main line of the North Western Railway passes through part of the State and the Grand Trunk Road runs parallel to it. A branch railway from Jullundur City to Zerosepur passes through the State. Kapurthala maintains a battalion of Imperial Service troops and a small force of local troops. The capital is Kapurthala.

Political Officer. The Agent to the Governor General, Punjab States, Lahore.

Malerkotla—This State consists of a level sandy plain unbroken by a hill or stream, bounded by the district of Ludhiana on the north, by Patiala territory on the east and south and by the Ludhiana District, Patiala and Nabha territories on the west. The Rulers (Nawabs) of Maler Kotla are of "Kurd" descent who came originally from the Province of Sherwan and settled in the town of Sherwan, north of Persia, and after settling for a time in Afghanistan, near Ghazni came to India and settled at Maler, the old capital of the State in 1442. Originally they held positions of trust under the Lodhi and Moghal Emperors. As the Moghal Empire began to sink into decay they gradually became independent. They were in constant feuds with the newly created adjacent Sikh States. After the victory of Laswari, gained by the British over Sindhu in 1803 and the subjugation and flight of Holkar in 1805, when the Nawab of Maler Kotla joined the British Army, the British Government succeeded to the power of the Mahattas in the districts between the Sutlej and the Janna. The State entered into political relations with the British Government in 1809. The present Ruler is Lt.-Col. His Highness Nawab Sir Ahmad Ali Khan, Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. who was born in 1881 and succeeded in 1908. He was created Hon'y. Major in the Indian Army in June 1916 and promoted to the rank of Lt. Col. in December 1919.

The chief products are cotton, sugar, poppy, uni-seed, mustard, ajwain, methi, tobacco, garlic, onions and all sorts of grains.

The State maintains a company of Sappers, Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery. The capital is Maler Kotla. The population of the town is 30,000 souls. Annual revenue of the State is about 18 lakhs.

Malerkotla is the premier hill-State of the Punjab lying in the upper reaches of river Beas which drains nearly all its area. It has an interesting history of considerable length which finally result-

ed in its coming under the suzerainty of the British in 1846 A.D. after the battle of Sobraon. The present minor Chief, His Highness Raja Jogendra Sen Bahadur, who is expected to come into power before a year, was installed in 1913. His Highness was married to the only daughter of His Highness the Maharaja Sahib of Kapurthala in February, 1923, and their Highnesses the Raja and Rani were blessed by the birth of an heir apparent in December of the same year. The administration is carried on by Pandit Maharaaj Kishan, M.B.E., the Superintendent. The principal crops are rice, maize, wheat and millet. About three fifths of the State are occupied by forests and grazing lands. It is rich in minerals. The capital is Mandi, founded in 1527 which contains several temples and other buildings of interest and is one of the chief marts for commerce with Ladakh and Yarkand.

Nabha—Nabha which became a separate State in 1768 is one of the 3 Phulkian States—Nabha, Patiala and Jind, and though second in point of population and revenue of the 3 sister States, it claims seniority being descended from the eldest branch. It consists of two distinct parts, the main portion comprising 12 separate pieces of territory scattered among the other Punjab States and Districts, forms the City of Nabha and the *Nizamats* of Phul and Amloh, the second portion forms the *Nizammat* of Bawal in the extreme south-east of the Punjab on the border of Rajputana; this Nizammat of Bawal was subsequently added to its territory as a reward from the British Government for the loyalty of the Ruler of Nabha. The State now covers an area of about 1,000 square miles and has a population of about 3 lakhs. The State supports one battalion of Imperial Service Infantry consisting of about 500 men for the preservation of the peace there is a Police force consisting of about 500 men.

The State is traversed by the main and 3 branch lines of the N.W. Railway and the B.E. & C.I. crosses the *Nizammat* of Bawal. A large portion of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind Canal. The crops of the State are gram, pulses, bajra, sugarcane, cotton, wheat and barley, to facilitate trade the Darbar has opened grain markets and Banks near the principal railway station within the State territory. The chief industries of the State consist of the manufacture of silver and gold ornaments, brass utensils, and cotton carpets lace and *gota*, etc. There are some ginning factories and a cotton steam press in the State which are working successfully. In 1922 an inquiry was held into certain matters in dispute between the Patiala and the Nabha Durhars which showed that the Nabha Police had fabricated cases against persons connected with the Patiala State with the object of injuring them through the Patiala Durbar. The Maharaja of Nabha who was born in 1883 and succeeded his father in 1911 abdicated in favour of his son who is a minor as the result of this affair and the administration of the State has been handed over to the Government of India.

Patiala—This is the largest of the Phulkian States, and the premier State in the Punjab. Its territory is scattered and interspersed with small states and even single villages belonging to other States and British districts. It also

comprises a portion of the Simla Hills and territory on the border of Jaipur and Alwar States. Area 5,982 square miles. Population 1,499,739. Gross income Rs. one crore and thirty-five lakhs. Its history as a separate State begins in 1762. The present Ruler, Major General His Highness Feroz Shah I. Khan Bahadur, Maharaja of Nabha, was born in 1861 and succeeded in 1900, and assumed the reins of Government in 1909 on attaining majority. His Highness the Maharaja Dhiraj enjoys at present personal salute of 19 guns and he and his successors the distinction of exemption from presenting Nazar to the Viceroy in Durbar in perpetuity. The principal crops are grain, barley, wheat, sugar-cane, rapeseed, cotton and tobacco. A great part of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind and Western Jumna Canal distributaries. It possesses valuable forests. The State is rich in antiquities, especially at Pinjaur, Sunam, Sirhind, Bhatinda, Narnaul, etc. Besides possessing a Railway line of its own, known as Rajpura-Bhatinda Railway of 108 miles in length, the North Western Railway, the E.I. Railway, the B.E. & C.I. Railway and the J.B. Railway traverse the State. His Highness maintains a contingent of two regiments of cavalry and four battalions of infantry—one battery of Horse Artillery.

Since the State has entered into alliance with the British Government in 1809, it has rendered help to the British Government on critical occasions such as Gurkha War, Sikh War, Mutiny of 1857, Afghan War of 1878-79, T. and N.W.F. campaign of 1897.

On the outbreak of the European War His Highness placed the entire resources of his State at the disposal of His Majesty the King Emperor and offered his services. The entire Imperial Service contingent was on active service throughout the period of the War and served on various fronts in Egypt, Gallipoli, Mesopotamia and Palestine, winning numerous decorations. Two mule and one camel corps were raised and placed at the service of the Government for the period of the War. In addition to furnishing nearly 28,000 men to the British Indian Army and making the State Imperial Service Contingent strength, contributed substantial arms and material.

His Highness was selected by the Viceroy to represent the Kingdom of India at the Imperial War Conference, his stay in Europe His Highness received the different and principal awards of France, Italy and Egypt (B.E. Cordon of the following decorations: (a) Cross of Sovereigns and Government (c) Grand of the Order de Leopold (d) Grand of the Legion of Honour (e) Grand Cross of the Order of the Broomstick (f) Grand Cross of the Order of the Holy Sepulchre. Again in 1919 on the General Officer with Afghanistan His Service Contingent on the frontier on the Commanding, and

gent was on active service towards Kohat and Quetta fronts. For his services on the N W Frontier His Highness was mentioned in despatches.

Sargur (Nahan)—This is a hilly State in the Himalayas under the Political control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore. Its history is said to date from the 11th century. In the eighteenth century the State was able to repulse the Gurkha invasion, but the Gurkhas were invited to aid in the suppression of an internal revolt in the State and they in turn had to be evicted by the British. In 1857 the Raja rendered valuable services to the British, and during the second Afghan War he sent a contingent to the North-West Frontier. The

present Chief is Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Amar Prakash Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., who was born in 1887 and succeeded in 1911. The main agricultural feature of the State is the recent development of the Kharla Dun, a fertile level plain which produces wheat, gram, rice, maize and other crops. The State forests are valuable and there is an iron foundry at Nahan which was started in 1867 but, being unable to compete with the imported iron, is now used for the manufacture of sugarcane crushing mills. The State supports a Corps of Sappers and Miners which served in the Great War. It was captured with General Townshend's force at Kul-al-Amara but the Corps has since been reconstituted and has again gone on service.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA.

The States under this Government comprise the Shan States which are included in British India though they do not form part of Burma proper and are not comprised in the regularly administered area of the Province and the Karenni States which are not part of British India and are not subject to any of the laws in force in the Shan States or other parts of Burma.

The Shan States comprise the two isolated States of Hsawngshup and Singaling Hkamti in the Upper Chindwin District under the supervision of the Commissioner, North West Border Division, the eight petty village communities under separate hereditary Chiefs known as Hkamti Long in the Putao District and the two main divisions of the Shan States known as the Northern and Southern Shan States numbering six and thirty five States respectively which with the Hkamti Long States have been included in the North East Frontier Division.

Hsawngshup with an area of 790 square miles and a population of 7,046 lies between the 24 and 25 parallels of latitude and on the 95 parallel of longitude between the Chindwin river and the State of Manipur.

Singaling Hkamti has an area of 2,000 square miles and a population of 2,287 and lies on the 24th and 26th parallels of latitude and longitude respectively.

The Hkamti Long States have an area of 200 square miles with a population of 6,520 and lie between the 27th and 28th parallels of latitude on the Upper Waters of the N'Mai branch of the Irrawaddy.

The Northern Shan States (area 20,156 square miles and population 592,813) and the Southern Shan States (area 26,157 square miles and population 847,618), form with the unadministered Wa States (area about 2,000 square miles) and the Karenni States, a huge triangle lying roughly between the 19th and 24th parallels of latitude and the 96th and 102nd parallels of longitude with its base on the plains of Burma and its apex on the Mekong river.

The population consists chiefly of Shans who belong to the Shan group of the Tai Chinese family, the remainder belong chiefly to the Wa-palaung and Mon Khmer groups of races of the Austro-Asiatic branch of the Austro family, or to the Karen family which Sir George Grierson now proposes to separate from the Tai Chinese family. There are also a number of Kachins and others of the Tibeto-Burman

family. The Shans themselves shade off imperceptibly into a markedly Chinese race on the frontier. Buddhism and Animism are the principal religions.

The climate over so large an area varies greatly. In the narrow lowlying valleys the heat in summer is excessive. Elsewhere the summer shade temperature is usually 80 to 95 Fahr. In winter frost is severe on the paddy plains and open downs but the temperature on the hills is more equable. The rainfall varies from 50 to 100 inches in different localities.

The agricultural products of the States are rice, pulses, maize, buckwheat, cotton, sesamum, groundnuts, oranges and pineapples.

Land is held chiefly on communal tenure but unoccupied land is easily obtainable on lease from the Chiefs in accordance with special rules for non natives of the States. Great spaces of the States are suitable for cattle, pony and mule breeding and in the Northern States Chinese settlers appear to have found the latter a very paying proposition.

The mineral resources of the States are still unexplored. The Burma Corporation have a concession for silver and lead in the Northern States which they claim to be the richest in the world. The Mawson area in the Southern States is also rich in lead. Lignite and iron ore of a low grade are found in many places.

Lashio, the headquarters of the Northern Shan States District, is the terminus of the Mying-sung Lashio Branch of the Burma Railways (178 miles) and is also connected with Mandalay by a cart road.

The Burma Corporation's narrow gauge private railway track 46 miles long connects their Bawdwin mine with the Burma Railways system at Nanyao.

The Southern Shan States are served by the Burma Railways branch line Thazi to Heho (87 miles) which it is proposed to extend shortly to Tayaw in the Yawngwe plain.

Taunggyi, the headquarters of the Southern Shan States, is connected with Thazi by a well-graded motor road. The States vary much in size and importance. The largest State is Kengtung with an area of 12,400 square miles and population 208,755. The smallest State is Nantok with an area of 14 square miles and population 830.

Hsaw with an area of 4,400 square miles and population 131,410 is the richest State with a gross revenue of Rs. 6,95,308.

The Sawbwas of Kengtung, Hsipaw and Yawnghwe and Mongnai have salutes of nine guns while the Tawngpeng Sawbwa has a personal salute of the same number

Administration

Under the Burma Laws Act, 1898, the Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration of every Shan State is vested in the Chief of the State subject to the restrictions specified in the sanad of appointment granted to him and under the same Act the law to be administered in each State is the customary law of the State so far as it is in accordance with justice, equity and good conscience and not opposed to the law in force in the rest of British India. The customary law may be modified by the Governor who has also power to appoint officers to take part in the administration of any State and to regulate the powers and proceedings of such officers. The Chiefs are bound by their sanads to follow the advice of the Superintendents appointed but subject to certain modifications which have been made in the customary law relating to criminal and civil justice have more or less maintained the semi independent status which was found existing at the annexation of Upper Burma.

In 1920, Sir Reginald Craddock, Lieutenant-Governor of Burma, proposed a scheme for the sanction of the Secretary of State under which the Chiefs of the Northern and Southern Shan States have agreed to federalise the departments of Government in which they had been previously largely dependent on contributions from the Provincial Funds. Under this scheme no interference is contemplated in the internal management of the States and the Chiefs continue to collect their taxes and be responsible for law and order, maintain Courts for the disposal of criminal and civil cases, appoint their own officials and control their own subjects under the advice of the Superintendents. But the Federation is responsible for the centralised Departments of Public Works, Medical, Forests, Education, Agriculture and to a small extent Police. In place of the individual tribute formerly paid by them the Chiefs contribute to the Federation a proportion of their revenue which amounts roughly to the expenditure hitherto incurred by them on the heads of administration now centralised while the Provincial Government surrenders to the Federation all provincial revenue previously derived from the States and makes an annual contribution to enable it to maintain its

services at the same degree of efficiency formerly enjoyed. The Federation on the other hand pays a fixed proportion of its revenue to the Provincial Treasury as tribute in place of the individual contributions of the Chiefs. Under this scheme the Federation is a sub entity of the Burma Government, is self-contained and responsible for its own progress. The Chiefs express their views on Federal and general matters through a Council of Chiefs consisting of all Chiefs of the rank of Sawbwa and four elected representatives of the lesser Chiefs. The Superintendents and the Commissioner of the North-East Frontier Division to whom the supervision of the Federation has been entrusted are ex-officio members of the Council. The scheme was sanctioned and brought into force with effect from October 1922. The first meeting of the Council of Chiefs was formally opened by His Excellency the Governor Sir Spencer Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.C.S., in March 1923.

Karenni

This district which formerly consisted of five States now consists of three as two have been amalgamated with others. It has a total area of 4,280 square miles and a population of 65,560. It lies on the south of the Southern Shan States between Siam and the British district of Tongoo. The largest State is Kantarawadi with an area of 3,000 square miles and a population of 36,630 and a revenue of nearly 14 lakhs of rupees. More than half of the inhabitants are Red Karens. An Assistant Political Officer is posted at Loikaw subject to the supervision of the Superintendent, Southern Shan States, who exercises in practice much the same control over the Chiefs as is exercised in the Shan States though nominally they are more independent than their Shan neighbours. Mineral and forest rights however in Karenni, belong to the Chiefs and not to the Government. In the past substantial contributions from Provincial revenues have been made to the Karenni Chiefs for education and medical services. The Chiefs are at present unwilling to surrender their special rights and join the Shan States Federation though very considerable advantages might accrue from their doing so. The principal wealth of the country used to be in its teak timber and a large alien population was at one time supported by the timber trade. This has largely declined in the last few years and unless the Chiefs are prepared to deny themselves and close their forests they will soon disappear.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF ASSAM.

Manipur—The only State of importance, under the Government of Assam is Manipur which has an area of 8,456 square miles and a population of 3,31,018 (1921 Census), of which about 80 per cent are Hindus and 31 per cent animistic hill tribes. Manipur consists of a great tract of mountainous country, and a valley about 50 miles long and 20 miles wide, which is shut in on every side. The State adopted Hinduism in the early eighteenth century, in the reign of Pamheiba or Garhbar Nawas, who subsequently made several invasions into Burma. On the Burmese retreating, Manipur negotiated a treaty of alliance with the British in 1782. The Burmese again invaded Manipur

during the first Burmese war, and on the conclusion of peace in 1826 Manipur was declared independent. The chief event in its subsequent history was the intervention of the British in 1891 to establish the claim of Kula Chandra Singh as Maharaja followed by the treacherous murder of the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quinton, and the officers with him, and the withdrawal of the escort which accompanied him. From 1891 to 1907 the State was administered by the Political Agent, during the minority of H. H. Chura Chand Singh. The Raja was invested with ruling powers in 1907 and formally installed on the gadai in 1908. For his services during the War the hereditary title of Maharaja was

conferred on him. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

The administration of the State is now conducted by H. H. the Maharaja, assisted by a Darbar, which consists of a President, who is a member of the Indian Civil Service, his services being lent to the State by the Assam Government, three ordinary and three additional members, who are all Manipuris. The staple crop of the country is rice. Forests of various kinds cover the great part of the mountain ranges.

Khasi and Jaintia Hills—These petty chiefships, 25 in number with a total area of about 3,900 square miles and a population of 198,000, are included under the Government of Assam. Most of the States have treaties or engagement with the British Government. The largest of them is Khyrim, the smallest

is Nonglwal, which has a population of 246. Most of them are ruled by a Chief or Siem. The Siemship usually remains in one family. The succession was originally controlled by a small electoral body constituted from the heads of certain clans but in recent years there has been a tendency to broaden the elective basis. The constitution of a Khasi State has always been of a very democratic character, a Siem exercising but little control over his people. Among many of the north-east frontier tribes there is little security of life and property, and the people are compelled to live in large villages on sites selected for their defensive capabilities. The Khasis seem, however, to have been less distracted by internal warfare, and the villages, as a rule, are small.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

The Central Provinces include fifteen feudatory States subordinate to the Government with an area of 31,176 square miles and a population of 2,066,900. One of the States, Makra, lies within Hoshangabad District, the remainder are situated in the Chhattisgarh Division, to the different districts of which they were formerly attached. Their relations with Government are controlled by a Political Agent. The States vary greatly in size and importance. Saktil, the smallest, having an area of 188 square miles and Bastar, the largest, an area of 13,062 square miles. They are administered by hereditary chiefs, who hold on conditions of loyalty and good government set forth in patents and acknowledgments of fealty, but are nominally free from direct interference save in the case of sentences of death, which require His Excellency the Governor's confirmation. But, as a fact, the Government has exercised a very large amount of control, owing mainly to the frequency with which the States have been taken under direct management, because of either the minority or the misconduct of the chief.

The States pay a tribute to Government which amounts in the aggregate to about 2½ lakhs.

Statistics relating to the chief States are contained in the following table—

State	Area	Population 1921	Revenue (approximate) in Lakhs
	Sq. Miles.		
Bastar	13,062	464,407	6
Jashpur	1,968	164,166	2
Kanker	1,481	124,928	3
Khatrasgarh	981	124,008	5
Nandgaon	871	147,906	10
Raigarh	1,468	241,634	5
Sirguja	6,056	377,679	3
Eight other States	5,377	482,182	10
Total	31,176	2,066,900	44

Bastar—This State, which lies to the south-east corner of the Provinces, is the most

13,062 square miles and a population of 433,810. The family of the Raja is very ancient, and is stated to belong to the Rajputs of the Lunar race. Up to the time of the Marathas, Bastar occupied an almost independent position, but a tribute was imposed on it by the Nagpur government in the eighteenth century. At this period the constant feuds between Bastar and the neighbouring State of Jeypore in Madras kept the country for many years in a state of anarchy. The chief object of contention was the Kotpad tract, which had originally belonged to Bastar, but had been ceded in return for assistance given by Jeypore to one of the Bastar chiefs during some family dissensions. The Central Provinces Administration finally made this over to Jeypore in 1863 on condition of payment of tribute of Rs 3,000, two thirds of which sum was remitted from the amount payable by Bastar. By virtue of this arrangement the tribute of Bastar was, until recently, reduced to a nominal amount. The cultivation of the State is extremely sparse. Rice is the most important crop. The State is under Government Management. The Superintendent of the State (Mr W. A. Turner, J. P.) is an extra Assistant Commissioner of the Central Provinces on deputation who has two Assistants under him. After a recent period of disturbance the State has returned to complete tranquillity and precautions are being taken to remove all causes of unrest by better supervision over the minor State officials and a very considerate forest policy. The chief town is Jagdalpur on the Indravati River. The famous falls on the Indravati called the Chitrakote are 23 miles away from Jagdalpur.

Sirguja—Until 1905 this was included in Chota Nagpur State of Bengal. The most important feature is the Manipat, a magnificent tableland forming the southern barrier of the State. The early history of Sirguja is obscure, but according to a local tradition in Palamau, the present ruling family is said to be descended from a Rakkal Raja of Palamau. In 1758 a Maratha army overran the State, and compelled its chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Bhonsla Raja. At the end of the eighteenth century, in consequence of the Chief having aided a rebellion in Palamau against the British, an expedition entered Sirguja, and, though order was temporarily restored, disputes again broke out

between the Chief and his relations, necessitating British interference. Until 1818 the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness, but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhoji

Bhonsla of Berar, and order was soon established. The principal crops are rice and other cereals. The present Chief of the State is Maharaja Ramannj Saran Singh Deo, C.B.M., who succeeded to the *padshahi* in 1918 and enjoys full powers of a Ruling Chief.

KASHMIR.

Kashmir (known to Indians as Jammu) lies to the east of the Indus and to the west of the Bavi. It is a mountainous country with just a strip of level land along the Punjab frontier, and intersected by valleys of which many are of surpassing beauty and grandeur. It may be divided physically into two areas: the north-eastern comprising the area drained by the Indus with its tributaries, and the south-western, including the country drained by the Jhelum, the Kishanganga and the Chenab. The dividing line between these two areas is the great central mountain range. The area of the State is 84,432 square miles, and the population 3,158,128.

History.—Various poets have left more or less trustworthy records of the history of the valley down to 1586, when it was conquered by Akbar. Srinagar, the capital, had by then been long established, though many of the fine buildings erected by early Hindu rulers had been destroyed by the Mahomedan kings who first appeared in the 12th century. In the reign of Sikandar the population became almost entirely Mahomedan. Akbar visited the valley three times. Jehangir did much to beautify it, but after Aurangzeb there was a period of disorder and decay, and by the middle of the eighteenth century the *Subah* of Kashmir was practically independent of Delhi. Thereafter it experienced the oppression of Afghan rule until it was rescued, in 1819, by an army sent by Ranjit Singh. Sikh rule was less oppressive than that of the Afghans. The history of the State as at present constituted is practically that of one man, a Dogra Rajput, Gulab Singh of Jammu. For his services to the Sikhs this remarkable man had been made Raja of Jammu in 1820, and he added largely to his territory by conquest. He held aloof from the war between the British and the Sikhs, only appearing as mediator after the battle of Sobraon (1846) when the British made over to him for Rs. 75 lakhs the present territories of the State. He had to fight for the valley and subsequently lost part of his State, Gilgit, over which the successors had at a heavy cost to reassert their claims. His son Ranbir Singh, a model Hindu, ruled from 1857 to 1885, when he was succeeded by his eldest son Major General H. H. Maharaja Sir Partab Singh, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., LL.D., &c.

Administration.—For some years the administration of the State was conducted by a Council over which the Maharaja presided. In 1905 enhanced ruling powers were granted to His Highness, the State Council being abolished. Recently His Highness has been invested with full powers of administration and authority enjoyed by his ancestors. Under the new constitution an Executive Council has been established to assist His Highness in the administration of the State. The Council is presided over by His Highness and consists of 4 members, the portfolio of the Senior and Foreign Member being held by General Raja Sir Harsingh, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., who is also in

charge of the Military affairs as Commander-in-Chief of the State Army. The British Resident has his headquarters at Srinagar, there is also a Political Agent at Gilgit responsible to the Government of India for the administration of the outlying petty States, and a British Officer is stationed at Leh to assist in the supervision of Central Asian trade. In the Dogras the State has splendid materials for an Army which consists of 9,610 troops, of whom 6,298 are maintained as Imperial Service troops.

Finance.—The financial position of the State is strong, and it has more than 46 lakhs invested in Government of India securities. The total revenue last year was 93 lakhs, the chief items being land revenue, forests, customs and opium.

Production and Industry.—The population is pre-eminently agricultural and pastoral. The system of land tenure has been described as "ryotwari in ruins," great complexity existing owing to the fact that there is no local law of rent and revenue. The principal food crop is rice, maize, cotton, saffron, tobacco, hops (autumn crops) and wheat, barley, poppy, beans (spring crops) are also grown. Sheep are largely kept. The State forests are extensive and valuable. A survey of the mineral resources of the State is being conducted under an expert. Vast fields of friable, dusty coal have been found. Gold has been found at Gulmarg, Sapphires in Padar, Aquamarine in Skardu and lead in Uri. The industries of manufacture are chiefly connected with sericulture (the silk filature at Srinagar the largest in the world, was destroyed by fire in July 1912), and oil pressing. The woollen cloth shawls, and wood carving of the State are famous.

Communications.—Great efforts have been made and are being made towards the improvement of wheeled traffic in the Kashmir State. The Jhelum Valley Road (196 miles) which links the Kashmir Valley with the Punjab and the North Western Province is used by wheeled traffic of sorts, viz., Ekkas, Tongas, Carts, Motor Cans and Motor Lorries. The Banihal Cart Road (nearly as long as the Jhelum Valley Road) which is nearing completion, will soon join Kashmir with the Jammu Tawi Railway Station. Roads fit for pack-animals lead from Srinagar, the summer Capital of Kashmir to the frontier districts of Gilgit and Leh. Internal village communications have also been much improved.

Public Works.—In 1904, a flood spill channel above Srinagar was constructed with a view to minimising the constant risk of floods, and it was hoped that the danger would be still further reduced by the carrying out of a scheme for lowering a part of the bed of the Jhelum, which has since been taken in hand. Good progress has been made with irrigation, but the most important schemes of recent years have been those for an electrical power station on the Jhelum River and for a Railway into Kashmir. It was proposed to supply from this

power station electrical energy for various State schemes (including the Jhelum dredging scheme) and for private enterprise and possibly for working the proposed Kashmir Railway. The works were completed about 1907, and the scheme according to the latest report is working very satisfactorily. The proposal for a railway to Kashmir had been held in abeyance for the present.

Education—In education Kashmir is still backward. In the State as a whole only 2 in every 100 persons can read and write. The number of educational institutions including two Colleges is 726.

Resident—Sir J. B. Wood, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., C.S.I.

Political Agent at Gilgit—Major D. L. B. Lorimer, C.I.E.

THE CHAMBER OF PRINCES

The Report on Indian constitutional reforms by Mr. Montagu and Lord Chelmsford stated that it was desired to call into existence a permanent consultative body which would replace the conference of Princes which had periodically met at the invitation of the Viceroy. After pointing out the need for regular meetings of the Council the Report said—'We content plate that the Viceroy should be **president**, and should as a rule preside, but that in his absence one of the Princes should be chairman. The rules of business would be framed by the Viceroy after consultation with the Princes, who might from time to time suggest modifications in the rules.'

It was further suggested in the joint report that the Council of Princes should be invited annually to appoint a small **standing committee**, to which the Viceroy or the Political Department might refer decisions affecting the Native States, particularly questions dealing with custom or usage. The Joint Report also made recommendations for the appointment of commissions to inquire into disputes in which Native States might be concerned and into cases of misconduct, and for arranging for joint deliberation on matters of common interest between the Council of State and the Council of Princes.

At the end of January 1919 a Conference of the Ruling Princes was held at Delhi, to consider this scheme. The subject which gave rise to the longest discussion was the proposal in the Reform Scheme to divide the Native States into two categories, those possessing 'full powers' of Internal Government and those not having such powers. Some of the Princes held that membership of the Council of Princes should be limited to the rulers enjoying full powers, whilst others considered that some measure of representation ought to be given to the smaller States, and the Conference came to no agreement on the matter. The proposal to institute a Council of Princes received, however, general support, and it was suggested that the new House should be called the **Narendra Mandal** (House of Princes).

The recommendations of the Conference were then placed before the Secretary of State, and in the next Conference held in November 1919 Lord Chelmsford propounded a general scheme for a Chamber of Princes approved by His Majesty's Government. The Conference after debating the question passed a resolution warmly accepting the scheme and expressing an earnest hope that the Chamber might be brought into existence during the ensuing year. On the occasion of the formal inauguration of the Chamber of Princes Lord Chelmsford, describing how he enlisted the advice and criticism of the Codification Committee of Princes which had been appointed by the Conference and how

with their assistance the drafts of the Constitution of the Chamber with the first Regulations and Rules of Business, and the draft resolution concerning Courts of Arbitration and Commissions of Enquiry were moulded into practical shape, explained that difficulties had arisen in the selection of a suitable Indian designation for the Chamber which would for the present be known by the English title of the Chamber of Princes. He also said that another point on which the published constitution differed from the wording favoured by the Committee of Princes was the absolute prohibition of the discussion in the Chamber of the internal affairs of individual States and the actions of individual Rulers. The main function of the Chamber was to discuss matters affecting the States generally or of common concern to the States and to British India or the Empire at large. As regards the question of direct relations between the Government of India and the important States, a recommendation had been made to the Secretary of State for the transfer of the more important States in the Bombay Presidency, according to a scheme prepared by a special Committee, to be carried into effect at some future date when the conditions appear to be favourable. A scheme would also shortly be placed before His Majesty's Government for the bringing of the important States of the Punjab into direct relations with the Government of India as soon as the necessary arrangements could be made. Gwalior State would soon be brought into direct touch with the Central Government through a Resident who would be independent of the Central India Agency and some of the Rajputana States, which were formerly in relations with a Local Resident, were now in direct relations with the Agent to the Governor General in Rajputana.

The Chamber was formally inaugurated by the Duke of Connaught on February 8th, 1921, and has quickly developed a vigorous life. Its Presidential duties are entrusted to an elected Chancellor, now H. H. the Maharajah of Bikaner and its detailed business is attended to by an elected Standing Committee of six members. It meets twice or thrice a year at the headquarters of the Government of India and one of its most important functions is to discuss with the various Departments of that Government matters in which the Administrations of both the States and British India are concerned. Important questions of this class which have recently received attention are the division of revenue from Customs and Posts and Telegraphs and the control of the Police on railway lines running for considerable distances through State territory. The Committee reports to the Chamber, which meets annually. The number of Princes who attended the last meeting was between forty and fifty. Its proceedings have hitherto always been conducted in private.

Indian States' Tribute.

Many of the States pay tribute, varying in amount according to the circumstances of each case, to the British Government. This tribute is frequently due to exchanges of territory or settlement of claims between the Governments but is chiefly in lieu of former obligations to supply or maintain troops. The actual annual receipts in the form of tribute and contributions from Indian States are summarised in the following table. The relations of the States to one another in respect of tributes are complicated, and it would serve no useful purpose to enter upon the question. It may, however, be mentioned that a large number of the States of Kathiawar and Gujarat pay tribute of some kind to Baroda, and that Gwalior claims tribute from some of the smaller States of Central India. —

States paying tribute directly to the Government of India

	£
Tribute from Jaipur	22,667
" " Kotah	18,648
" " Udulpur	13,333
" " Jodhpur	6,533
" " Bundi	8,000
" " Other States	15,170
Contribution of Jodhpur towards cost of Krimpura Irregular Force	7,667
" of Kotah towards cost of Deohi Irregular Force	13,333
" of Bhopal towards cost of Bhopal Levy	10,738
" of Jaora towards cost of United Malwa Contingent	9,142
Contributions towards cost of Malwa Bhil Corps	2,280
<i>Central Provinces and Berar</i>	
Tribute from various States	15,696
<i>Burma</i>	
Tribute from Shan States	28,524
" " other States	1,367
<i>Assam</i>	
Tribute from Manipur	333
" " Bamraiz	7
<i>Bengal</i>	
Tribute from Cooch Behar	4,514
<i>United Provinces</i>	
Tribute from Benares	14,600
" " Kapurthala (Bahraich)	8,738
<i>Punjab</i>	
Tribute from Jalandhar	6,667
" " other States	3,086
<i>Madras</i>	
Tribute from Travancore	53,333
Peshkash and Chattri from Mysore	233,333
" " " Cochin	13,333
" " " Travancore	888
<i>Bombay</i>	
Tribute from Barwar	31,120
" " petty States	2,325
Contribution from Baroda States	25,000
" " Giridars, Southern Maharatta Country	5,765
Tribute from	5,424

It was decided at the Coronation Durbar of 1911 that there would in future be no Maharajah payments.

Foreign Possessions in India.

Portugal and France both hold small territorial possessions in the Indian Peninsula.

The Portuguese possessions in India consist of the province of Goa, situated within the limits of the Bombay Presidency, on the Arabian Sea Coast, the territory of Daman

with the small territory called Pargana Nagar Avelly on the Gujarat Coast, at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, and the little island of Diu, with two places called Gogla and Simbor, on the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula. All these three territories constitute what is called the State of India.

GOA.

Goa forms a compact block of territory surrounded by British districts. Savantwadi State lies to the north of it the Arabian Sea on the west and North Kanara on the south, and the eastern boundary is the range of the Western Ghats, which separates it from the British districts of Belgaum and North Kanara. The extreme length from north to south is 62 miles and the greatest breadth from east to west 40 miles. The territory has a total area of 1,301 square miles and consists of the *Velhas Conquistas*, or Old Conquests, comprising the island of Goa, acquired by the Portuguese in 1510, and the neighbouring municipalities of Salsette, Bardes, and Mormugao acquired in 1543, and of the *Novas Conquistas*, or New Conquests, comprising the municipalities of Pernem, Sanquelim, Ponda, Quepem, Canacona, Satali and Sangem acquired in the latter half of the 18th century. The small island of Angediva situated opposite the port of Karwar, in the British district of North Kanara, forms administratively a portion of the Canacona municipality. This was acquired in 1505. The whole country is hilly especially the eastern portion, the predominating physical feature being the Western Ghats, which besides bounding the country along the north-east and south-east, jut off westward and spread across the country in a succession of spurs and ridges. There are several conspicuous isolated peaks, of which the highest, Sonsagar, is 3,827 feet high.

The country is intersected by numerous rivers running westward from the Ghats, and the principal eight, which are all navigable, are in size of some importance. Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bardes and Salsette. Half way between these extremities lies the *cabo*, or cape, which forms the extremity of the island of Goa. This divides the whole bay into two anchorages, known as Aguada and Mormugao. Both are capable of accommodating the largest shipping from September to May, but Aguada is virtually closed during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and sea and to the formation of sand bars across the estuary of the Mandovi river, which opens into Aguada. Mormugao is accessible at all times and is therefore the harbour of commercial importance. It is the terminus of the railway running to the coast from the inland British system of lines. A breakwater and port have been built there and the trade is considerable being chiefly transit trade from British territory. The international transit of Mormugao port, in 1923, was Rs. 2,98,95,280.

The People.

The total population in the whole Goa territory was 5,08,058 at the census of 1921 (subject to correction as the census works are in continuous

tion). This gives a density of 343 persons to the square mile and the population showed an increase of 6 per cent since the census ten years previously. In the *Velhas Conquistas* the majority of the population is Christian. In the *Novas Conquistas* Hindus are more numerous than Christians. The Moslems in the territory are numbered in a few thousands. The Christians still very largely adhere to caste distinctions, claiming to be Brahmans, Charados and low castes, which do not intermarry. The Hindus are largely Maratha and do not differ from those of the adjacent Konkani districts of Bombay. All classes of the people with the exception of Europeans, use the Konkani dialect of *Maghi* with some admixture of Portuguese words. The official language is Portuguese, which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns as well as by all educated people. Nearly all the Christians profess the Roman Catholic religion and are spiritually subject to an archbishop who has the titles of Primate of the East and Patriarch of the East Indies and exercises ecclesiastical jurisdiction also over a great part of British India and the provinces of Szechuan (China) and Timor (Oceania), with missions in foreign countries and Mozambique, Portuguese East Africa. Properly in the history of the Portuguese India, there are the *thelocenes* of Goa (Archdiocese) and Daman, but these spread out of the territory. (The districts of Daman and Diu are subject to a Bishop who bears the titles of Bishop of Daman and Archbishop of Cranganore). There are numerous churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The churches are in charge of secular priests. Hindus and Mahomedans now enjoy perfect freedom in religious matters and have their places of worship. In the early days Portuguese rule the worship of Hindu gods and the observance of Hindu usages were strictly forbidden and rigorously suppressed.

The Country

One-third of the entire territory is stated to be under cultivation. The quality of the soil varies considerably according to quality, situation and water supply. The *Velhas Conquistas* are as a rule better cultivated than the *Novas Conquistas*. In both divisions a holding of fifteen or sixteen acres could be considered a good sized farm, and the majority of holdings are of smaller extent. The staple produce of the country is rice, of which there are two good harvests, but the quantity produced is barely sufficient to meet the needs of the population for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of coconut palm is deemed most important, from the variety of uses to which the products are applied. *Billy* and inferior

soils are set apart for the cultivation of cereals and several kinds of fruits and vegetables are cultivated to an important extent. The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has improved during recent years owing to the general rise in the prices of all classes of agricultural produce and partly to the current of emigration to British territory. Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. They cover an area of 116 square miles and are under conservation and yield some profit to the administration. Iron is found in parts of the territory, but has not been seriously worked. Manganese also exists and was worked to an important extent a few years ago.

Commerce

In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepot of commerce between East and West and was specially famous for its trade in horses with the Persian Gulf. It lost its commercial importance with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire and its trade is now insignificant.

The commercial movement in 1923 has been as below —

	Rs
Imports	1,64,23,900
Exports	39 89 171
Re-exports	4,11 492
Transit	2,98,95 280
Total	Rs 5,06,69,843

Few manufacturing industries of any moment exist and most manufactured articles in use are imported. Exports chiefly consist of cocoa, betel nuts, mangoes and other fruits and produce. A line of railway connects Mormugao with the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Its length from Mormugao to Castle Rock, above the Ghats, where it joins the railway system, is 51 miles, of which 49 are in Portuguese territory. The railway is under the management of the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway administration, and the bulk of the trade of Mormugao port is what it brings from and takes to the interior. The telegraphs in Goa territory are worked as part of the system of British India, and are maintained jointly by the British and Portuguese Governments. The Goa territory was formerly subject to devastating famines and the people now suffer because in times of drought. They are supplied, though at great cost, with rice from British territory.

The Capital

Nova, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends Panjim and Ribandar, as well as the old city of Goa, and is six miles in extent. Old Goa is some five miles distant from the new city. Panjim occupies a narrow strip of land leading up to the Cabo, the cape dividing the Agada bay from that of Mormugao, and mainly slopes down to the edge of the Agada. It was selected as the residence of the Viceroy in 1759, and in 1843 it was raised to its present rank as the capital

of Portuguese India. The appearance of the city, with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences, as seen from the water is very picturesque and this impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads, bordered by decent, tidy houses. The most imposing public structures are the barracks, an immense quadrangular building the eastern wing of which accommodates the Lycæum, the Public Library and the Government Press. Other noticeable buildings are the Cathedral and various churches, the viceregal palace, the High Court and so on. The square in the lower part of the town is adorned with a life-sized statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy.

History

Goa was captured for the Portuguese by Alfonso de Albuquerque in 1510. Albuquerque promptly fortified the place and established Portuguese rule on a firm basis. From this time Goa rapidly rose in importance and became the metropolis of Portuguese power in the East. There was constant fighting with the armies of the Bijapur kingdom, but the Portuguese held their own and gained the surrounding territory now known as the Velhas Conquistas.

The subsequent history of the town is one of ostentation and decay. Goa reached its summit of prosperity at the end of the sixteenth century. The accounts of travellers show that the Goa of those days presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical and commercial magnificence which has had no parallel in the British capitals of India. But the Portuguese based their dominion in India on conquest by the sword and they laboured to consolidate it by a proselytising organisation which throws the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. Old Goa, as the ruins of the old capital are called to-day, had a hundred churches, many of them of magnificent proportions, and the Inquisition which was a power in the land. The result showed how rotten was this basis and how feebly cemented the superstructure reared upon it.

Modern Times.

There was frequently recurring fighting and in 1741 the Marathas invaded the neighbourhood of Goa and threatened the city itself. An army of 12,000 men arrived from Portugal at the critical moment. The invaders were beaten off, and the Novas Conquistas were added to the Portuguese possessions. In 1844 the shelter given by Goa to fugitives from justice in British territory threatened to bring about a rupture with the British Government at Bombay. In 1852 the Ranes of Satari, in the Novas Conquistas, revolted. In 1871 the native army in Goa mutinied and the King's own brother came from Lisbon to deal with the trouble and having done so disbanded the native army, which has never been reconstituted. But another outbreak among the troops took place in 1896 and the Ranes joining them the trouble was again not quieted until the arrival of another special expedition.

Portuguese Possessions.

from Lisbon. The Banes again broke out in 1901 and again in 1912, troops being again imported to deal with the last outbreak, which was only reported concluded in the summer of 1913.

Administration.

The Lisbon Government by Decree No 3266, dated 27th July 1917, enacted new rules regarding the administration of Portuguese India under an Organic Charter (Carta Organica) in force since 1st July 1918. This Charter, regarding civil and financial administration of the colony, was modified by rules Nos 1005 and 1022, dated 7th and 20th August 1920, and decrees Nos 7006 and 7080, dated 9th and 16th October.

The territory of Portuguese India is ruled by one Governor General, residing in the Capital of the State, at Panjim across Nova-Goa, and is divided into three districts: Goa, Daman and Diu. The last two are each under a Lieutenant Governor. The district of Goa is under the direct superintendency of the Governor General.

Subordinate to the Governor General the following Secretariats are working: Home and Political, Finance, Customs, Education, Military, Naval, Agriculture, Health and Public Works. There are also three special and autonomous Departments, which do not constitute exclusive Secretariats, one of them being the Department of Posts and Telegraphs, the second that of Survey and the third that of the Fiscal of the W I P Railway.

As the principal organ of administration next to the Governor General, and in collaboration with him, are working two councils—Legislative and Executive. The Executive Council is composed by the Governor-General, His Excellency Jaime Alberto Castro Morais, Attorney-General and four Chiefs of Service, and one non-official member pointed yearly by the Governor General. Next to the approval of the Executive Powers, the chiefs in the present year are the Secretary General, the Director of Public Works, the Director of Agriculture and Forests and the Director of Finances.

The Legislative Council is constituted by the members of the Executive Council and by non-official members. These members are elected by the sub-district of Ilhas, one by that of Sete and Mormugão, one by that of Bardes, by the Novas Conquistas (comprising sub-districts of Pernim, Pondá, Sanquelim, Pernim, Canacona, Sanguem e Satar), one by the district of Daman and one by that of Diu, one citizen elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations, one citizen elected by the highest tax payers, one citizen elected by the Associations of Agriculture and of Landowners, one citizen elected by the Attorneys and Communities and one citizen elected by the Associations of Class.

Under the Presidency of the Governor of the district there is District Council, which is composed of—the Secretary General, next, the Attorney General's Delegate at Civil Court of the Islands; the Deputy Health Officer; the Engineer next to the

Director of Public Works, the Deputy Director of Finances, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation of the Islands, one member elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations of the district, one member elected by the 60 highest tax payers of Goa, one member elected by the Associations of Landowners and Farmers of the District, and one member advocate elected by the Legislative Council among the legally qualified.

At Daman and Diu the corresponding body is composed of the local Governor as President, the Delegate of the Attorney General, the Chief of the Public Works Department, the Health Officer, the Financial Director of the district, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation, two members elected by 40 highest tax payers of the District and one member elected by the Merchants, Industrialists and Farmers of the district.

Under the provisions of the above quoted Decree is also officiating in the capital of Portuguese India a special tribunal to take cognizance and decide all litigious administrative matters, fiscal questions and accounts. It is named *Tribunal Administrativo Fiscal e de Contas* and is composed of the Chief Justice as President, two High Court Judges, the Fiscal Auditor and the citizens who are not Government officers nor belong to the administration, bodies of corporations, whether they may be or may not be on actual duty, elected by the Legislative Council two of whom are advocates and the third a merchant, industrialist or landowner or a highest tax payer. In the decision of matters of account the Director of Finances also sits on the special tribunal.

Under the presidency of the Governor-General the following bodies are also working—

Technical Council of Public Works—Its members are all engineers on permanent duty in the head office, a military officer of highest rank in the army or navy, the Director of Finances, the Attorney General, the Chief Health Officer and a Secretary being a clerk of the Public Works Department appointed by the Director of Public Works.

Council of Public Instruction—This is composed of six members appointed by Government and seven elected from among the professors, there being one elected by the Medical College of Nova Goa, two by the Lyceum of Nova-Goa, one by the Municipal Lyceum of Mapuca and Margao, two by the Corporation of the Teachers of Portuguese Primary Instruction, and one by the Teachers of Marathi and Gujarathi Primary Instruction.

There is also Financial Council composed by the Fiscal Auditor and by the Judges of both Civil and Criminal Jurisdictions of the Judicial division of Ilhas.

There is one High Court in the State of India, with five Judges and one Attorney-General, and Courts of Justice at Panjim, Margao, Mapuca, Bicholim, Quepem e Damão, and Municipal Courts of Justice at Mormugão (Vasco da Gama), Pondá, Diu and Nagar-Aveli.

PORT OF MORMUGAO.

Mormugão is situated towards the south of Agada Bar, on the left Bar, on the left bank of Zeary River in Lat 15° 25' N and Long 73° 47' E, about 225 miles south of Bombay and 64 miles south of Panjim, the Capital of Portuguese India. The Port of Mormugão is the natural outlet to the sea for the whole area served by the M. & S. M. Ry. (metre gauge), and offers the shortest route both passenger and goods traffic. The distance from Aden to Mormugão is about the same as from Aden to Bombay. The Port is provided with light-houses, buoys and all necessary marks and it is easily accessible all the year round and at any hour of the day or night even without the assistance of a Pilot. Pilotage is not compulsory, but when usual pilot flag is hoisted, a qualified officer will board the vessel and render such assistance.

Mormugão Harbour is the terminal station of the West of India Portuguese Railway which is controlled by the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company, with headquarters at Madras. Goods are shipped direct from Mormugão to any Continental Ports every facility being afforded for such direct shipments. Cargo can be unloaded from or loaded direct into Railway wagons, which run alongside steamers, thus reducing handling. Warehouses are built on the quay and have railway sidings alongside. Steamers of over 5,000 tons net register, from any Continental Ports can be discharged or loaded rapidly and in complete safety, in a working day of 10 hours 650 tons iron work or 800 tons bale or bag cargo can easily be loaded or discharged. The port is provided with steam cranes and all other appliances for quick loading and discharging of vessels, one of the cranes being of 30 tons capacity for discharging heavy lifts. The tonnage, quay dues and all other charges are very low special concessions being granted for steamers arriving from European or American Ports touching Lisbon. Fresh water can be obtained at a low cost.

The Bombay Steam Navigation Company's (Shepherd) steamers between Bombay and Mangalore call at Mormugão twice a week. The British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers between Bombay and Africa call at Mormugão at least once a month. The Ellerman Strick Line maintains a regular service from Liverpool to Mormugão calling occasionally at Lisbon. This service offers every facility for shipment from the United Kingdom to stations on the M. & S. M. Railway under the Combined Sea and Rail Through Bills of Lading. There are several stevedoring firms, the maximum rate for discharging or loading coal and general cargo being fixed by Government at 6 annas per ton, deadweight. Goods for British India pass through Goa without any charge being collected by Portuguese Government. British Customs duty payable at Castle Rock can be paid by the Railway Company and collected at destination. Goods from stations on the M. & S. M. Ry. System to Mormugão or vice-versa are railed without transshipment, thus avoiding a second handling. Steam tugs, barges, etc., for unloading in the stream can be had at a very low charge.

With view to promoting the economical, commercial and industrial development of Mormugão, a special Department under the designation of the "Mormugão Improvement Trust" with its head office at Vasco da Gama, 2 miles from Mormugão Harbour, has been created and the Local Government have introduced various regulations granting every facility to those intending to raise buildings for residential and industrial purposes in the whole area, comprising about 300 acres, near the Harbour. There are over 2,000 plots, each measuring between 1,000 and 2,000 square metres (each square yard—0.8361 square metre), available for residential quarters, granted on permanent lease on each payment of 2 annas to Rs. 1-8 per square metre, according to their situation, in addition to an annual payment of 4 paces per square metre as lease-hold rent. Within about 60 days from the date of application for a plot, the same is made over to the applicant or to the highest bidder, should there be more than one applicant for one and the same plot. The plan of buildings is in all cases subject to the approval of the Chairman of the Improvement Trust, such plan being required to be submitted within 60 days from the date the plot is made over to the lessee, and the period within which building is to be completed is 2 years. Importation of building materials is allowed free of Custom duties. In addition to the above, there is an extensive area available and reserved only for Industrial and Commercial Establishments this area being known as Free Zone. Within this "Free Zone", in addition to plots, which are leased at a very low rate for building factories, bonded warehouses or for establishment of any kind of industrial or commercial concerns, in accordance with rules and regulations lately issued by the local Government, special concessions and privileges are granted, such as:

(I) For Establishment of Factories or Industrial Concerns.—All machinery, building materials, tools, raw materials, etc., required for construction, maintenance and regular working of the Factories are permitted free of import duty, likewise export of the goods manufactured within the "Free Zone".

(II) For Establishment of Depots of Manufactured or Manufactured or Unmanufactured Goods, Bonded Warehouses, etc., etc.—All goods imported by the Concessionaire for the purpose of such depot are allowed to be exported to any Foreign Territory, after being improved and repacked, if necessary, without payment of either import or export duty.

(III) Exemption of Government Taxes.—In addition to the above privileges, all Factories, Commercial Establishments, buildings, etc. within the "Free Zone" are exempt from all Government taxes for a period of 20 years from May 1923. Applications for any of the above concessions have to be addressed to H.E. the Governor-General of Goa and presented at the office of the Mormugão Improvement Trust at Vasco da Gama, giving therein full particulars of the area and plot, etc., required. Such applications are disposed of within as little time as possible. Full information can be obtained from the Mormugão Improvement Trust, Vasco da Gama.

DIU.

The settlement of Damán lies at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, about 100 miles north of Bombay. It is composed of two portions, namely, Damán proper, lying on the coast, and the detached pargana of Nagar Aveli, separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory and bisected by the B B & C I Rail way. Damán proper contains an area of 22 square miles and 26 villages and has a population (1921) of 17,566. Nagar Aveli has an area of 60 square miles and a population (1921) of 81,048. The town of Damán was sacked by the Portuguese in 1531, rebuilt by the natives and retaken by the Portuguese in 1558, when they made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church and have since built eight other places of worship. Of the total population the number of Christians is 1,751. The number of houses is 10,164 according to the same census. The native Christians adopt the European costume, some of the women dressing themselves after the present European fashion, and others following the old style of petticoat and mantle once prevalent in Spain and Portugal.

The soil of the settlement is moist and fertile, especially in the Pargana of Nagar Aveli, but despite the ease of cultivation only one-

twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. The principal crops are rice, wheat, the inferior cereals of Gujarat and tobacco. The settlement contains no minerals. There are stately forests in Nagar Aveli, and about two-thirds of them consist of teak, but the forests are not conserved and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not been determined. Before the decline of Portuguese power in the East, Damán carried on an extensive Commerce especially with the east coast of Africa. In those days it was noted for its dyeing and weaving.

The territory forms for administrative purposes a single district and has a Municipal Chamber and Corporation. It is ruled by a Governor invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is administered by a judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General and two clerks. In Nagar Aveli the greater part of the soil is the property of the Government, from whom the cultivators hold their tenures direct. A tax is levied on all lands, whether alienated or the property of the State. The chief sources of revenue are land-tax, forests, excise and customs duties.

DIU.

Diu is an island lying off the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp. It is composed of three portions, namely, Diu proper (island) the village of Gogla, on the Peninsula, separated by the channel, and the fortress of Simbor about 5 miles west of the island. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in two fathoms of water and owing to the great advantages which its position offers for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired at an early period with a desire to obtain possession

of it. This they gained, first by treaty with the Sultan of Gujarat and then by force of arms. Diu became opulent and famous for its commerce. It has now dwindled into insignificance. The extreme length of the island is about seven miles and its breadth, from north to south, two miles. The area is 20 square miles. The population of the town of Diu, from which the island takes its name, is said to have been 50,000 in the days of its commercial prosperity. The total population of the island, according to the census of 1921 is 13,844, of whom 228 were Christians.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS

The French possessions in India comprise five Settlements, with certain dependent lodges, or plots. They aggregate 208 square miles, and had a total population in 1928 of 272,427. The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to open up commercial relations, was attempted in 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants at Rouen, but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed. In 1642 Cardinal Richelieu founded the first *Campagnie d'Orient*, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664, granting exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having

twice attempted, without success, to establish itself in Madagascar, Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India and its President, Caron, founded in 1668 the *Compagnie*, or agency, at Surat. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment he seized the harbour of Trincomalee in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, speedily retook Trincomalee, and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast, in 1672, seized St. Thome, a Portuguese town adjoining Madras, which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. He was, however, compelled to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending

when one of its agents, the celebrated Francois Martin, suddenly restored it. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen, saved out of the wreck of the settlements at Trincomalee and St. Thome, he took up his abode at Pondicherry, then a small village, which he purchased in 1688 from the Raja of Gingee. He built fortifications, and a trade began to spring up, but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch, who wrested it from him in 1693, and held it until it was restored to the French by the Peace of Byswil. In 1697 Pondicherry became in this year and has ever since remained, the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation was contemporaneous with that of Calcutta. Like Calcutta, its site was purchased by a European Company from a native prince, and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta Francois Martin proved to Pondicherry. On its restitution to the French by the Peace of Byswil in 1697, Martin was appointed Governor, and under his able management Pondicherry became an entrepot of trade.

Chandernagar, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1688, by grant from the Delhi Emperor, Mahé, on the Malabar Coast, was obtained in 1725-6, under the government of M. Lenoir, Karikal, on the Coromandel Coast, under that of M. Dumas, in 1739. Yanam, on the coast of the Northern Circars, was taken possession of in 1750, and formally ceded to the French two years later.

Administration

The military command and administration in chief of the French possessions in India are vested in a Governor, whose residence is at Pondicherry. The office is at present held by Monsieur L. Gerblin. He is assisted by a Chief Justice and by several "Chefs de Service" in the different administrative departments. In 1879 local councils and a council general were established, the members being chosen by a sort of universal suffrage within the French territories. Seventeen Municipalities, or Communal Boards, were erected in 1907, namely, Pondicherry, Ariancoupam, Modeliarpeth, Oulgarret, Villenour, Tiroubouvane, Bahour and Nettapazam, for the establishment of Pondicherry, Karikal, Neravy, Nedouncadour, Tirunalar, Grande Aldée Cotchery, for the establishment of Karikal, and also Chandernagar, Mahé and Yanam. On municipal boards natives are entitled to a proportion of the seats. Civil and criminal courts, courts of first instance and a court of appeal compose the judicial machinery. The army and establishments connected with the Governor and his staff at Pondicherry, and those of administrators at Chandernagar, Yanam, Mahé and Karikal,

together with other headquarters charges, necessarily engross a large proportion of the revenue. All the state and dignity of an independent Government, with four dependent ones, have to be maintained. This is effected by rigid economy, and the prestige of the French Government is worthily maintained in the East. Pondicherry is also the scene of considerable religious pomp and missionary activity. It forms the seat of an Archbishop, with a body of priests for all French India, and of the Missions Étrangères, the successors of the Mission du Carnatic founded by the Jesuits in 1776. But the chief field of this mission lies outside the French Settlements, a large proportion of its Christians are British subjects and many of the churches are in British territory. The British rupee is the ordinary tender within French territories. A line of railway running via Villenour, from Pondicherry to Villupuram on the South Indian Railway, maintains communication with Madras and the rest of British India, and Karikal is linked to the same railway by the branch from Palaram. A Chamber of Commerce consisting of fifteen members, nine of them Europeans or persons of European descent, was reorganised by a decree of 7th March, 1914. The capital, Pondicherry, is a very handsome town, and presents, especially from the sea, a striking appearance of French civilisation.

People and Trade

The Settlements are represented in Parliament at Paris by one senator and one deputy. The Senator is Mons P. Huguier. The Deputy is Mons G. Angoulvant. There were in 1923, 54 primary schools and 3 colleges, all maintained by the Government, with 240 teachers and 8,009 pupils. Local revenue and expenditure (budget of 1924) Rs. 23,70,410. The principal crops are paddy, groundnut, and ragi. There are at Pondicherry 3 cotton mills, and at Chandernagar 1 jute mill, the cotton mills have, in all, 1,616 looms and 70,522 spindles, employing 7,885 persons. There are also at work one oil factory and a few oil presses for groundnuts, one ice factory, one iron works and a coconute factory. The chief exports from Pondicherry are oil seeds. At the ports of Pondicherry, Karikal, and Mahé in 1923 the imports amounted to 32,549,061 francs and the exports to 45,899,890 francs. At these three ports in 1923, 277 vessels entered and cleared. Tonnage 96,089 T/18. Pondicherry is visited by French steamers, sailing monthly between Colombo and Calcutta in connection with the Messageries Maritimes. The figures contained in this paragraph are the latest available and are corrected up to December 1923.

PONDICHERRY.

Pondicherry is the chief of the French Settlements in India and its capital is the head quarters of their Governor. It is situated on the Coromandel Coast, 105 miles from Madras by road and 123 by the Villupuram Pondicherry branch of the South Indian Railway. The area of the Settlement is 115 square miles

and its population in 1923 was 372,627. It consists of the eight communes of Pondicherry. The Settlement was founded in 1674 under Francois Martin. In 1693, it was captured by the Dutch but was restored in 1699. It was besieged four times by the English. The first siege

under Admiral Boscawen in 1748 was unsuccessful. The second, under Eyre Coote in 1761, resulted in the capture of the place, which was restored in 1765. It was again besieged and captured in 1778 by Sir Hector Munro, and the fortifications were demolished in 1779. The place was again restored in 1785 under the Treaty of Versailles of 1783. It was captured a fourth time by Colonel Braithwaite in 1793, and finally restored in 1816.

The Settlement comprises a number of isolated pieces of territory which are cut off from the main part and surrounded by the British District of South Arcot, except where they border on the sea. The Collector of South Arcot is empowered to deal with ordinary correspondence with the French authorities on these and kindred matters, and in this capacity is styled the Special Agent. At Pondicherry itself is a British Consular Agent accredited to the French Government, who is usually an officer of the Indian Army.

The town is compact, neat and clean, and is divided by a canal into two parts, the *Ville blanche* and the *Ville noire*. The *Ville blanche* has a European appearance, the streets being laid at right angles to one another with trees along their margins reminding the visitor of continental boulevards, and the houses being constructed with courtyards and embellished with green venetians. All the cross streets lead down to the shore, where a wide promenade facing the sea is again different from anything of its kind in British India. In the middle is a screw-pile pier, which serves, when ships touch at the port, as a point for the landing of cargo, and on holidays as a general promenade for the population. There is no real harbour at Pondicherry, ships lie at a distance of about a mile from the shore, and communication with them is conducted by the usual *mousses* boats of this coast. Facing the shore end of the pier is a statue of the great Duplex, to whom the place and the French name owed so much.

CHANDERNAGAR.

Chandernagar is situated on the bank of the Hooghly, a short distance below Chinsura. Population (1923) 25,125. The town was permanently occupied by the French in 1688, though previously it had been temporarily occupied by them at a date given as 1672 or 1676. It did not, however, rise to any importance till the time of Duplex. It changed hands between British and French various times during the Napoleonic wars and was finally restored to the French in 1816.

The former grandeur of Chandernagar has

disappeared, and at present it is little more than a quiet suburban town with little external trade. The railway station on the East Indian Railway is just outside French territory 22 miles from Calcutta (Howrah). The chief administrative officer is the Administrator who is subordinate to the Governor of the French Possessions. The chief public institution is the College Duplex, formerly called St Mary's institution, founded in 1882 and under the direct control of the French Government.

KARIKAL.

Karikal lies on the Coromandel Coast between the Tanjore District of Madras and the Bay of Bengal. The settlement is divided into six communes, containing 110 villages in all, and covering an area of 53 square miles. It is governed by an Administrator subordinate to the Governor at Pondicherry. The population has in recent years rapidly decreased. In 1888 it was 93,055, in 1891, 70,526, in 1901, 65,595, in 1912, 56,579, in 1921, 54,358, and in 1923, 54,608, in 1928, 57,023, but the density is still very high, being 1,068 persons per square mile. Kumbakonam is the only taluk in Tanjore District which has a higher density. Each of the six communes—namely, Karikal, La Grande Jdee, Nedungadu, I Cothery, Neravy and Tirouler—possesses a mayor and council. The members are all elected by universal suffrage, but

in the municipality of Karikal half the number of seats are reserved for Europeans or their descendants. The country is very fertile, being irrigated by seven branches of the Cauvery, besides many smaller channels.

The capital of the settlement is situated on the north bank of the river Arasalar, about 1½ miles from its mouth. It has a brisk trade in rice with Ceylon, and to a less extent with the Straits Settlements. It has no commerce with France, and very little with other French colonies. The port is merely an open roadstead, provided with a light-house 142 feet high, the light in which has a range of from 8 to 10 miles. In 1899 Karikal was connected with Palarn on the Tanjore District Board Railway. Karikal finally came into French possession on the settlement after 1815.

The Frontiers.

By those who take a long view of politics in the wide sense of the term, it will be seen that the Indian Frontier Problem, which has loomed so large in the discussion of Indian questions, has always borne a two fold character—the local issue and the international issue. For almost a century the international issue was the greater of the two, and the most serious question which the Indian Government, both directly and as the exponents of British Imperial policy, had to face. But the tendency of recent times has been for the international aspect to recede and for the local aspect to grow in importance, until now it may be said, with as much truth as characterises all generalisations, that the local issue dominates, if it does not absorb the situation.

The Local Problem.—The local problem, in its broadest outlines, may be briefly indicated before proceeding to discuss it in detail. From the Arabian Sea, on the West to the confines of Nepal is a wild and troublous sea of the highest mountains in the world. The thin valleys in these immense ranges are poorly populated by hardy, brave, militant mountaineers, rendered the fiercer and the more difficult by professing the martial Moslem faith, accentuated by the most bitter fanaticism. But sparse as the population is it is in excess of the supporting power of the country. Like mountaineers in all parts of the world, these brave and fearless men have sought to eke out their exiguous agriculture by raiding the rich plains of Hindustan. We may find a fairly close parallel to the situation in the position of the Highlands of Scotland. Until after the rebellion of 1745 the English Government of the day sought a permanent remedy by opening for the warlike Highlanders a military career in the famous Highland regiments and in rendering military operations easier by the construction of Wade's road. The Highland problem has disappeared so long from English politics that its pregnant lessons are little realised, but if the curious student will read again that brilliant novel by Neil Munro, "The New Road," he will appreciate what Wade's work meant for the Highlands of Scotland and what lessons it teaches those who are called upon to face, in its local aspect, the Indian frontier problem. So far as the area with which we are dealing was concerned, two policies were tried. In Baluchistan, the genius of Sir Robert Sandeman devised the method of entering into military occupation of the principal points, and thence controlling the country. At the same time close engagements were entered into with the principal chiefs, through whom the tribesmen were kept in order. That policy was so successful that whilst the administration was expensive the Baluchistan frontier did not seriously embarrass the Government of India from the time when Sandeman set his mark on the land. Not that the country was entirely peaceful. Occasional tribal raids or risings necessitated occasional military operations, and the Gomal Pass was involved in the general tribal disturbances which followed the wanton declaration of war by Afghanistan in 1919. But speaking broadly, Sandeman brought peace to Baluchistan, and to the large frontier area which is embraced in that generic term. So far as this section of the frontier is

concerned it may be said that no frontier problem exists, save the need for an economical and constructive policy.

Towards Afghanistan.—Far otherwise is it with the section of the frontier which stretches from Baluchistan to the confines of Nepal. That has, for three quarters of a century, been the scene of almost ceaseless military operations, which have constituted a devastating drain on the Indian exchequer. One seeks in vain for a clear and definite policy guiding the actions of the Government of India. One explanation of these inconsistencies is found in the existence of two schools of thought. Once the frontier with Afghanistan had been delimited, the soldiers naturally pressed for the armed occupation of the whole country right up to the confines of Afghanistan, or at any rate, for military posts, linked with good communications, which would dominate the country. But those who looked at policy not only from the military standpoint, were conscious of two considerations. They saw that occupation up to the Afghan frontier only meant the shifting of the frontier problem farther North. Instead of the differing tribes, we should have to meet the Afghan on our border line. If Afghanistan were a strong, homogeneous State, that would be a matter of little account. But even under the iron rule of Abdurrahman Khan the Amir's writ ran but lightly on the southern confines of his kingdom. Under his successor, Habibullah Khan, whose policy was generally wise and successful, it ran still less firmly. The Amir was unable to control the organisation of the tribal gatherings which involved us in the Zalka Khel and Mohmand expeditions during the Indian secretaryship of that arch pacifist, Lord Morley. Nor did it enable Habibullah to deal effectively with a rising against his own Governor in Khost. The Afghan forces melted away under transport difficulties when they were moved against the rebellious Khostwails, and the Amir had to make peace with his troublesome vassals. Therefore the occupation of the frontier up to what is called the Durand Line, because it is the line demarcated by Sir Mortimer Durand as the British Plenipotentiary, would simply have meant that in time of trouble we should have to deal with Afghanistan instead of a tribe or two, and with the irreconcilable tribesmen along our difficult line of communications. There was the further consideration that financiers were of the sound belief that even if the Forward Policy was wise from the military standpoint, it would involve charges over an indefinite period greater than the Indian finances would bear. Moreover on this section of the Frontier, the position was complicated by the expansion of Russia in Central Asia. The earliest passes, and the passes down which for centuries from the time of Alexander the Great invaders have swept from Persia and Central Asia to loot the fat plains of Hindustan, traverse this region. Therefore it was deemed essential to control, if not to occupy them, in the interests of the Imperial situation. In this zone therefore policy ebbed and flowed between the Forward School, which would have occupied, or dominated, the whole Frontier up to the Durand Line, that is to say up to the Afghan frontier; and the

Close Border School, which would have us remain out of the difficult mountainous zone and meet the tribesmen on the plains if they sallied forth. The extreme advocates of this school would even have had us return to the line of the Indus.

The Two Policies.—The result of this conflict of opinion was a series of wavering compromises, which like all compromises was profoundly unsatisfactory. We pushed forward posts here and there, which irritated the Tribesmen, and made them fearful of their prized independence, without controlling them. These advanced posts were in many cases inadequately held and rarely were they linked with their supporting posts by adequate means of communication. We preserved between our administrative frontier, and the Durand Line which demarcated our frontier with Afghanistan an irregular belt of land called The Independent Territory, in which neither we nor the Afghan Government exercised jurisdiction. This was left entirely under the control of the tribes who peopled it. Now it has often been asked why we did not follow the precedent of Baluchistan and "Sandemanise" the Independent Territory. That is one of the perennial topics of Frontier discussions. It is however important to bear in mind that there were essential differences between this zone and Baluchistan. Sir Robert Sandeman found a strong tribal system existing in Baluchistan, and he was able to enter into direct engagements with the tribal chiefs. There is no such tribal organisation in the Independent Territory. The tribal chiefs, or maliks, exercise a very precarious authority, and the instrument for the collective expression of the tribal will is not the chief, but the jirga, or tribal council, of the most democratic character, where the voice of the young men of the tribe often has the same influence, in time of excitement perhaps more influence, than the voice of the wiser greybeard. The bitter fruit of this policy of compromise was reaped in 1897, when following a minor outbreak in the Tochi Valley the general unrest flamed into a rising which involved the whole of the North West Frontier from the Gomal to the borders of Nepal. A force over thirty thousand strong had to be mobilised to deal with it. Even this large force, owing to the immense difficulties of transportation was unable effectively to deal with the situation, though peace was made. The emergency thus created synchronised with the advent of Lord Curzon as Viceroy. He dealt with it in masterful fashion. In the first place, he separated the frontier zone from the Government of the Punjab, which had hitherto been responsible for its administration and had organised for the purpose a special force of Frontier soldiers, known as the Punjab Irregular Frontier Force. This was the revival of a scheme as old as the viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, though no other Viceroy had been able to carry it through, in the face of the strong opposition of successive Punjab Governments. The area so separated was constituted into a separate administrative zone under the direct authority of the Government of India, exercised through a Chief Commissioner. Then Lord Curzon withdrew the advanced military posts and concentrated the Regular troops in bases better linked with the main military centres of India by roads and railways. The advanced posts, and especially important

Passes like the Tochi, the Kurram and the Khyber, were entrusted to the defence of local militia, recruited from the tribesmen themselves, and officered by British officers drawn from the ranks of the Indian Army. Later it was supplemented by a fine development policy. The construction of the Upper Swat Canal, afterwards developed into the Swat Canal (see Irrigation) led to such an increase in cultivation that the tribesmen were given a means of livelihood and were invested with the magic charm of valuable property. The irrigated part of the Frontier has since been one of the most peaceful in the whole border line.

Lord Curzon's Success.—Judged by every reasonable standard the Curzon policy was successful. It did not give us complete peace. There were occasional punitive expeditions demanded, such as for instance the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions, and the Waziris, and in particular the truculent Mahsud Waziris never ceased raiding. But in comparison with what had gone before, it gave us relative peace. It endured throughout the War, though the Waziris built up a heavy bill of offences, which whitened settlement when Government were free from the immense preoccupations of the war. It broke down under the strain of the wanton invasion of India by the Afghans in the hot weather of 1919. On February 20th the Amir Habibullah Khan was assassinated in his sleep near Jelalabad. Although he does not figure so prominently in frontier history as his iron father Abdurrahman Khan he nevertheless has high claims on the favourable verdict of history. None anticipated that any successor to Abdurrahman Khan could hold in the leash of a single State the fractious, fanatical tribes who make up the population of the Afghan kingdom. Yet this Habibullah did. On occasion his attitude seemed to be equivocal as when armed gatherings of the tribes called lashkars were permitted to assemble in Afghan territory and to invade the Independent Territory, causing the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions. But we must not judge a State like Afghanistan by European standards, the Amir had often to bow before the fanatical elements amongst his own people until they had burnt their fingers by contact with the British troops. At the outset of the War he warned the Government that he might often have to do things which seemed unfriendly, but they must trust him. In truth, the position of the Amir when Turkey entered on the war, and called Moslems everywhere to arms on the side of Germany was extraordinarily difficult, he received Turkish, German and Austrian missions in Kabul, from which British representatives were still excluded. But he kept Afghanistan out of the war, and with the complete defeat of the Central Powers and their satellites, his policy was justified up to the hilt. Indeed, his success was the cause of his assassination. The irreconcilable elements in the Kingdom saw that the day of reckoning had come and strove to avert the settlement of their account by the murder. When he was done to death, his brother, Nasrullah Khan, was proclaimed Amir by the assassins. But the conscience of Afghanistan revolted against the idea of Nasrullah, the arch-fanatic of the ruling House of Kabul, ascending the throne over the blood stained corpse of his brother. A military movement in Kabul itself

brushed him aside and installed the son of Habibullah, Amanullah Khan, on the throne. But Amanullah Khan soon found it was a thorny bed on which he lay, and encouraged by the disorders in India which followed the passing of stringent measures to deal with anarchical crime, set his troops in motion in April 25, 1919, and promising a *jehad* promised his soldiery the traditional loot of Hindustan. The Indian Army was at once set in motion, and as has always been the case the regular Afghan Army was easily beaten. Dacca was seized, Jelalabad and Kabul were frequently bombed from the air, and there was nothing to prevent our occupation of Kabul, save the knowledge gleaned from the bitter heritage of the wars of 1838 and 1878, that it is one thing to overthrow a government in Afghanistan, but it is quite another to set up a stable government in its stead. The Government of India wisely held their hand, and the Afghans having sued for peace, a treaty was signed on the 8th August 1919.

But an untoward effect of this wanton war was to set the Frontier from the Gomal to the Khyber ablaze. With one or two exceptions the Tribal Militia could not stand the strain of an appeal from their fellow tribesmen, and either melted away or joined the rising. This has often been described as the failure of the Curzon policy, which was based on the tribal militia. But there is another aspect to this issue, which was set out in a series of brilliant articles which Mr Arthur Moore its special correspondent contributed to *The Times*. He pointed out that the militia was meant to be a military police force. The lapse of time, and forgetfulness of its real purpose, had converted the militia into an imitation of the regular army. The militia was meant to be a police. When the war broke out its units were treated as a covering force behind which the Regular Army mobilised. This is a role which it was never intended they should serve, exposed to a strain which they should never have been called upon to bear, they crumpled under it. If this reasoning is correct—and a strong case can be marshalled in support of it—then what has been called the failure of the Curzon policy arose from the misconception and misdirection of that policy.

Russia and the Frontier.—On the other hand, if it be admitted that the Curzon policy was sound, and that its success was marked—a proposition with which we are in general agreement—it can also be claimed that the Curzon policy owed no small measure of its success to extraneous events. The greatest external force in moulding Indian frontier policy was the long struggle with Russia. For nearly three quarters of a century a welled warfare for predominance in Asia was waged between Great Britain and Russia. There are few pages in British foreign policy less attractive to the student of Imperial affairs. Russia was confronted in Central Asia with precisely the same conditions as those which faced England in India when the course of events converted the old East India Company from a trading corporation into a governing body. The decaying khanates of Central Asia were impossible neighbours. Confronted with an inferior civilisation, and with neighbours who would not let her alone, Russia had to advance. True, the adventurous spirits in her armies, and some of the

great administrators in the Tsarist capital, were not adverse to paying off on the Indian Borderland the score against Great Britain for the Crimean War, and for what the Russians thought was depriving them of the fruits of their costly victory over Turkey in 1877-78. The result was a long and unsatisfactory guerrilla enterprise between the hardest spirits on both sides accompanied by periodic panics in the British Press each time the Russians moved forward, which induced the ceding, after the Russian occupation of Merv, of the generic term 'Mervousness'. This external force involved the Government of India in the humiliations of the Afghan War of 1838, with the tragic destruction of the retiring Indian force between Kabul and Jelalabad, slightly relieved by the heroic defence of Jelalabad and the firmness of General Pollock in refusing to withdraw the punitive army until he had set his mark on Kabul by the razing of the famous Bala Hissar fortress. It involved us in the second Afghan War of 1878, which left the baffling problem of no stable government in Afghanistan. There was a gleam of light when Abdurrahman Khan, whom we set up at Kabul to relieve us of our perplexities, proved himself a strong and capable ruler, if one ruthless in his methods. But in the early eighties the two States were on the verge of war over a squabble for the possession of Pendjeh, and then men began to think a little more clearly. There began a series of boundary delimitations and agreements which clarified the situation, without however finally settling it. The old controversy broke out in another form when intrigues with a Burjat monk, Dorjief, during Lord Curzon's vicereignty, gave rise to the grave suspicion that the scene had only shifted to Tibet. An expedition to Lhasa rent the veil which had so long concealed the mysterious city and dispelled the miasma of this intrigue. But it was not until the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 that the two countries arrived at a stage long sought by those who looked beyond their noses. The actual authors of the Agreement were Lord Grey, the Foreign Secretary and Lord Hardinge, formerly British Ambassador in Petrograd, but it had been desired by their predecessors, whose efforts were rendered nugatory by the intransigent attitude of the dominant forces in Petrograd. It was not until Russia was chastened on the battlefields of Manchuria by Japan, and disappeared as a sea power in the decisive battle of Tsushima, that an atmosphere was created favourable to the conclusion of an Agreement. This embraced the whole frontier zone. There were many unsatisfactory features in the Agreement, especially in regard to Persia, for which we had to pay a considerable price in the attitude of Persians in the War. But again taking long views, the Agreement fully justified itself in a broad definition of the interest of the two countries, which put an end to the period of excursions and alarms up to the outbreak of the War. Henceforward Russia ceased to be a material factor in the Indian Frontier Problem, with the exception of a brief period when the Red Army was trotted out as another bogey.

German Influence.—But as nature abhors a vacuum, so in the case of States bordered by higher civilisations, no sooner does one strong

influence exceeds than some other takes its place. Long before the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement the shadow of the German menace had begun to appear on the horizon. Imitative, not creative, in this, as in most other activities, the Germans adapted their methods from the penetration by railway which was so marked a feature of Russian expansion in Manchuria, brought to an end by the disastrous issue of the war with Japan. The seeds of the German effort were sown when the Kaiser, extending the hand of Christian fellowship to the Sultan of Turkey, Abdul Hamed, at a time when that sovereign was ostracised by Europe for his direct complicity in the massacre of Armenians, or rather one of the massacres of Armenians, made German influence supreme at Constantinople. His theatrical tour through Palestine which was generally treated in Europe as an exhibition of opera bouffe, soon bore fruit in the acquiescence by German interests of the principal railways in Anatolia. Later it fructified more effectively in the Baghdad Railway concession, under which German interests secured the right of extending the Anatolian lines from the port of Haidar Pasha, opposite Constantinople, to a port in the Persian Gulf. Now successive British Statesmen of both parties had declared that the acquisition of a territorial foothold in the Persian Gulf by any power—Russia and the port of Bunder Abbas being then in view—would be regarded as an unfriendly act. There followed a replica of the period of alarms and excursions which had disfigured our relations with Russia. Undaunted, even when their endeavour to secure British co-operation in the enterprise failed, and when the Revolution in Turkey which set the Committee of Union and Progress in power entailed a temporary interruption of their influence at Constantinople, the Germans pressed forward with their enterprise. They pushed the Anatolian railways as far east as Bourghul, and constructed a line northwards from Baghdad to Samarra. They sent a mission to explore the potentialities of the port of Koweit in the Persian Gulf, and set the Turks in motion to subordinate the Sheikh of Koweit to direct Turkish sovereignty, with a nominal view to extending the Baghdad railway from Basra to Koweit, or the vicinity of Koweit at the deep water inlet behind Bublun Island. They commenced the most difficult part of the work in piercing the Amanus and Taurus ranges by a series of tunnels, and laid the rails on the other side of the mountains across the Euphrates to Ras al-Ain. Behind this railway activity stood a grandiose policy, which is indicated in what became known in Germany as "B B B"—Berlin, Byzantium, Baghdad. Throughout the progress of these schemes, which did not stop short of Baghdad, but were directed through a port in the Persian Gulf, at India, the Germans were anxious to secure the co-operation of Great Britain, if they could do so on their own terms, that is to say without affecting the enterprise as a dominant German adventure. Shortly before the commencement of the war the protracted negotiations with London which had this end in view ended in a definite agreement between the two Powers. Under this agreement the Gulf section of the line was to have been British, and the other portion German. But this agreement which

had not been signed became waste paper with the outbreak of the war, and the German plans vanished in thin air with the complete defeat of Turkey and Germany. Nevertheless the railway did not stand still during the war. Germany made immense efforts to complete the difficult tunnel sections and the work was substantially finished when the Armistice was signed.

The Significance of the Baghdad Railway

—The real significance of the Baghdad Railway was little appreciated in Great Britain. It was constantly pictured as a great trunk line, which would short-circuit the traditional British dominance by sea, and absorb the passenger and goods traffic from the East. This idea could only be nourished by those completely ignorant of the conditions of the Indian passenger service and the essentials of a competitive route for the carriage of merchandise. The rush of passenger traffic from India is from April to June, in order to escape the hot weather in India and the return traffic is chiefly concentrated in October and November. From April to June the heat in Mesopotamia is appalling. To imagine that the passenger traffic from India would turn from the easy and comfortable, as well as fairly expeditious sea route from Bombay to Marseilles and thence by the easiest railway travelling outside the British Isles to Calais and London for such a land route was an amazing chimera. The Baghdad route would have involved a sea voyage from Bombay or Karachi to Koweit or Basra, then a journey across the burning plains of Mesopotamia and Asia Minor to Haidar Pasha, then across the Straits to Constantinople, and finally right across Europe to a North Sea port. This would in any circumstances have been a costly freak journey in comparison with the sea route. Then as for the commercial aspect of the line, the natural port of the Middle East is Basra. The sea freight from England or Germany to Basra is about one pound sterling a ton, before the war it was often down to fifteen shillings. The freight from Basra to Baghdad was from thirty shillings to two pounds a ton. To imagine again that merchandise would desert this route for a land and sea route, which would have involved a double break of bulk at Constantinople and Haidar Pasha, is again a chimera, the freight charges could not have been less than fifteen to twenty pounds a ton.

As a through route the primary purpose of the Baghdad Railway was strategic. It was designed to make the Power seated at Constantinople—and that Power the Teutons—were resolved should be Germany—complete master of Asia Minor and The Middle East, and the route selected, often criticised, was the best for the rapid movement of troops to the strategic centres. As a commercial line, the Railway, if completed, would have served three zones. The western area of Turkey in Asia at Haidar Pasha. The rich lands of Anatolia at Alexandretta. The eastern zone at Basra. The Germans, it is understood, attached immense importance to the subsequent engagements with Turkey which placed them in maritime command at Alexandretta. They began to inaugurate a commercial position in the Persian Gulf through the establishment of a subsidised line of steamers run by the great Hamburg-America corporation. They strove to obtain an actual footing in the

Gulf through the German house of Wronkhaus. We doubt if the Germans were ever serious in their alleged designs on Koweit, which could never have borne a more definite relation to the commerce of the Gulf than Flushing to Antwerp or Cuxhaven to Hamburg, that was one of the red herrings they drew across their trail to divert attention from their real objective, Basra, which is destined by virtue of an unchallengeable geographical and natural position to be the great port of The Middle East. These considerations have no more than an academic value now Germany has been defeated. The Turks, now they are emerging from an isolated military despotism based on Angora, are confronted with the immense problem of re-building their bankrupt State, deprived of the most intelligent section of the old population—the Greeks and the Armenians, by massacre and expulsion—are a very uncertain factor. The completion of the through line is indefinitely postponed. But as the advantages of the route, for the purposes we have indicated, are many and great the ultimate construction of the through line is only a matter of time so we have placed these authoritative characteristics on record for the guidance of opinion when the project of the through route is revived, as it must be.

Turkey and the Frontier—The position of Turkey on the Indian frontier was never of any considerable importance in itself, and never assumed any significance, save as the *arsenal* of Germany, when she passed under the tutelage of that Power and for a limited period during the war. Although so long established in Mesopotamia, Turkey was not very firmly seated in that country, the Arabs tolerated rather than accepted Turkish rule so long as they were substantially left alone, and the administration it is understood never paid its way. For a brief period Midhat Pasha raised the status of Mesopotamia, and after the Revolution that fine soldier Nazim Pasha became a power in the land. But speaking broadly Turkey remained in Mesopotamia because it was no-one's interest, even that of the Arab, to turn her out. When however Germany developed her 'B B B' policy, Turkey was used as a stalking horse. She moved a small force to the Peninsula of Al Katr in order to frighten the Sheikh of Bahrain, and tried to convert the nominal suzerainty exercised, or rather claimed, over the Sheikh of Koweit into a *de facto* suzerainty, exercised by military force. These efforts faded before the vigorous action of the British Government which concluded a binding arrangement with the Sheikh of Koweit, and the position of the Turks at Al Katr was always very precarious. On the outbreak of the war however the situation changed. When the sound and carefully-executed expedition to Basra and its strategic hinterland was developed into the Hussein enterprise to capture Baghdad by *coup de main*, with very inadequate forces, and still more inadequate transport, we found ourselves involved in military operations of the most extensive and unprofitable character. These were completely successful with General Maude's occupation of Baghdad. After the Russian *débâcle* we found ourselves involved in a new front, which stretched from the Euphrates to the wildest part of Central

Asia, producing military exploits of an almost epic character, but exercising little influence on the war. They were brought to an end by pressure not on extensive wings, but at the heart of Turkish Power in Palestine, where Lord Allenby scattered the Turks like chaff. But the aftermath of the war left us in an indefinite position in Mesopotamia, with indefinite frontiers. This enabled the Turks, if they were so disposed, to be troublesome through guerrilla warfare in the Mosul Zone, and by stirring up the Kurds, who are the Ishmaelites of Asia Minor. The signing of the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, and its subsequent ratification by the Turkish National Assembly, promise to remove these difficulties. The Turks recognised that the Arab states were outside their zone of administration, and the boundaries between Turkey and the Arab administration set up in Mesopotamia under King Faisal were left to be determined by the League of Nations. Therefore from Turkey, we have reason to hope, will cease to be a factor in Indian frontier policy.

France and the Frontier—If we touch for a few sentences on the position of France on the frontiers of India, it is not because they have any present day significance, but in order to complete this brief survey of the waxing and waning of external influences on Indian frontier policy. It is difficult to find any sound policy behind the efforts of France to obtain a coaling station at Maakat, in the Persian Gulf, and her long opposition to the steps necessary to extricate the slave trade, and hold in check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping all the tribesmen on our North West Frontier with rifles of precision and a large supply of ammunition. We can find no more definite purpose in it than a general pin-pricking policy, a desire to play the part of Buzsaki, and perhaps a source of annoyance to Great Britain, which would form a useful lever for the exaction of considerable concessions in West Africa, particularly in the neighbourhood of Gambia, as the price of abstinence. These embarrassments were slowly removed one by one after the conclusion of the Anglo-French Entente. Far otherwise was it in the East. The consolidation of French authority in French Indo-China was the prelude to designs for the expansion of this authority at the expense of Siam and to find compensation there for the velled British protectorate of Egypt. There had earlier been mutterings in Burma. We were established in Lower Burma in the thirties, and in the eighties the foolish and tyrannical King Theebaw, in Upper Burma, became an impossible neighbour, and ambitious Frenchmen were not averse to fanning his opposition to the British. However, if any hopes were entertained of extending the Asiatic possessions of France in this direction, they were dissipated by the Second Burmese War and the firm establishment of British rule. Far otherwise was it on the confines of Siam. It was the fixed purpose of British policy to preserve Siam as a buffer state between Burma, then a regular Province of the Indian Empire, and French Indo-China. This policy was definitely challenged by French encroachments on Siam. Matters approached a crisis in 1894, and we were within measurable distance of a situation which might have ended in open war between the two States. But as in the case of Persia,

and later when Major Marchand marched across Africa to Fashoda, the imminence of hostilities made statesmen on both sides ask themselves what they might be going to fight about. They found there was nothing essential and an agreement was negotiated between the two Powers, which secured the independence and integrity of Siam. That agreement has been consolidated by wise and progressive rule in Siam itself, under its own independent sovereign, who is imbued with a strong friendship for Great Britain, whilst at the same time maintaining good relations with French neighbours.

The New Frontier Problem.—The whole purpose of this brief sketch has been to show that for three generations—most assuredly since the events leading to the Afghan War of 1838—the Indian frontier problem has never been a local problem. It has been dominated by external influences—in the main the long struggle between Great Britain and Russia for a brief period the German ambition to build up a dominant position in the East through the revival of the land route, and to a much lesser extent by the ambitions of France and Turkey. All these external influences have disappeared. There is no such prospect of their revival as justified us in taking them into consideration in the measures which are forced on the Government responsible. The Indian frontier question has therefore developed from an Imperial into a local question—a condition on which we must lay fast hold, because people are tenacious of old ideas, especially when they are nearly a century old, and no proper understanding of the present position is possible, unless our consideration of it is governed by this essential fact: that the frontier question is purely local. But whilst these world changes were taking place, others were in progress which powerfully influence the difficulties of the situation. The tribesman was always an opponent to be respected. Brave, hardy, fanatical, he has always been a first class fighting man. Knowing every inch of the inhospitable country in which punitive operations must of necessity take place he has hung on our rearwards and given them an infinity of trouble. Even when armed with a javelin and when every cartridge had to be husbanded with jealous care, the tribesman was a respectable antagonist. Now the tribesmen are everywhere armed with magazine rifles, either imported through the Persian Gulf when gun-running was a thriving occupation, stolen from British magazines, or secured from Russian and Afghan sources. They have an abundant supply of ammunition. Considerable numbers of the fighting men have been trained in the ranks of the Indian Army, either as Regulars in the Pathan regiments or else in the tribal militias. We found this to our cost in the events following the Afghan War of 1919. The Afghan regular army was of little account. The tribesmen who rose at the call of the jihad, especially in Waziristan, were of great account. They gave our troops the hardest fighting they have ever had on the Frontier, their marksmanship and fire discipline were described by ex-

perienced soldiers as admirable. The tribal militia, the keystone of the Curzon system, had for all practical purposes disappeared, what was to take its place?

Immediately following the Afghan War, the frontier positions were garrisoned by regular troops, but this was only a temporary measure. It may be said that the crux of the situation was in Waziristan. This sector of the Frontier has always been the most difficult of the whole, because of the intractable character of the people. Besides, possessing a bolt hole into Afghanistan they had in the past evaded effective punishment in view of the complete disappearance of the external menace, and the consequent lapsing of any necessity to preserve open lines of communication which would enable us to go to the support of Afghanistan now formally recognised in the Treaty of 1921 as a completely independent state, there were many who urged the desirability of complete withdrawal, even to the line of the Indus. This extreme school gained little support. Our position in Quetta on the one side and Peshawar on the other is fully consolidated, and no good case can be made out for withdrawing from it. On the other hand, there was a strong case made out for leaving the tribesmen severely alone from the Gomal to the Kurram, and dealing with them if they emerged from their fastnesses. The military standpoint was that the Waziris are absolutely intractable, that it was unfair to impose on troops the frequent necessity of punitive operations in most arduous conditions, and that the only solution of the question was the occupation of dominant points in Waziristan, as far north as Laddha, and linking these posts with our military bases, and particular with the terminal of the Indian frontier railways, by good motor roads.

This controversy has not ended yet, indeed one feels inclined to say that it never will end. It has resulted in a typically British compromise. The present policy has been aptly described as the "half forward" policy. There has been no withdrawal in the ordinary sense of the term, but the limits of the Waziristan occupation have been fixed at Ramsak, not at Laddha. The network of consequential roads is being pushed forward. The Indian rail head, which for so long terminated at Jamrud, at the southern entrance to the Khyber Pass, is now being extended to Landi Kotal and the frontier between India and Afghanistan. The regular troops are being withdrawn, and their place taken by *khassadars*. The difference between the *khassadars* and the old tribal militia is material. The militia were armed and equipped by the Indian military authorities, if they disappeared they took their arms and ammunition with them, and constituted a powerful reinforcement. The *khassadars* bring their own rifles with them, and therefore if they desert they do not constitute any reinforcement to those in arms against us. Many of these *khassadars* have already done good work in the punishment of tribal raids.

I—THE PERSIAN GULF.

From what has gone before it will be seen that the keynote of this discussion of Indian frontier policy is that the external menace has disappeared, and that it is now a purely local question. No part of the frontier is more powerfully influenced by this consideration than the Persian Gulf. Our first appearance in the Gulf was in connection with the long struggle for supremacy with the Portuguese, the French and the Dutch, who had established trading stations there, with the capture and destruction of the great entrepot which the Portuguese had established at Ormuz, the supercession of the land by the sea route, and the appearance of anarchy in the interior the importance of the Gulf declined. The Indian Government remained there primarily to preserve the peace. This work it quietly and efficiently performed. Piracy was stamped out, the Trucial Chiefs, who occupy the Pirate Coast, were gradually brought into close relations with the Government, the vessels of the Royal Navy kept watch and ward, and our consuls regulated the external affairs of the Arab rulers on the Arab coast. In return for these services Great Britain claimed no selfish advantages. The waters of the Gulf were kept free to the navigation of the ships of all nations, and though Great Britain could have made any territorial acquisitions she pleased she retained possession of only the tiny station of Basidu. Left to herself Great Britain desired no other policy, but for a quarter of a century the Gulf was involved in European affairs. France sought to acquire a coaling station at Jissa, near Maskat, and obstructed the efforts of the British Government to stamp out the slave trade and to check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping the tribes on our land frontier with weapons of precision and quantities of ammunition. All causes of difference were gradually removed by agreements following the Anglo-French Entente. Russia sent one of her finest cruisers to "show the flag" in the Gulf, and established consular posts where there were no interests to preserve. She was credited with the intention of occupying a warm water port, and in particular with casting covetous eyes on the most dreadful spot in the Gulf, Bunder Abbas. This menace declined after the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement, and disappeared with the collapse of Russian power following the Revolution. Then Turkey, either acting for herself, or as the agent of Germany, under whose domination she had passed, began to stir. She threatened the Sheikh of Bahrain by the armed occupation of the peninsula of Al Katr, and moved troops to enforce her suzerainty over Koweit, the best port in the Persian Gulf, and a possible terminus of the Baghdad Railway. Further to consolidate her interests, or to stake out a claim, Germany sent the heavily subsidized ships of the Hamburg-America line to the Gulf, where they comported themselves as the instruments of Imperial policy rather than as inoffensive merchantmen. She also strove, through the agency of the firm of Winkhaus, to acquire a territorial footing on the island of Sharjah. These events stirred the British

Government to an unusual activity in the waters of the Gulf.

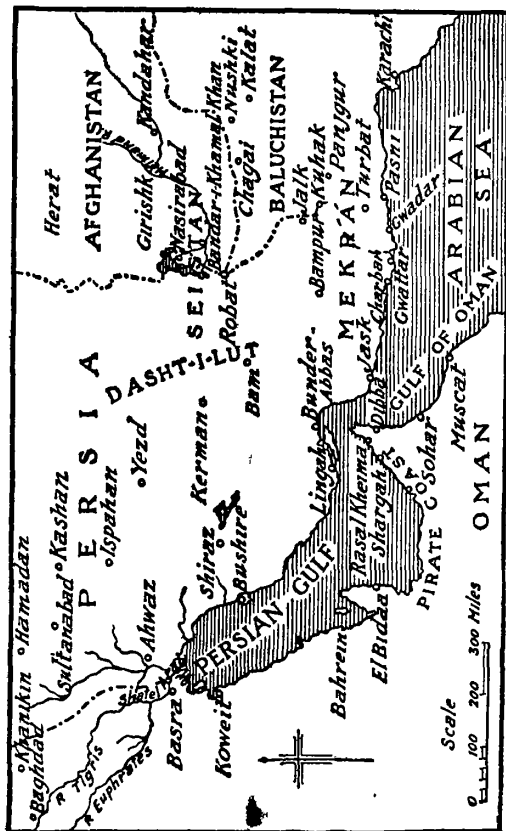
Counter Measures.

The first effective steps to counter these influences were taken during the vigorous viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, who visited the Gulf during his early travels and incorporated a masterly survey of its features in his monumental work on Persia. He appointed the ablest men he could find to the head of affairs, established several new consulates, and was instrumental in improving the sea communications with the Gulf ports. The British Government also took alarm. They were fortified in their stand against foreign intrigue by the opinion of a writer of unchallenged authority. The American Naval writer, the late Admiral Mahan, placed on record his view that "Concession in the Persian Gulf, whether by formal arrangement (with other Powers) or by neglect of the local commercial interests which now underlie political and military control will imperil Great Britain's naval position in the Farther East, her political position in India, her commercial interests in both, and the Imperial tie between herself and Australasia." The Imperial standpoint, endorsed by both Parties in the State, was set out by Lord Lansdowne in words of great import—"We (i.e., His Majesty's Government) should regard the establishment of a naval base or of a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other Power as a very grave menace to British interests, which we should certainly resist with all the means at our disposal." The negative measures following these declarations were followed by a constructive policy when the oil fields in the Bakhtiari country, with a great refinery, were developed by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, in which the British Government has a large financial stake. But with the disappearance of these external forces on Gulf policy, as set out in the introduction to this section, the politics of the Persian Gulf receded in importance, until they are now more than they were before these external influences developed—a local question, mainly a question of police. They are therefore set out more briefly than in earlier editions of the Indian Year Book, and those who desire a complete narrative are referred to The Indian Year Book for 1928, pp 178-183.

Maskat.

Maskat, which is reached in about forty-eight hours from Karachi, is outside the Persian Gulf proper. It lies three hundred miles south of Cape Musandim, which is the real entrance to the Gulf, but its natural strength and historical prestige combine to make it inseparable from the politics of the Gulf, with which it has always been intimately associated.

Formerly Maskat was part of a domain which embraced Zanzibar, and the Islands of Kishm and Larak, with Bunder Abbas on the Persian shore. Zanzibar was separated from it by agreement, and the Persians succeeded in establishing their authority over the possessions on the eastern shore.



The relations between Britain and Maskat have been intimate for a century and more. It was under British auspices that the separation between Zanzibar and Maskat was effected, the Sheikh accepted a British subsidy in return for the suppression of the slave trade and in 1893 sealed his dependence upon us by concluding a treaty pledging himself not to cede any part of his territory without our consent.

British Consul Major R. G. Hinde

The Pirate Coast.

Turning Cape Musandim and entering the Gulf Proper we pass the Pirate Coast controlled by the six Trucial Chiefs. The ill name of this territory has now ceased to have any meaning but in the early days it had a very real relation to the actual conditions. The pirates were the boldest of their kind and they did not hesitate to attack on occasion, and not always without success, the Company's ships of war. Large expeditions were fitted out to break their power, with such success that since 1820 no considerable punitive measures have been necessary. The Trucial Chiefs are bound to Great Britain by a series of engagements, beginning with 1806 and ending with the perpetual treaty of 1853 by which they bound themselves to avoid all hostilities at sea, and the subsequent treaty of 1873 by which they undertook to prohibit altogether the traffic in slaves. The relations of the Trucial Chiefs are controlled by the British Resident at Bushire, who visits the Pirate Coast every year on a tour of inspection.

The commercial importance of the Pirate Coast is increasing through the rise of Debal. Formerly Lingah was the entrepot for this trade, but the exactions of the Belgian Customs officials in the employ of Persia has driven this traffic from Lingah to Debal. The Trucial Chiefs are—Debal, Abu Thabeeb, Shargah, Ajman, Um-al-Gawain and Ras el-Khaysma.

Bahrain.

North of the Pirate Coast lies the little Archipelago which forms the chiefship of the Sheikh of Bahrain. Of this group of islands only those of Bahrain and Maharak are of any size, but their importance is out of all proportion to their extent. This is the great centre of the Gulf pearl fishery, which, in a good year, may be worth half a million pounds sterling. The anchorage is wretched, and at certain states of the tide ships have to lie four miles from the shore, which is not even approachable by boats, and passengers, mails and cargo have to be handed on the donkeys for which Bahrain is famous. But this notwithstanding the trade of the port is valued at over a million and a quarter sterling, and the customs revenue, which amounts to some eighty thousand pounds, makes the Sheikh the richest ruler in the Gulf.

In the neighbourhood of Bahrain is the vast burying ground which has hitherto baffled archaeologists. The generally accepted theory is that it is a relic of the Phoenicians, who are known to have traded in these waters.

Political Agent, Major C. K. Daly

Koweil.

In the north-west corner of the Gulf lies the port which has made more stir than any place

of similar size in the world. The importance of Koweil lies solely in the fact that it is the one possible Gulf terminus of the Baghdad Railway. This is no new discovery, for when the Euphrates Valley Railway was under discussion, General Chesney selected it under the alternative name of the Grane—so called from the resemblance of the formation of the Bay to a pair of horns—as the sea terminus of the line. Nowhere else would Koweil be called a good or a promising port. The Bay is 20 miles deep and 5 miles broad, but so shallow that heavy expense would have to be incurred to render it suitable for modern ocean-going steamers. It is sheltered from all but the westerly winds, and the clean thriving town is peopled by some 20,000 inhabitants, chiefly dependent on the sea, for the mariners of Koweil are noted for their boldness and hardihood.

Political Agent, Major J. C. More, D.S.O.

Muhammerah

On the opposite side of the entrance to the Shatt-el Arab lie the territories of a Sheikh who stands to the Persian Government in much the same relation as does the Sheikh of Koweil to the Government of Turkey—Sheikh Khassal of Muhammerah. Nominally, he is subject to Teheran, on whose behalf he governs his territories as Governor in practice he is more like a semi-independent vassal. The town, favourably situated near the mouth of the Karun River has grown in importance since the opening of the Karun River route to trade through the enterprise of Messrs. Lynch Brothers. This route provides the shortest passage to Isfahan and the central tableland, and already competes with the older route by way of Bushire and Shiraz. This importance has grown since the Anglo-Persian Oil Company established refineries at Muhammerah for the oil which they win in the rich fields which they have tapped near Ahwaz. Its importance will be still further accentuated, if the scheme for a railway to Khorremabad by way of Dibal matures. A concession for a road by this route has long been held by a British Company.

Vice Consul at Ahwas, Captain C. L. Ryan.
Consul for Arabistan (Ahwas), E. G. B. Peel

Basra

In a sense Basra and Turkish Arabistan can hardly be said to come within the scope of the frontiers of India, yet they are so indissolubly associated with the politics of the Gulf that they must be considered in relation thereto. Basra is the inevitable sea terminus of the Baghdad Railway. It stands on the Shatt-el Arab, sixty miles from its mouth, favourably situated to receive the whole water-borne trade of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The local traffic is valuable, for the richness of the date grove on either side of the Shatt-el-Arab is indescribable, there is a considerable entrepot traffic, whilst Basra is the port of entry for Baghdad and for the trade with Persia, which follows the caravan route via Kerman-shah and Hamadan.

The political destinies of Basra are at present wrapped up with the destinies of the new Arab State which we have set up in Mesopotamia under King Faisal. When the war

was over we found ourselves committed to immense, undefined and burdensome responsibilities in that land. The sound concepts which dictated the original expedition were dislocated in the foolish advance to Baghdad, then the great military enterprises necessitated by the fall of Kut-al Amara carried our frontier north to Mosul and the mountains of Kurdistan, east to the Persian boundary, and west to the confines of Trans-Jordan. Amongst ardent Imperialists, there was undoubtedly the hope that this immense area would be in one way or another an integral part of the British Empire. The cold fit followed when the cost was measured, and the Arabs rose in a revolt which showed that any such domination could only be maintained by force of arms and that the cost would be prodigious. Under these circumstances King Faisal was imported from the Hedjaz and installed on the throne under the aegis of Great Britain. Still, we were committed to the support of the new kingdom, and that most dangerous condition arose—responsibility without any real power unless King Faisal was to be a mere puppet, immense expenditure and indefinite military commitments. In these circumstances there was an insistent demand for withdrawal from the land. British policy moved slowly towards that end, but a definite step was taken in 1923. The Secretary of State for the Colonies announced this policy in a statement which is reproduced textually, for the purpose of reference. Addressing the House of Lords on May 3rd he said—

Your Lordships will remember that the Cabinet have been discussing this matter for some time, and decisions have now been taken. Sir Percy Cox has accordingly been authorised by His Majesty's Government to make an announcement at Baghdad, the terms of which I propose to read out to Your Lordships. This announcement was drawn up in consultation with King Faisal and his Government, and has their cordial assent. It is being published at Baghdad to-day.

The announcement is as follows —

"It will be remembered that in the autumn of last year, after a lengthy exchange of views it was decided between the Governments of His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty King Faisal that a Treaty of Alliance should be entered into between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. This Treaty, which was signed on the 10th October, 1922, and the term of which was to be twenty years (subject to periodical revision at the desire of either party) provided for the establishment of an independent Constitutional Government in Iraq, enjoying a certain measure of advice and assistance from Great Britain of the nature and extent indicated in the text of the Treaty itself and of subsidiary Agreements which were to be made thereunder.

' Since then the Iraq Government has made great strides along the path of independent and stable existence and has been able successfully to assume administrative responsibility, and both parties being equally anxious that the commitments and responsibilities of His Majesty's Government in respect of Iraq should be terminated as soon as possible, it is considered that the period of the Treaty in its present

form can conveniently be shortened. In order to obviate the inconvenience of introducing amendments into the body of a Treaty already signed, it has been decided to bring about the necessary modifications by means of a protocol which like the Treaty itself, will be subject to ratification by the Constituent Assembly.

"Accordingly a protocol has now been signed by the parties in the following terms —

'It is understood between the High Contracting Parties that, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 18, the present Treaty shall terminate upon Iraq becoming a member of the League of Nations and in any case not later than four years from the ratification of peace with Turkey. Nothing in this protocol shall prevent a fresh agreement from being concluded with a view to regulate the subsequent relations between the High Contracting Parties and negotiations for that object shall be entered into between them before the expiration of the above period.

It will be noticed that under this protocol the Treaty in its present form is to terminate on the entry of Iraq into the League of Nations or in four years, whichever may be earlier.

The position of Iraq as regards the League is that when the Treaty has been ratified His Britannic Majesty will be bound under Article 6 to use his good offices to secure the admission of Iraq to membership of the League of Nations as soon as possible. His Majesty's Government will be in a position to take this step on the fulfilment of the two following essential conditions, namely, the delimitation of the frontiers of Iraq, and the establishment of a stable government in accordance with the Organic Law. There is every reason to hope that both these conditions will be fulfilled at no distant date.

Under the Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and the Powers, which was signed in 1923, it was agreed that the frontier between King Faisal's State and Turkey, the important frontier because the future of Mosul was in dispute, should be settled by the League of Nations, should Great Britain and Turkey be unable to come to agreement by direct negotiation. These direct negotiations were opened at Constantinople but no agreement was reached, so the question was opened before the Council of the League in September 1924. Whilst the matter was under discussion complaint was made by Great Britain that Turkey had violated the provisional frontier drawn in the Treaty of Lausanne, and certain irregular hostilities were carried on in the disputed zone. This matter too was remitted to the League, and a further provisional boundary was drawn, which was accepted by both parties. As the matter remains at the close of the year the provisional boundary is being observed and the Council of the League is inquiring into the whole issue.

It is important to remember that there is a considerable difference between the vilayet of Basra and the other portions of King Faisal's State. Basra has for long been in the closest commercial contact with India, and is in many respects a commercial appanage of Bombay. Its people have not much in common with those of the North. They took no part in the Arab rising which followed the war, and they ask nothing better than to remain in close



touch with India and through India with the British Government. If we are correct in the supposition that Basra is destined to be the great port of The Middle East, then its future under an Arab State, with no experience of administration in such conditions, is one of the greatest interest which can hardly be regarded as settled by the policy underlying the declaration which is set out above.

The Persian Shore

The Persian shore presents fewer points of permanent interest. The importance of Bushire is administrative rather than commercial. It is the headquarters of Persian authority, the residence of the British Resident, and the centre of many foreign consuls. It is also the main entrepot for the trade of Shiraz, and competes for that of Isfahan. But the anchorage is wretched and dangerous, the road to Shiraz passes over the notorious kotals which preclude the idea of rail connection, and if ever a railway to the central tableland is opened the commercial value of Bushire will dwindle to insignificance. Further south lies Lingah reputed to be the prettiest port on the Persian coast, but its trade is being diverted to Debal on the Ferte Coast. In the narrow channel which forms the entrance to the Gulf from the Arak Sea is Bunder Abbas. Here we are at the

key of the Gulf. Bunder Abbas is of some importance as the outlet for the trade of Kerman and Yezd. It is of still more importance as a possible naval base. To the west of the town between the Island of Kishm and the mainland, lie the Clarence Straits which narrow until they are less than three miles in width, and yet contain abundance of water. Here, according to sound naval opinion, there is the possibility of creating a naval base which would command the Gulf. The great obstacle is the climate, which is one of the worst in the world. On the opposite shore, under the shadow of Cape Musandim, lies another sheltered deep water anchorage, Elphinstone's Inlet, where the climate conditions are equally vile. But between these two points there is the possibility of controlling the Gulf just as Gibraltar controls the Mediterranean. For many years Bunder Abbas loomed large in public discussions as the possible warm water port for which Russia was seeking. On the Mekran coast, there is the cable station of Jask, and the possible port of Chahbar.

Offg. Political Resident in the Persian Gulf—
Lt Col F B Pridoux, C.B.I., C.I.E.

Offg. Residency Surgeon at Bushire— Capt J J Rooney, I.M.S.

Consul at Bunder Abbas and Assistant to the Resident— G A Richardson, O.B.E.

II—SEISTAN.

The concentration of public attention on the Persian Gulf was allowed to obscure the frontier importance of Seistan. Yet it was for many years a serious preoccupation with the Government of India. Seistan lies midway north and south between the point where the frontiers of Russia, Persia and Afghanistan meet at Zulfikar and that where the frontiers of Persia and of our Indian Empire meet on the open sea at Gwattur. It marches on its eastern border with Afghanistan and with Baluchistan, it commands the valley of the Helmand, and with it the road from Herat to Kandahar, and its immense resources as a wheat producing region have been only partly developed under Persian misrule. It offers to an aggressive rival, an admirable strategic base for future military operations, it is also midway athwart the track of the shortest line which could be built to connect the Trans Caspian Railway with the Indian Ocean, and if and when the line from Askabad to Meshed were built, the temptation to extend it through Seistan would be strong. Whilst the gaze of the British was concentrated on the North-West Frontier, and to possible lines of advance through Kandahar to Quetta, and through Kabul to Peshawar, there can be little doubt that Russian attention was directed to a more leisurely movement through Seistan. If the day came when she moved her armies against India

intrigue was particularly active in Seistan in the early years of the century. Having Russianified Khorassan her agents moved into Seistan and through the agency of the Belgian Customs officials, scientific missions and an irritating plague cordon, sought to establish influence, and to stifle the British trade which was gradually being built up by way of Nushki. These efforts died down before the presence of the McMahon mission, which, in pursuance of Treaty rights, was demarcating the boundary between Persia and Afghanistan, with special reference to the distribution of the waters of the Helmand. They finally ceased with the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement. Since then the international importance of Seistan has waned.

The natural conditions which give to Seistan this strategic importance persist. Meantime British influence is being consolidated through the Seistan trade route. The distance from Quetta to the Seistan border at Killa Bobat is 465 miles, most of it dead level, and it has now been provided with fortified posts, dak bungalows, wells, and all facilities for caravan traffic. The railway was pushed out from Spesand, on the Bolan Railway to Nushki, so as to provide a better starting point for the caravans than Quetta. This line was extended to Duzdab, on the Persian Frontier, during the war as a military measure but the traffic supports only two trains a week.

Whether with this purpose or not, Russian

Railway Position in the Middle East.



III—PERSIA.

From causes which only need to be very briefly set out, the Persian question as affecting Indian frontier policy has receded until it is of no account. Reference is made in the introduction to this section to the fact that the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement left us a bitter legacy in Persia. That Agreement divided Persia into two zones of influence, and the Persians bitterly resented this apparent division of their kingdom between the two Powers, though no such end was in view. German agents, working cleverly on this feeling, established an influence which was not suspected, and when the war broke out they were able to raise the tribes in opposition to Great Britain, in the South, and after the fall of Kut-al-Amara, when a Turkish Division penetrated Western Persia, they exercised a strong influence in Teheran. With the defeat of Turkey and the Central Powers this influence disappeared but at that time there was no authority in Persia besides that of the British Government, which had strong forces in the North West and controlled the southern provinces through a force organised under British officers and called The South Persian Rifles. It was one of the first tasks of the British Government to regularise this position, and for this purpose an Agreement was reached with the then Persian Government, the main features of which were—

To respect Persian integrity.

To supply experts for Persian administration.

To supply officers and equipment for a Persian force for the maintenance of order.

To provide a loan for these purposes.

To co-operate with the Persian Government in railway construction and other forms of transport.

Both Governments agreed to the appointment of a joint committee to examine and revise the Customs tariff.

The second agreement defined the terms and conditions on which the loan was to be made to Persia. The loan was for £2,000,000 at 7 per cent. redeemable in 20 years. It was secured on the revenues and Customs' receipts assigned for

the repayment of the 1911 loan and should these be insufficient the Persian Government was to make good the necessary sums from other sources.

The Present Position.—We have given the main points in the Anglo-Persian agreement, because few documents have been more misunderstood. Those who desire to study it in greater detail will find it set out in The Indian Year Book for 1921, page 138 et seq. It has been explained that most Persians construed it into a guarantee of protection against all external enemies. When the British troops in the north retired before the Bolsheviks, the Persians had no use for the Agreement and it soon became a dead instrument. It was finally rejected and the advisers who were to have assisted Persia under it withdrew.

The South Persian Rifles were also disbanded. Thenceforth Great Britain withdrew entirely from any active participation in Persian affairs. After a period of confusion order was established in Persia by the Sirdar Sipah, a rough but energetic soldier, who made the authority of his administration respected throughout the land. He has the assistance of a body of American financial experts, who are striving to rehabilitate the finances. Whilst subterranean forces are at work, and the murder of the American Consul, Major Imrie, made an unpleasant impression, on the whole a stable energetic Government has been maintained and the relations of Persia with her neighbours are good. But the form of Government is quite different from the constitution which established the Mejlis. The Shah spends most of his time in Europe, but a proposal to establish a republic in Persia was stillborn, owing to the opposition of the religious leaders.

Sir Percy Lorraine assumed office as British Minister at Teheran in December 1921.

H. B. M.'s Consul General and Agent of the Government of India in Khurasan.—Lieut. Colonel H. B. Haworth.

H. B. M.'s Consul in Sudan and Kain.—B. J. Gould, C.I.E.

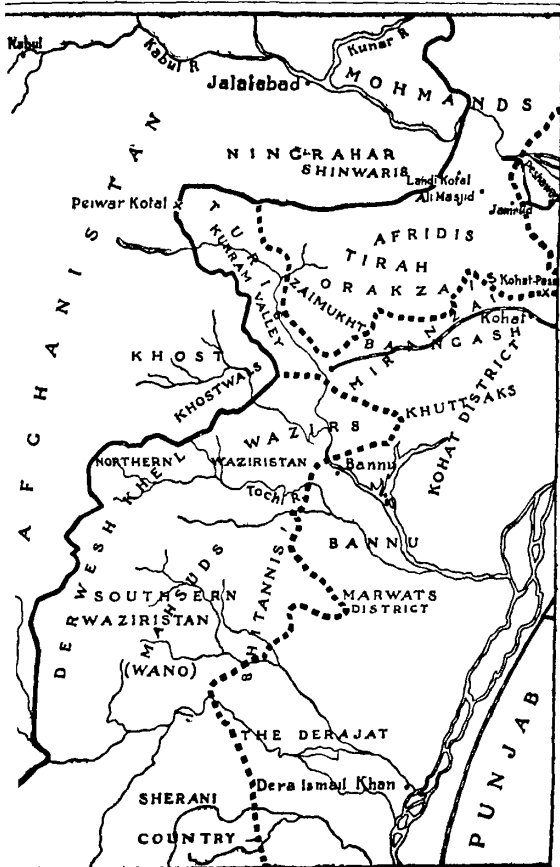
Medical Officer and Vice-Consul.—Major R. F. D. MacGregor, I.M.S.

IV.—THE PRESENT FRONTIER PROBLEM

There yet remains a small part of British India where the King's writ does not run. Under what is called the Durand Agreement with the Amir of Afghanistan, the boundary between India and Afghanistan was settled, and it was delimited in 1903 except for a small section which was delimited after the Afghan War in 1919. But the Government of India have never occupied up to the border. Between the administered territory and the Durand line there lies a belt of territory of varying width extending from the Gomal Pass in the south, to Kashmir in the north, this is generically known as the Independent Territory. Its future is the keynote of the interminable discussions of frontier policy for nearly half a century.

This is a country of deep valleys and secluded glens, which nature has fenced in with almost inaccessible mountains. It is peopled with wild tribes of mysterious origin, in whom

Afghan, Tartar, Turkoman, Persian, Indian, Arab and Jewish intermingle. They have lived their own lives for centuries, with little intercourse even amongst themselves, and as Sir Valentine Chirol truly said "the only bond that ever could unite them in common action was the bond of Islam." It is impossible to understand the Frontier problem unless two facts are steadily borne in mind. The strongest sentiment amongst these strange people is the desire to be left alone. They value their independence much more than their lives. The other factor is that the country does not suffice even in good years to maintain the population. They must find the means of subsistence outside, either in trade, by service in the Indian Army or in the Khassadar, or else in the outlet which hill-men all the world over have utilised from time immemorial, the raiding of the wealthier and more peaceful population of the Plain.



Frontier Policy.

The policy of the Government of India to ward the Independent Territory has ebbed and flowed in a remarkable degree. It has fluctuated between the Forward School, which would occupy the frontier up to the confines of Afghanistan, and the school of Masterly Inactivity, which would leave the tribesmen entirely to their own resources, punishing them only when they raided British territory. Behind both the policies lay the menace of a Russian invasion, and that coloured our frontier policy until the Anglo-Russian Agreement. This induced what was called Hit and Retire tactics. In the half century which ended in 1897 there were nearly a score of punitive expeditions, each one of which left behind a legacy of distrust, and which brought no permanent improvement in its train. The fruit of the suspicion thus engendered was seen in 1897. Then the whole Frontier, from the Malakand to the Gomal, was ablaze. The extent of this rising and the magnitude of the military measures which were taken to meet it compelled a consideration of the whole position. The broad outlines of the new policy were laid down in a despatch from the Secretary of State for India, which prescribed for the Government the "limitation of your interference with the tribes, so as to avoid the extension of administrative control over tribal territory." It fell to Lord Curzon to give effect to this policy. The main foundations of his action were to exercise over the tribes the political influence requisite to secure our imperial interests, to pay them subsidies for the performance of specific duties, but to respect their tribal independence and leave them, as far as possible, free to govern themselves according to their own traditions and to follow their own inherited habits of life without let or hindrance.

New Province.

As a first step Lord Curzon took the control of the tribes under the direct supervision of the Government of India. Up to this point they had been in charge of the Government of the Punjab, a province whose head is busied with many other concerns. Lord Curzon created in 1901, the North-West Frontier Province, and placed it in charge of a Chief Commissioner with an intimate frontier experience, directly subordinate to the Government of India. This was a revival of a scheme prepared by Lord Lytton in 1877, and often considered afterwards, but which had slipped for lack of driving power. Next Lord Curzon withdrew the regular troops so far as possible from the advanced posts, and placed these fortresses in charge of tribal levies, officered by a handful of British officers. The most successful of these was the Khyber Rifles, which steadfastly kept the peace of that historic Pass until 1919. At the same time the regular troops were cantoned in places whence they could quickly move to any danger point, and these bases were connected with the Indian Railway system. In pursuance of this policy frontier railways were run out to Dargal, and a narrow-gauge line, since converted to the broad-gauge, was constructed from Kushalgarh to Kohat at the entrance of the Kohat

Pass, and to Thal at the mouth of the Kurram Valley. These railways have been completed by lines to Tonk and Banna. By this means the striking power of the regular forces was greatly increased. Nor was the policy of economic development neglected. The railways gave a powerful stimulus to trade, and the Lower Swat Canal converted fractious tribesmen into successful agriculturists. This policy of economic development is receiving a great development through the completion of the Upper Swat Canal (q v Irrigation). Now it is completed there are other works awaiting attention. For many years this policy was completely justified by results.

A New Policy

It saved us from serious complications for nearly twenty years, although the position could never be said to be entirely satisfactory particularly in Waziristan, peopled by the most reckless raiders on the whole border-line with a bolt hole into Afghanistan when pressed from the British side. It endured throughout the war and did not break down until the Amir of Afghanistan sought refuge from his internal troubles in a Jihad against India. In this insane enterprise the Afghans placed less reliance in their regular troops, which have never offered more than a contemptible resistance to the British forces, than in the armed tribesmen. In this they were justified, for the most serious fighting was with the tribesmen. The tribal levies collapsed with almost universal swiftness. The Southern Waziristan Militia broke and there was serious trouble throughout the Zhob district. The Afridis, our most serious enemies in 1897, and the most powerful of the tribes on the North-West Frontier, remained fairly quiet throughout the actual hostilities with Afghanistan, but later, it was necessary to take measures against a leading malcontent and destroy his fort at Chora. But the Mahsuds and the Waziris broke into open hostilities. Their country lies within the belt bounded by the Durand Line and the Afghan frontier on the west, and by the districts of Bannu and Dehra Ismail Khan on the east. Amongst them the Afghan emissaries were particularly active and as they could put in the field some 30,000 warriors, 75 per cent armed with modern weapons of precision, they constituted formidable adversaries. They refused to make peace, even when the Afghans caved in. They rejected overtures and active measures were taken against them. The fighting was the most severe in the history of the Frontier. The Mahsuds fought with great tenacity. Their shooting was amazingly good, their tactics were admirable, for amongst their ranks were many men trained either in the Militia or in the Indian Army and more than once they came within measurable distance of considerable success. They were assisted by the fact that the best trained troops in the Indian Army were still overseas and younger soldiers were opposed to them. But their very tenacity and bravery were their own undoing. Their losses were the heaviest in the long history of the Borderland and when the Mahsuds made their complete submission in September 1921 they were more severely chastened than at any time during their career.

A New Chapter.—As the result of the Afghan War of 1919, Indian frontier policy was again thrown into the melting pot. There was much vague discussion of the position in the course of the months which followed the Afghan War and the troubles in Waziristan which succeeded it, but this discussion did not really come to a head until February-March 1922. The Budget then presented to the country revealed a serious financial position. It showed that despite serious increases in taxation, the country had suffered a series of deficits, which had been financed out of borrowings. Further heavy taxation was proposed in this Budget, but even then the equilibrium which the financial authorities regarded as of paramount importance was not attained. When the accounts were examined, it was seen that the heaviest charges on the exchequer were those under Military Expenses, and that there was an indefinitely large, and seemingly unending expenditure on Waziristan. This forced the Military, and allied with it the Frontier, expenditure to the front. In actual practice the discussion is really focussed on Waziristan. In essentials it is the aged controversy—shall we deal with this part of the frontier on what is known as the Sandeman system, namely, by occupying commanding posts within the country itself, dominating the tribesmen but interfering little in their own affairs, or shall we revert to what was known as the close border system, as modified by Lord Curzon, of withdrawing our regular troops to strategic positions outside the tribal area, leaving the tribesmen, organised into militia to keep the passes open, and punishing the tribesmen by expeditions when their raiding propensities become unbearable.

The Curzon Policy.—The Curzon policy, adopted in 1899, to clear up the aftermath of the serious and unsatisfactory Frontier rising in 1897, was a compromise between the "occupation" and the "close border" policies. It was based on the withdrawal of the regular troops so far as possible to cantonments in rear whilst the frontier posts, such as those in the Tochi at Wana and in the Khyber and Kurram were held by militia, recruited from amongst the tribesmen themselves. The cantonments for regular troops were linked so far as possible with the Indian railway system, so as to permit of rapid reinforcement. But it must be remembered that like all Frontier students, Lord Curzon did not regard this as the final policy. He wrote in the Memorandum formulating his ideas "It is of course inevitable that in the passage of time the whole Waziri country up to the Durand line will come more and more under our control. No policy in the world can resist or

greatly retard that consummation. My desire is to bring it about by gradual degrees and above all without the constant aid and presence of British troops." The Curzon policy, though it was not pursued with the steadfastness he would have followed if he had remained in control, gave us moderate—or rather it should be said bearable—frontier conditions until the Afghan War. It then broke down, because the tribal militia, on which it was based, could not withstand the wave of fanaticism, and other conditions set up by the Afghan invasion of 1919. The Khyber militia faded away, the Waziri militia either mutinied, as at Wana, or deserted. The pillar of the Curzon system fell, in the military phrase of the hour, it could not stand the test of religious fanaticism or an Afghan War. The very word Militia became anathema.

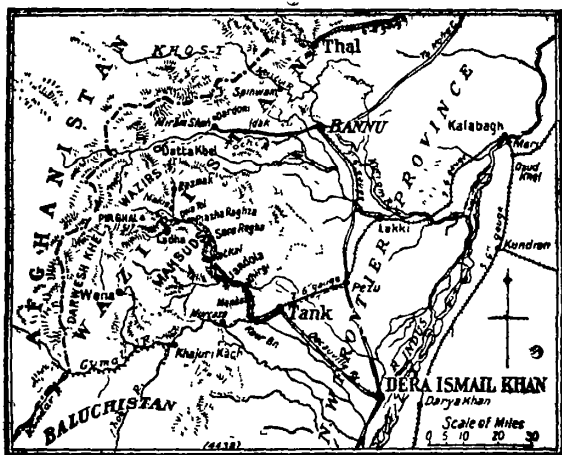
The Policy.—The new policy adumbrated to meet these changed conditions was outlined by Lord Chelmsford, the then Viceroy, in a speech which he addressed to the Indian Legislatures. He said it had been decided to retain commanding posts in Waziristan, to open up the country by roads, to extend the main Indian railway system from its then terminus, Jamrud, through the Khyber to the frontier of Afghanistan and to take over the duties of the Militia by regular troops. That immediate policy was soon modified so far as the garrisoning of these frontier positions by Regular troops was concerned. Such duties are immensely unpopular in the regular army, which is not organised and equipped for work of this character. Irregulars have always existed on the frontier and as they had disappeared with the Militia, it was necessary to recreate them. The new form of irregular was what have been called *Khasadars* and *Scouts*. The *Khasadar* is an extremely irregular irregular. He has no British officers and no uniform, except a distinguishing kind of *pagri*. In contradistinction to the old Militia, he finds his own rifle. As one informed observer remarked, the beauty of the system is that so long as the *Khasadars*, under their own headmen, secure the immunity of the caravans and perform their other police duties, they draw their pay and no questions are asked. If they desert in the day of trouble, they lose their pay but the Government loses no rifles, nor does it risk mutiny or the loss of British and Indian officers. But the application of this policy produced an acute controversy. It was one thing to say that commanding posts in Waziristan should be retained, it was another to decide what these posts should be. We must therefore consider the special problem of Waziristan.

V.—WAZIRISTAN.

We can now approach the real frontier question of the day, the future of Waziristan. What follows is drawn from an admirable article contributed to the January number of "The Journal of the United Service Institution of India," written by Lt-Col G M South, D S O. Geographically Waziristan is a rough parallelogram averaging 60 miles from East to West and 160 from North to South. The western

half consists of the Sulaiman Range gradually rising up to the ridge from five to ten thousand feet high, which forms the water shed between the Indus and the Helmand Rivers and corresponds with the Durand Line separating India from Afghanistan. This is the western boundary. On the east is the Indus. North is the water shed of the Kurram River running East and West about 30 miles north of Bannu separating

WAZIRISTAN



Waziristan from the Kohat District. South is a zigzag political boundary from the Durand Line running between Wana and Fort Sandeman in Baluchistan with a turn southwards to the Indus.

The western half is a rugged and inhospitable medley of ridges and ravines straggled and confused in hopeless chaos. The more inhabited portions lie well up the slope at heights of four to six thousand feet. Here are our outposts of Wana and Ladha some 15 and 20 miles respectively from the Durand Line, in the centre of the grazing district, the latter within five miles of important villages of Kaniguram and Makin.

The submontane tracts from the hills to the Indus vary from the highly cultivated and irrigated land round Bannu to the sandy desert in the Marwat above Pesu.

Where irrigation or river water is obtainable cultivation is attempted under conditions which can hardly be encouraging. Other tracts like that between Pesu and Tank, usually pastoral, can only hope for an occasional crop after a lucky rainfall.

Inhabitants—The inhabitants, unable to support existence on their meagre soil, make up the margin by armed robbery of their richer and more peaceful neighbours. The name originates according to tradition from one Wazir, two of whose grandsons were the actual founders of the race. Of the four main tribes, Darwahkhel, Mahsuds, Dawars and Batanni, only the first two are true Wazirs. Their villages are separate though dotted about more or less indiscriminately, and intermarriage is the exception—in fact all traditionally are in open strife, a circumstance which, until some bright political comet like the Afghan War of 1919 joined them together, as materially aided our dealings with them.

Unlike other parts of India, however, these wild people acknowledge little allegiance to maliks or headmen. No one except perhaps the Mulla Powindah till his death in 1913 could speak of any portion of them as his following.

Policy—The policy of the British was at first one of non-interference with the tribes. Even now only part of the country is administered. Gradually it was found that more and more supervision became necessary to control raiding and this was attempted by expeditions to portions of the country with Regulars, followed by building posts and brick towers to be held by Militia. These posts were at first placed at the points where raiders usually debouched. The Political Officers, at first supported by Regulars, built up from 1904 onwards a force of some 8,000 Militia with British Officers at their disposal, who were backed up by the garrisons at Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. In addition certain allowances were made to the tribes for good behaviour, prevention of raids and surrender of offenders when required, also for tribal escorts as necessary. Gradually, as occasion required, posts were occupied. Wana was occupied in 1895 at the request of the Wana Wazirs. Similarly the Tochi in 1896. In the comprehensive expedition of 1896-98 when this policy was put into effect, the British arms were shown in every remote valley in the vain hope of taming the Mahsuds.

It was hoped the various posts would prove a pacifying influence and a rallying ground for Government supporters. From 1904 to 1919, they were held by Militia. Roads and communications were improved and tribal allowances augmented by sales of produce to the troops on a liberal scale.

A Programme—Lt. Col. Bouth then obtained a possible policy for Waziristan. We give it textually, because we believe it substantially reflects military opinion in India—

To the unprejudiced mind it appears more practical to grasp the nettle firmly and dominate the inhabited tracts. Why should not the road now being made to Ladha be continued 36 miles north to the Tochi road at Datta Khel and 29 miles south to Wana? Why should we not occupy the healthier portions of Waziristan rather than the foothills or Cis-Indus zones? The Basmak district round Makin 6,000 feet up is both healthy and fertile. The same applies to the Shawal valley lying behind Pir Gul, the national peak near Ladha rising to a height of 11,556 feet above the sea. The Wana plain, 5,000 feet up, 30 miles by 15, could with railways support an army corps, there is no doubt that a forward railway policy will help to solve the problem. A line has been surveyed from Tank to Draban and thence up the valley to Fort Sandeman, so connecting with the Zhob and perhaps later to Wana. The Gumal Tangi from Murtasa to Khajuri Kach is the apparently obvious route, but would be prohibitively expensive in construction and require much tunnelling. Beyond Khajuri Kach via Tanal and Rogha Kot to Wana, some 23 miles, offers no difficulty. The old policy of the raiders working westwards and our retributive expeditions stretching their very temporary tentacles eastwards seems to suggest better lateral communications. The broad gauge at Kohat might without undue cost be extended to Thal and thence to Idak via Spinwar. From here till further extension proved desirable, a motor road through Basmak, Makin and Dwatol to link up with that now surveyed to Ladha sounds possible to the looker on. Eventually such communications, road, rail, or both, could continue to Wana, Fort Sandeman and Quetta via Hindu Bagh, a strategic line offering great defensive possibilities substituting Basmak, which resembles Otacumund, and healthy uplands for the deadly fever spots now occupied. The very fact of employing the tribesmen on these works with good pay and good engineers tends to pacify the country as well as providing healthy accessible hill stations in place of the proverbially comfortless cantonments which now exist in this part of the Frontier.

The Compromise—The new policy, which has been called "the half forward policy," was announced in 1923. It was a compromise between the two extreme schools of thought.

This involves the completion of various roads fit for mechanical transport within Waziristan and along the Derajat border, the holding of certain posts, Jandola and Basmak, by Regular troops until this road programme is completed, and thereafter the location of Scouts, who are *maudito nomine* militia, at certain points on the roads within Waziristan, assisted by *Khasassers*, or local levies, finding their own arms and led by their own leaders.

The Result—With a definite decision on the question of policy the intense interest in the frontier controversy waned, though mutterings are heard from time to time. The greater peace which ensued during the year is also a justification for the methods which actually were applied. An official exposition of the Government Policy announced that the Government were determined to bring the Mahaud country, the heart of Waziristan, under control. Military occupation was for financial reasons impracticable and its place would be taken by a system of internal control based on Scouts and Khassadars, and partly by external super-

vision from the two posts of Mansal and Rasmak, which though outside Mahaud territory effectively overlook it. A mechanical transport road links the Tochi with Rasmak and Jandola. The result of this policy, it was declared, would be to rob the Mahauds of the inaccessibility which has been the root cause of that persistence in barbarism which made them a by word amongst Pathans. At the same time the Khassadar system gives the tribe a stake in the administration of law and order, whilst the construction of a hundred and forty miles of road provides the channels through which civilisation may gradually penetrate.

VI—AFGHANISTAN.

The relations of Afghanistan with the Indian Empire were for long dominated by one main consideration—the relation of Afghanistan to a Russian invasion of India. All other considerations were of secondary importance. For nearly three-quarters of a century the attitude of Great Britain toward successive Amirs has been dictated by this one factor. It was in order to prevent Afghanistan from coming under the influence of Russia that the first Afghan War of 1838 was fought—the most melancholy episode in Indian frontier history. It was because a Russian envoy was received at Kabul whilst the British representative was turned back at All Masjid that the Afghan War of 1878 was waged. After that the whole end of British policy toward Afghanistan was to build up a strong independent State, friendly to Britain, which would act as a buffer against Russia, and so to order our frontier policy that we should be in a position to move large forces up, if necessary, to support the Afghans in resisting aggression.

Gates to India.

A knowledge of the trans frontier geography of India brought home to her administrators the conviction that there were only two main gates to India—through Afghanistan, the historic route to India, along which successive invasions have poured, and by way of Seistan. It was the purpose of British policy to close them, and of Russia to endeavour to keep them at any rate half open. To this end having pushed her trans Persian railway to Samarkand Russia thrust a military line from Merv to the Kushkinkay Post, where railway material is collected for its immediate prolongation to Herat. Later, she connected the trans-Siberian railway with the trans-Caucasian system, by the Orenburg-Tashkent line, thus bringing Central Asia into direct touch with her European magazines. Nor has Great Britain been idle. A great military station has been created at Quetta. This is connected with the Indian railway system by lines of railway which climb to the Quetta Plateau by the Bolan Pass and through the Chaghar Rift, lines which rank amongst the most picturesque and daring in the world. From Quetta the line has been carried by the Khokh tunnel through the Khwaja Amran Range, until it leads out to the Afghan Border at New Chaman, where it opens on the route to Kandahar. The material is stocked at New Chaman, which would enable the line to be started to Kandahar in sixty days. In view

of the same menace the whole of Baluchistan has been brought under British control. Quetta is now one of the great strategic positions of the world, and nothing has been left undone which modern military science can achieve to add to its natural strength. In the opinion of many military authorities it firmly closes the western gate to India, either by way of Kandahar, or the direct route through Seistan.

Further east the Indian railway system has been carried to Jamrud and is being pushed up to the Khyber Pass. A first class military road sometimes double, sometimes treble, threads the Pass to our advanced post at Landi Kotal, and then descends until it meets the Afghan frontier at Landi Khana. Later, a commencement was made with the Loai Shilman Railway, which, starting from Peshawar, was designed to penetrate the Mullagori country and provide an alternative advance to the Khyber for the movement of British troops for the defence of Kabul. For unexplained reasons, this line was suddenly stopped and is now thrust in the air. In this wise the two Powers prepared for the great conflict which was to be fought on the Kandahar-Ghazni-Kabul line.

Relations with India.

Between the advanced posts on either side stands the Kingdom of Afghanistan. The end of British policy has been to make it strong and friendly. In the first particular it has largely succeeded. When the late Abdurrahman was invited to ascend the throne, as the only means of escape from the tangle of 1879, none realised his great qualities. Previously the Amir of Afghanistan had been the chief of a confederacy of clans. Abdurrahman made himself master in his own kingdom. By means into which it is not well closely to enter, he beat down opposition until none dared lift a hand against him. Aided by a British subsidy of twelve lakhs of rupees a year, increased to eighteen by the Durand Agreement of 1893, and subsequently to over 20 lakhs, he established a strong standing army and set up arsenals under foreign supervision to furnish it with arms and ammunition. Step by step his position was regularised. The Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission, which nearly precipitated war over the Panjdeh episode in 1885, determined the northern boundaries. The Pamirs Agreement delimited the borders amid those snowy heights. The Durand Agreement settled the border on the British side, except for a small section to the west of the Khyber which remained a fruitful source

of trouble between Afghanistan and ourselves until 1919, when the Afghan claims and action upon the undemarcated section led to war. That section was finally surveyed and the frontier determined shortly after the conclusion of peace with Afghanistan. Finally the McMahon award closed the old feud with Persia over the distribution of the waters of the Helmand in Belistan. It was estimated by competent authorities that about the time of Abdurrahman's death, Afghanistan was in a position to place in the field, in the event of war, one hundred thousand well-armed regular and irregular troops, to gether with two hundred thousand tribal levies, and to leave fifty thousand regulars and irregulars and a hundred thousand levies to maintain order in Kabul and the provinces. But if Afghanistan were made strong, it was not made friendly. Abdurrahman Khan distrusted British policy up to the day of his death. All that can be said is that he distrusted it less than he distrusted Russia, and if the occasion had arisen for him to make a choice, he would have opposed a Russian advance with all the force at his disposal. He closed his country absolutely against all foreigners, except those who were necessary for the supervision of his arsenals and factories. He refused to accept a British Resident, on the ground that he could not protect him, and British affairs were entrusted to an Indian agent, who was in a most equivocal position. At the same time he repeatedly pressed for the right to pass by the Government of India and to establish his own representative at the Court of St James.

Afghanistan and the War—These relations were markedly improved during the reign of His Majesty the Amir Habibullah Khan. It used to be one of the trite sayings of the Frontier that the system which Abdurrahman Khan had built up would perish with him, for none was capable of maintaining it. Habibullah Khan more than maintained it. He visited India soon after his accession and acquired a vivid knowledge of the power and resources of the Empire. He strengthened and consolidated his authority in Afghanistan itself. At the outset of the war he made a declaration of his complete neutrality. It is believed—a considerable reticence is preserved over our relations with Afghanistan—that he warned the Government of India that he might be forced into many equivocal acts, but they must trust him, certainly his reception of Turkish, Austrian and German missions at Kabul, at a time when British representatives were severely excluded, was open to grave misconstruction. But a fuller knowledge induced the belief that the Amir was in a position of no little difficulty. He had to compromise with the fanatical and anti-British elements amongst his own people, inflamed by the Turkish preaching of a jihad, or holy Islamic war. But he committed no act of hostility as soon as it was safe to do so he turned the members of these missions out of the kingdom. At the end of the war his policy was completely justified, he had kept Afghanistan out of the war, he had adhered to the winning side, his authority in the kingdom and in Central Asia was at its zenith.

Murder of the Amir—It is believed that if he had lived Habibullah Khan would have used this authority for a progressive policy in Afghanistan, by opening up communications and extending his engagements with India. He was courted by the representatives of Persia and the Central Asian States as the possible rallying centre of a Central Asian Islamic confederation. At this moment he was assassinated on the 26th February 1919. The circumstances surrounding his murder have never been fully explained, but there is strong ground for the belief that it was promoted by the reactionaries who had harassed him all his reign. These realised that with his vindication by the war their time of reckoning had come, they anticipated it by snubbing one of his aides to murder him in his sleep. His brother, Nasrullah Khan, the nominee of the fanatical element, was proclaimed Amir at Jelalabad in his stead, but public opinion in Afghanistan revolted at the idea of the brother seizing power over the corpse of the murdered man. His sons, Hayat and Amanullah, were not disposed to waive their heritage. Amanullah was at Kabul, controlling the treasury and the arsenal and supported by the Army. Nasrullah found it impossible to make head against him and withdrew. The new Amir, Amanullah, at once communicated his accession to the Government of India and proclaimed his desire to adhere to the traditional policy of friendship. But his difficulties at once commenced, he had to deal with the war party in Afghanistan, he was confronted with the dissatisfaction arising from the manner in which the murderers of Habibullah had been dealt with, the fanatical element was exasperated by the imprisonment of Nasrullah, and the Army was so incensed that it had to be removed from Kabul and given occupation to divert its thoughts. A further element of complexity was introduced by the political situation in India. The agitation against the Rowlatt Act was at its height. The disturbances in the Punjab and Gujarat had taken place. Afghan agents in India, of whom the most prominent was Ghulam Hyder Khan, the Afghan postmaster at Peshawar, flooded Afghanistan with exaggerated accounts of the Indian unrest. The result of all this was to convince the Amir that the real solution of his difficulties was to unite all the disturbing elements in a war with India. On the 25th April his troops were set in motion and simultaneously a stream of anti-British propaganda commenced to flow from Kabul and open intrigue was started with the Frontier tribes, on whom the Afghans placed their chief reliance.

Speedy Defeat—The war caught the Army in India in the throes of demobilisation and with a large proportion of the seasoned troops on service abroad. Nevertheless the regular Afghan Army was rapidly dealt with. Strong British forces moved up the Khyber and seized Dacca. Jelalabad was repeatedly bombed from the air and also Kabul. Nothing but a shortage of mechanical transport prevented the British forces from seizing Jelalabad. In ten days the Afghans were severely defeated. On the 14th May they asked for an armistice. With the usual Afghan spirit of haggling, they tried to water down the conditions of the armistice, but as they were met with

an uncompromising emphasis of the situation they despatched representatives to a conference at Rawalpindi on the 26th July. On the 8th August a Treaty of Peace was signed which is set out in the Indian Year Book 1923, pp 196-197.

Post War Relations—It will be seen that under this Treaty the way was paved for a fresh engagement six months afterwards. During the hot weather of 1920 there were prolonged discussions at Muzsoorie between Afghan Representatives and British officials under Sir Henry Dobbs. These were private, but it is believed that a complete agreement was reached. Certainly after an interchange of Notes which revealed no major point of difference it was agreed that a British Mission should proceed to Kabul to arrange a definite treaty of peace. This Mission crossed the Border in January 1921 and entered Kabul where a peace treaty was signed.

The main points of the Treaty are set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp 197, 198-199.

Since the signing of the Treaty the relations between the Government of India and Afghanistan have been good. A difficulty arose in December 1923 and January 1924 when a gang of desperadoes, whose object was the murder or kidnapping of British officials and Englishwomen found harbourage in Afghanistan, but when this was broken up the incident closed. A British Minister is established in Kabul, as well as the representatives of other European States. The representatives of Afghanistan are established in India and in London, and at some of the European capitals. The various subsidiary agreements under the Treaty have been carried into effect. *British Representative* Major Humphreys.

VII—TIBET.

Recent British policy in Tibet is really another phase in the long-drawn-out dual between Great Britain and Russia in Central Asia. The earliest efforts to establish communication with that country were not, of course, inspired by this apprehension. When in 1774 Warren Hastings despatched Bogle on a mission to the Tashi-Lama of Shigatse,—the spiritual equal, if not superior, of the Dalai Lama of Lhasa,—his desire was to establish facilities for trade, to open up friendly relations with a Power which was giving us trouble on the frontier, and gradually to pave the way to a good understanding between the two countries. After Warren Hastings' departure from India the subject slept, and the last Englishman to visit Lhasa, until the Younghusband Expedition of 1904, was the unofficial Manning. In 1885, under the inspiration of Colman Macaulay, of the Bengal Civil Service, a further attempt was made to get into touch with the Tibetans, but it was abandoned in deference to the opposition of the Chinese, whose suzerainty over Tibet was recognised, and to whose views until the war with Japan, British statesmen were inclined to pay excessive deference. But the position on the Tibetan frontier continued to be most unsatisfactory. The Tibetans were aggressive and obstructive, and with a view to putting an end to an intolerable situation, a Convention was negotiated between Great Britain and China in 1890. This laid down the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet, it admitted a British protectorate over Sikkim, and paved the way for arrangements for the conduct of trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontier. These supplementary arrangements provided for the opening of a trade mart at Yatung, on the Tibetan side of the frontier, to which British subjects should have the right of free access, and where there should be no restrictions on trade. The agreement proved useless in practice, because the Tibetans refused to recognise it, and despite their established suzerainty, the Chinese Government were unable to secure respect for it.

Russian Intervention.

This was the position when in 1899 Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, endeavoured to get into direct touch with the Tibetan authorities. Three letters which he addressed to the Dalai Lama were returned unopened, at a time when the Dalai Lama was in direct intercourse with the Tsar of Russia. His emissary was a Siberian Dordjeff, who had established a remarkable ascendancy in the councils of the Dalai Lama. After a few years' residence at Lhasa Dordjeff went to Russia on a confidential mission in 1899. At the end of 1900 he returned to Russia at the head of a Tibetan mission, of which the head was officially described in Russia as "the senior Thantse Khomba attached to the Dalai Lama of Tibet." This mission arrived at Odessa in October 1900, and was received in audience by the Tsar at Livadia. Dordjeff returned to Lhasa to report progress, and in 1901 was at St. Petersburg with a Tibetan mission, where as bearers of an autograph letter from the Dalai Lama they were received by the Tsar at Peterhoff. They were escorted home through Central Asia by a Russian force to which several Intelligence Officers were attached. At the time it was rumoured that Dordjeff had, on behalf of the Dalai Lama, concluded a treaty with Russia, which virtually placed Tibet under the protectorate of Russia. This rumour was afterwards officially contradicted by the Russian Government.

The Expedition of 1904.

In view of these conditions the Government of India, treating the idea of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet as a constitutional fiction, proposed in 1903 to despatch a mission, with an armed escort, to Lhasa to discuss the outstanding questions with the Tibetan authorities on the spot. To this the Home Government could not assent, but agreed, in conjunction with the Chinese Government, to a joint meeting at Khamba Jong, on the Tibetan side of the frontier. Sir Francis Younghusband

was the British representative, but after months of delay it was ascertained that the Tibetans had no intention of committing themselves. It was therefore agreed that the mission, with a strong escort, should move to Gyantse. On the way the Tibetans developed marked hostility, and there was fighting at Tuna, and several sharp encounters in and around Gyantse. It was therefore decided that the mission should advance to Lhasa, and on August 8th, 1904, Lhasa was reached. There Sir Francis Younghusband negotiated a convention by which the Tibetans agreed to respect the Chinese Convention of 1890, to open trade marts at Gyantse, Gartok and Yatung, to pay an indemnity of £500,000 (seventy-five lakhs of rupees), the British to remain in occupation of the Chumbi Valley until this indemnity was paid off at the rate of a lakh of rupees a year. In a separate instrument the Tibetans agreed that the British Trade Agent at Gyantse should have the right to proceed to Lhasa to discuss commercial questions, if necessary.

Home Government intervenes

For reasons which were not apparent at the time, but which have since been made clearer, the Home Government were unable to accept the full terms of this agreement. The indemnity was reduced from seventy-five lakhs of rupees to twenty-five lakhs, to be paid off in three years, and the occupation of the Chumbi Valley was reduced to that period. The right to despatch the British Trade Agent to Lhasa was withdrawn. Two years later (June 1906) a Convention was concluded between Great Britain and China regulating the position in Tibet. Under this Convention Great Britain agreed neither to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the internal administration of Tibet. China undertook not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet. Great Britain was empowered to lay down telegraph lines to connect the trade stations with India and it was provided that the provisions of the Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, remained in force. The Chinese Government paid the indemnity in three years and the Chumbi Valley was evacuated. The only direct result of the Mission was the opening of the three trade marts and the establishment of a British Trade Agent at Gyantse.

Chinese Action

The sequel to the Anglo-Russian Agreement was dramatic, although it ought not to have been unexpected. On the approach of the Younghusband Mission the Dalai Lama fled to Urga, the sacred city of the Buddhists in Mongolia. He left the internal government of Tibet in confusion, and one of Sir Francis Younghusband's great difficulties was to find Tibetan officials who would undertake the responsibility of signing the Treaty. Now the suzerainty of China over Tibet had been explicitly reaffirmed. It was asserted that she would be held responsible for the foreign relations of Tibet. In the past this suzerainty, having been a "constitutional fiction," it was inevitable that China should take steps to see that she had the power to make her will respected at Lhasa. To this end she proceeded to convert Tibet from a vassal state into a

province of China. In 1908 Chao Erh-feng, Acting Viceroy in the neighbouring province of Szechuen, was appointed Resident in Tibet. He proceeded gradually to establish his authority, marching through eastern Tibet and treating the people with great severity. Meantime the Dalai Lama, finding his presence at Urga, the seat of another Buddhist Pontiff, irksome, had taken refuge in Sining. Thence he proceeded to Peking, where he arrived in 1908 and was received by the Court, and despatched, to resume his duties at Lhasa. Moving by leisurely stages, he arrived there at Christmas 1909. But it was soon apparent that the ideas of the Dalai Lama and of the Chinese Government had little in common. The Dalai Lama expected to resume the temporal and spiritual despotism which he had exercised prior to 1904. The Chinese intended to deprive him of all temporal power and preserve him as a spiritual pope. The Tibetans had already been exasperated by the pressure of the Chinese soldiery. The report that a strong Chinese force was moving on Lhasa so alarmed the Dalai Lama that he fled from Lhasa, and by the irony of fate sought a refuge in India. He was chased to the frontier by Chinese troops, and took up his abode in Darjeeling, whilst Chinese troops overran Tibet.

Later Stages.

The British Government, acting on the representations of the Government of India, made strong protests to China against this action. They pointed out that Great Britain, while disclaiming any desire to interfere with the internal administration of Tibet, could not be indifferent to disturbances in the peace of a country which was a neighbour on intimate terms with other neighbouring States on our frontier, especially with Nepal, and pressed that an effective Tibetan Government be maintained. The attitude of the Chinese Government was that no more troops had been sent to Tibet than were necessary for the preservation of order, that China had no intention of converting Tibet into a province, but that being responsible for the good conduct of Tibet, she must be in a position to see that her wishes were respected by the Tibetans. Finally, the Chinese remarked that the Dalai Lama was such an impossible person that they had been compelled again to depose him. Here the matter might have rested, but for the revolution in China. That revolution broke out in Szechuen, and one of the first victims was Chao Erh-feng. Cut off from all support from China, surrounded by a hostile and infuriated populace, the Chinese troops in Tibet were in a hopeless case, they surrendered, and sought escape not through China, but through India, by way of Darjeeling and Calcutta. The Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa, and in 1913, in the House of Lords on July 28, Lord Morley stated the policy of the British Government in relation to these changes. He said the declaration of the President of the Chinese Republic saying that Tibet came within the sphere of Chinese internal administration, and that Tibet was to be regarded as on an equal footing with other provinces of China, was met by a very vigorous protest from the British Government. The Chinese Government subsequently accepted the principle that

China is to have no right of active intervention in the internal administration of Tibet, and agreed to the constitution of a conference to discuss the relation of the three countries. This Convention met at Simla when Sir Henry McMahon, Foreign Secretary to the Government of India, Mr Ivan Chen, representing China, and Mr Long Chen Shatra, Prime Minister to the Dalai Lama, thrashed out these issues. Whilst no official pronouncement has been made on the subject it is understood that a Convention was initiated in June which recognised the complete autonomy of Tibet proper, with the right of China to maintain a Resident at Lhasa with a suitable guard. A semi-autonomous zone was to be constituted in Eastern Tibet, in which the Chinese position was to be relatively much stronger. But this Convention, it is understood, has not been ratified by the Chinese Government, owing to the difficulty of defining Outer and Inner Tibet, and in 1918 Tibet took the offensive and threw off the last vestiges of Chinese suzerainty. When the Chinese province of Szechuan went over to the South, the Central Government at Peking was unable to finance the frontier forces or to withstand the Tibetan advance, which was directed from Lhasa and appeared to be ably managed. After the

Tibetan army had occupied some towns on the confines of the Szechuan marshes, hostilities were suspended and an armistice was concluded.

From what has gone before, it will be seen that the importance which formerly attached to the political condition of Tibet was much less local than an external question, and was influenced by our relations with Russia and China rather than by our relations with Tibet. Russia having relapsed into a state of considerable confusion, and China having relapsed into a state of absolute confusion these external forces have disappeared, and Tibet no longer looms on the Indian political horizon. The veil has been drawn afresh over Lhasa, and affairs in that country pursue an isolated course, with this considerable difference. The Dalai Lama is now on terms of the greatest cordiality with the Government of India. In 1920 he requested that a British officer should be sent to discuss with him the position in Central Asia brought about by the Revolution in Russia and the collapse of Government in China, and Mr Bell C M, G, I C S, Political Officer in Sikkim, was deputed for this purpose. In 1922 telephonic communication between Lhasa and India was established.

British Trade Agent, Gyantse.—F Williamson
British Trade Agent, Yatung.—D Macdonald.

VIII—THE NORTH-EASTERN FRONTIER.

The position on the northern frontier has been considered as if the British line were contiguous with that of Tibet. This is not so. The real frontier States are Kashmir, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. From Chitral to Gilgit, now the northernmost posts of the Indian Government, to Assam, with the exception of the small wedge between Kashmir and Nepal, where the British district of Kumaon is thrust right up to the confines of Tibet, for a distance of nearly fifteen hundred miles there is a narrow strip of native territory between British India and the true frontier. The first of these frontier States is Kashmir. The characteristics of this State are considered under Indian States (q.v.); it is almost the only important Native State in India with frontier responsibilities and it worthily discharges them through the agency of its efficient Indian State troops—four regiments of infantry and two Mountain Batteries, composed mainly of the Rajput Dogras, who make excellent fighting material. One of the most important trade routes with Tibet passes through Kashmir—that through Ladak. Then we come to the long narrow strip of Nepal. This Gurkha State stands in special relations with the British Government. It is for all practical purposes independent, and the British Resident at Kathmandu exercises no influence on the internal administration. The governing machine in Nepal is also peculiar. The Maharaja Dhraj, who comes from the Senadai Rajput clan, the bluest blood in India, takes no part in the administration. All power vests in the Prime Minister, who occupies a place equivalent to that of the Mayors of the Palace, or the Shoguns of Japan. The present Prime Minister, Sir Chandra Shamsheer, has visited England, and has given conspicuous evidence of his attachment to the British Government,

Nepal is the main Indian outpost against Tibet, or against Chinese aggression through Tibet. The friction between the Chinese and the Nepalese used to be frequent, and in the eighteenth century the Chinese marched an army to the confines of Kathmandu—one of the most remarkable military achievements in the history of Asia. Under the firm rule of the present Prime Minister Nepal has been largely free from internal disturbance, and has been raised to a strong bulwark of India. Nepal is the recruiting ground for the Gurkha Infantry, who form such a splendid part of the fighting arm of the Indian Empire. Beyond Nepal are the smaller States of Bhutan and Sikkim, whose rulers are Mongolian by extraction and Buddhists by religion. In view of Chinese aggressions in Tibet, the Government of India in 1910 strengthened their relations with Bhutan by increasing their subsidy from fifty thousand to a lakh of rupees a year, and taking a guarantee that Bhutan would be guided by them in its foreign relations. Afterwards China was officially notified that Great Britain would protect the rights and interests of these States.

Assam and Burma

When we come to the Assam border tribes—the Daisas, the Miris, the Abors and the Mishmis. Excepting the Abors none of these tribes have recently given trouble. The murder of Mr Williamson and Dr Gregerson by the Minyong Abors in 1911 made necessary an expedition to the Mhang valley of the Abor country on the N.E. frontier. A force of 2,500 and about 400 military police was employed from October 1911 to April 1912 in subduing the tribe. After two or three small actions the murders were delivered up. The cost of the expedition was

Rs. 21,60,000. At the same time friendly missions were sent to the Mishmi and Miri countries. Close contact with these forest-clad and leech-infested hills has not encouraged any desire to establish more intimate relations with them. The area occupied by the Nagasares runs northwards from Manipur. The Nagasares, a Tibeto-Burman people, devoted to the practice of head hunting, which is still vigorously prosecuted by the independent tribes. The Chin Hills is a tract of mountainous country to the south of Manipur. The corner of India from the Assam boundary to the northern boundary of the Shan States is for the most part included in the Myitkyina and Bhamo districts of Burma. Over the greater part of this area, a labyrinth of hills in the north, no direct administrative control is at present exercised. It is peopled by the Shans and the Kachins. Civilization is said to be progressing and steps have been taken to prevent encroachments from the Chinese side. There

is a considerable trade with China through Bhamo. On the Eastern frontier of Burma are the Shan States, with an area of fifty thousand square miles and a population of 1,500,000. These States are still administered by the Sawbwas or hereditary chiefs, subject to the guidance of Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents. The Northern Shan Railway to Lashio, opened in 1903, was meant to be a stage in the construction of a direct railway link with China, but this idea has been put aside, for it is seen that there can never be a trade which would justify the heavy expenditure. The Southern Shan States are being developed by railway connection. The five Karen States lie on the frontier south of the Shan States. South of Karen State the frontier runs between Siam and the Tenasserim Division of Burma. The relations between the Indian Government and the progressive kingdom of Siam are excellent.

PROVING OF WILLS.

In British India if a person has been appointed executor of the will of a deceased person, it is always advisable to prove the will as early as possible. If the will is in a vernacular it has to be officially translated into English. A petition is then prepared praying for the grant of probate of the will. All the property left by the deceased has to be disclosed in a schedule to be annexed to the petition. The values of immoveable properties are usually assessed at 16½ years purchase on the net Municipal assessment. For estate under Rs 10,000 the probate duty payable is 2%, between Rs 10,000 and Rs 50,000 the duty payable is 2½%. Over 50,000 rupees the duty payable is 3%. In determining the amount of the value of the estate for the purposes of probate duty the following items are allowed to be deducted —

- 1 Debts left by the deceased including mortgage encumbrances

2. The amount of funeral expenses
- 3 Property held by the deceased in trust and not beneficially or with general power to confer a beneficial interest.

The particulars of all these items have to be stated in a separate schedule. It is the practice of the High Court to send a copy of these schedules to the Revenue authorities and if the properties particularly immoveable properties have not been properly valued, the Revenue department require the petition to be amended accordingly. In certain cases the Court then requires citations to be published and served on such persons as the Court thinks are interested in the question of the grant of probate. If no objection is lodged by any person so interested within 14 days after the publication or service of citation and if the will is shown to have been properly executed and the petitioner entitled to probate, probate is ordered to be granted.

Railways to India.

The prospect of linking Europe and Asia by a railway running eastwards through Asia Minor has fascinated men's minds for generations. The plans suggested have, owing to the British connection with India, always lain in the direction of lines approaching India. More than 40 years ago a Select Committee of the House of Commons sat for two years to consider the question of a Euphrates Valley railway. The Shah of Persia applied to the British Foreign Office for the investment of British capital in Persian railway construction many years before the end of the nineteenth century. A proposal was put forward in 1865 for a line of 1,000 miles from Cairo and Port Said to Koweit, at the head of the Persian Gulf. While these projects were in the air, German enterprises stepped in and made a small beginning by constructing the Anatolian railway system. Its lines start from Soutari, on the southern shore of the Bosphorus, opposite Constantinople, and serve the extreme western end of Asia Minor. And upon this foundation was based the Turkish concession to Germans to build the Baghdad Railway.

Meanwhile, Russia was pushing her railways from various directions into the Central Asian territory running along the northern frontiers of Persia and Afghanistan to the borders of Chinese Turkestan. The construction of a Trans-Persian railway, connecting India, across Persia, with the Russian lines between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea came to the forefront after the conclusion of the historic Anglo-Russian agreement regarding Persia.

The Germans pushed forward their Baghdad railway project with a calculating shrewdness arising from their estimate of the value it would possess in their grand aim to overthrow the British Empire. The outbreak of the great war and the success of the Germans in invading Turkey into it saw the final stages of the construction of the railway pressed forward with passionate energy. Thus, before the overthrow of the Turks and Germans in Asia Minor and of the Germans in France the railway was completed and in use from Soutari across Anatolia, over the Taurus Mountains to Aleppo and thence eastward across the Euphrates to a point between Nisibin and Mosul. The Germans had also by that time constructed a line to Baghdad at the eastern end of the route, northwards from Baghdad to a point a considerable distance beyond Samarra.

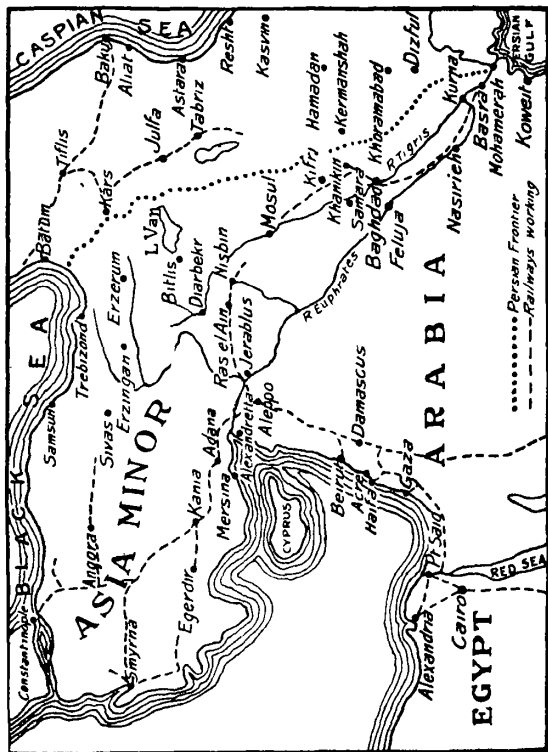
The war compelled the British to undertake considerable railway development northward from Basra, the port at the mouth of the Shat-el-Arab, the broad stream in which the Tigris and Euphrates, after their junction, flow into the head of the Persian Gulf. The system consists of a metre-gauge line from Basra via Hamrah, on the Euphrates, thence northwards to Baghdad, the line passing a considerable distance westward to Kut-el-Amara, of historic fame. From Baghdad the line runs eastward approximately to the foot of the

pass through which the Persian road crosses the frontier of that country. A line branches off in the neighbourhood of Kutr in the direction of Mosul. A line also runs westward from Baghdad to Feluja, on the Euphrates. With the Turkish Nationalists in control of Anatolia any question of the completion of the through Baghdad Line is indefinitely delayed.

The Trans-Persian line to join the Russian Caucasian system and the Indian railways first assumed proportions of practical importance in the winter of 1911. Both the Russian and the Indian railway systems were by then well developed up to the point likely to be the termini of a Trans-Persian line. The Russian system reached Jukha, on the Russo-Persian frontier in the Caucasus. During the war this line has been carried thence southward into the region east and south east of Lake Urumia. The Indian railway system, on the borderland of India and Persia, was similarly much extended and improved during the war. No details have been published of proposals for the continuation of the Russo-Indian link under the restored conditions of peace. A new agreement which was negotiated between England and Persia specially provided for British assistance in the development of Persian natural resources and particularly for the extension and improvement of Persian roads suitable for motor traffic but the agreement came to naught.

There remains the possibility of linking the Russian and Indian railway system by way of Afghanistan. The suggestion has often been made in recent years that the Russian line from Merv to Herat, on the northern frontier of Afghanistan, should be linked to the Indian line which proceeds from Quetta to the Afghan border on Chaman. The distance between the railway heads is about 250 miles. But there have always for strategic reasons been strong military objections to the railway across Afghanistan and after the death of the late Amir Habibullah the Afghan Government flatly opposed any suggestion for carrying the Indian or Russian railway system within their borders. What the present Afghan Government think about the matter was not shown up to the time this article was written, but the strange situation in Central Asia and beyond the Indian North-West Frontier does not suggest the early removal of the strategic difficulties.

Britain's special interests in regard to Persian communications have hitherto primarily been associated with lines running inland from the Persian Gulf, to supersede the old mule routes. Special importance has for many years been attached to schemes for a railway from Mohammerah (at the opening of the Karun Valley, where the Karun River runs into the Shat-el-Arab, just below Basra, northwards into the rich highland country of Western Persia) where the valuable West Persian oil wells also lie. Britain has long established special relations with the Karun Valley and has a large trade there.



Foreign Consular Officers in India.

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Afghanistan		
Mr Abdul Hussain	Consul-General	Delhi
Mr Haji Muhammad Akbar Khan	Consul	Bombay
Mr Abdul Ghafur Khan	Do.	Karachi
Argentine Republic.		
Mr T F Barton (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Mr C C Miller (Ag)	Do	Do
Austria-Bombay		
Mr E Stella	Consul	Bombay
Belgium		
Monsieur F Janssens	Consul General	Calcutta.
Mr D J MacGillivray (Ag)	Consul	Karachi.
Mr P E L Worke	Do	Madras.
Mr P Dormans (on leave)	Do	Rangoon
Mr B. L. Williamson (Ag) (on leave)	Do.	Do
Mr C G Wodehouse (Ag)	Do	Do
Mr J Lowry	Do	Akysab
Mr J Lince	Vice-Consul	Calcutta
Monsieur Paul Verstratten	Consul	Bombay
Bolivia		
Mr A M Tagore	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr G B. Nelson	Consul	Rangoon
Brazil		
Dr Amaden da Silva (Ag)	Consul	Bombay
Senhor H H de Vasconcellos	Do	Calcutta.
Mr H. V. Simmons	Vice-Consul	Do
Vacant	Do	Bombay.
Mr D Robertson	Do	Rangoon.
Mr C H Straker	Do	Madras.
Mr V E Nazareth	Do	Karachi.
Mr A E Donaldson (Ag)	Commercial Agent	Do
Chili.		
Senor Don P A Pacheco	Consul-General	Calcutta
Vacant	Consul	Bombay.
Mr J G Bendien (Ag)	Vice-Consul	Do
Mr A B. Leishman	Do	Chittagong
Mr. William Archbald (on leave)	Consul	Rangoon
Mr H W Child (Ag)	Do.	Do
China		
Mr T T Loh	Consul	Rangoon
Costa Rica.		
Dr Benode Behari Bonerjee	Consul ..	Calcutta.
Cuba		
Senor W F Pais	Consul	Bombay
Senor Don B. Martinez Y Montalvan	Do	Calcutta.
Czechoslovak Republic.		
Dr. A Lafar	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Do

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Denmark		
Mr E P J de B Oakley	Consul	Calcutta.
Mr E H Danchell	Do	Bombay
Mr W M Browning	Do	Madras
Mr O J J Britton	Do	Rangoon.
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Karachi.
Mr H B Whitby	Do	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do	Moulmein.
Finland		
Mr M. Joakim	Consul	Rangoon.
Mr J W Macfarlane	Vice-Consul	Madras.
France		
Monsieur L E R Laronce	Consul General	Calcutta.
Monsieur M. Garreau	Commercial Agent	Do
Monsieur D A Levi	Consul	Bombay
Mr E L. Price	Consular Agent	Karachi
Mr F E L Worke	Do	Madras.
Vacant	Do	Chittagong.
Mr J K. Michie	Do	Rangoon
Vacant	Do	Tellieberry
Vacant	Do	Akyab.
Germany		
Baron H. Rüdrt von Collenberg Boedighelm.	Consul General	Calcutta
M Von Pochhammer	Vice Consul	Do
Greece		
Mr Byron Cossentelli (on leave)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr O Nicolaldi (Ag.)	Do.	Do
Guatemala		
Mr. H J. Sanders (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta
Italy		
Commendatore Dr Antonio Cavicchioni	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Cav E. Benasaglio	Vice-Consul	Do
Signor Lodovico Manzini	Consul	Bombay.
Signor Cav E. M. Mattoli (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Do
Cav J Melike	Consular Agent	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do	Madras
Major A. Duglad (on leave)	Do	Karachi
Mr G H Wexham (Ag.)	Do	Do
Japan.		
Mr Yoshio Iwate	Consul-General	Calcutta.
T. Watanabe	Consul	Bombay
Mr K Naito	Do	Rangoon.
Liberia		
Dr. Benode Behari Benerjee	Consul	Calcutta.
Dr E. Freeman Underwood	Do.	Bombay;
Mexico		
Mr. E. L. B. Gall	Consul	Calcutta;

--- NOTE.—Please note that the Consular Agencies in Akyab Moulmein and Rangoon have been

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Netherlands.		
Monsieur P Staal . . .	Consul-General	Calcutta
Monsieur J G Bendien (on leave)	Consul	Bombay
Mr J G Groothoff (Ag)	Do	Do
Mr D van Wijngaarden (on leave)	Do.	Karachi
Mr C van Amerongen (Ag)	Do	Do
Mr. W Maasink (on leave)	Do. . .	Rangoon
Mr A Verhage (Ag)	Do.	Do
Mr W J U Turabull	Do	Madras
Mr. D Allart (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Mr W P J Koper (Ag)	Do	Do
Nicaragua.		
Mr C. H. Hardcastle . . .	Consul	Bombay
Norway		
Mr H A Falson . . .	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr F E Hardcastle (on leave)	Consul	Bombay
Mr H W Child	Do	Rangoon
Sir J F Simpson, Kt.	Do	Madras
Captain H. W. Fox (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Chittagong
Mr A. B. Slater (Ag)		
Mr J C Clark	Do	Akyab
Mr J McCracken	Do	Bassra.
Mr G. Howison (Ag) (on leave)	Do . . .	Moulmein
Mr K. O. Tomlinson (Ag)	Do. . .	Do
Mr J B Baxter	Do	Karachi.
Mr C Hodding	Do	Cocoonada.
Mr O H Hardcastle . . .	Do. . .	Bombay (Ag Consul)
Mr G Loeben	Do. . .	Calcutta.
Panama.		
Senhor Don B. Martinez V. Monteleven	Consul . . .	Calcutta
Persia		
Mirza Taghi Khan Moazz-ei d-Dowleh	Consul-General . .	Calcutta
Mirza Asadollah Khan, Molai-ul-Mulk, C.B. X	Consul	Bombay.
Mirza Muhammad Isphani	Do	Calcutta.
Vacant . . .	Do	Madras.
Mr Ayub Khan	Vice-Consul . . .	Karachi.
Khan Bahadur Mirza Ali Akbar Shirazi	Do . . .	Rangoon.
Vacant . . .	Do . . .	Moulmein.
Peru.		
Mr H C Sturgess . . .	Consul-General . . .	Calcutta.
Vacant . . .	Consul . . .	Rangoon.
Mr. J. A. Robin (temporarily in Charge)	Do . . .	Do.
Portugal.		
Dr Amdin de-Silva . . .	Consul-General . . .	Bombay (Ag)
Senhor A. M. DeSouza . . .	Consul . . .	Rangoon.
Senhor A. A. Teixeira . . .	Do. . .	Calcutta.
Senhor A P J Fernandes . . .	Vice-Consul . . .	Bombay.
Senhor A. B. da Fonseca . . .	Do. . .	Karachi.
Senhor A. M. Teixeira . . .	Do. . .	Madras.

Name.	Appointment	Port
Siam.		
Phra Sarasasana Balakhanda	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Sir Henry P W Maonaughten	Consul	Bombay
Mr F H Wroughton	Do	Rangoon
Mr. C Van-der-Gucht	Do.	Moulmein.
Spain.		
Señor Don Albert de la Guardia Y Ojea	Consul	Bombay.
Don D O Marro	Do	Calcutta.
Mr M. Cresoux	Vice-Consul	Do
Mr William Archbald (on leave) ..	Do	Rangoon
Mr A Sample (Ag)	Do	Do
Mr I. Walker	Do	Madras.
Mr W Young	Do	Kafachi.
Dr D S Fraser	Do	Bombay
Sweden		
Monsieur C A E Siftwerthelm	Consul-General	Calcutta
Mr K P Warrington	Consul	Madras.
Mr J Muller	Do.	Bombay
Mr. W Archbald (on leave) ..	Do	Rangoon
Mr H W Child (Ag)	Do	Do
Mr T H Wheeler (on leave) ..	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein
Switzerland.		
Monsieur K Ringger (on leave) ..	Consul-General	Bombay.
Mr H W Hirs (Ag)	Do.	Do
Monsieur M M Staub (on leave) ..	Consul	Calcutta
Mr J Bieck (Ag)	Do	Do
Mr E C Flury	Do	Madras.
Turkey		
The Consular officers for Sweden are in charge of Turkish interests		
United States of America		
Alexander W Weddell (on leave)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr W L Jenkins (in charge)	Consul	Do
Mr Ray Fox	Do	Do
H Shantz (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Do
Frederick L. Thomas (on leave)	Do	Do
Mr E. D. Simonsen	Do.	Do
Wilbur Kahlinger	Consul	Bombay
Mr T E Burke	Vice-Consul	Do.
Mr W H Scott	Do.	Do
Mr A E. Thomson	Consul	Madras.
F P Oase	Vice-Consul	Do.
A. M. Warren (on leave)	Consul	Karschi.
Mr W B Douglas (Junior) (in charge)	Vice-Consul	Do
E L Rogers	Do	Do
C J Fear	Consul	Rangoon.
Dr H. B. Osborn	Vice-Consul	Do
Venezuela		
Mr. A. M Tagore	Consul	Calcutta.

The Army.

The great sepoy army of India originated in the small establishments of guards, known as peons, enrolled for the protection of the factories of the East India Company; but sepoys were first enlisted and disciplined by the French, who appeared in India in 1665. Before this detachments of soldiers were sent from England to Bombay, and as early as 1685 the first fortified position was occupied by the East India Company at Armagon, near Masulipatam. Madras was acquired in 1640, but in 1654 the garrison of Fort St. George consisted of only ten men. In 1661 Bombay was occupied by 400 soldiers, and in 1668 the number was only 285 of whom 93 were English and the rest French, Portuguese, and natives.

After the declaration of war with France in 1744 the forces were considerably increased, but this did not prevent the French capturing Madras in 1746. Following the French example, the English raised considerable sepoy forces and largely increased the military establishments. In 1748 Major Stringer Lawrence landed at Fort St. David to command the forces of the Company. The English foothold in India was then precarious and the French under Duplex were contemplating fresh attacks. It became necessary for the English Company to form a larger military establishment. The new commandant at once set about the organization and discipline of his small force, and the garrison was given a company formation. This was the beginning of the regular Indian Army of which Lawrence subsequently became Commander-in-Chief. In Madras the European companies were developed into the Madras Fusiliers similar companies in Bengal and Bombay became the 1st Bengal and 1st Bombay Fusiliers. The native infantry were similarly organised by Lawrence and Olive. By degrees Royal Regiments were sent to India, the first being the 39th Foot, which arrived in 1754.

Struggle with the French.—From this time for a century or more the army in India was engaged in constant war. After a prolonged war with the French, whom Duplex had by 1750 raised to the position of the leading power in India, the efforts of Stringer Lawrence, Olive, and Eyre Coote completed the downfall of their rivals, and the power of England was established by the battle of Plassey in Bengal, and at Wandewash in Southern India, where the French were finally defeated in 1761. A number of independent States, owning nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Delhi, had risen on the decline of the Mughal Empire, some ruled by Mahratta Princes and others by Mussalman adventurers such as Hyder Ali of Mysore. A prolonged struggle ensued with the latter and his son and successor Tipu Sultan, which ended only with the defeat and death of Tipu and the capture of Seringapatam in 1799.

Reorganisation of 1798.—In 1796 the native armies, which had been organized on the Feudatory system, were reorganized. The Europeans numbered 13,000 strong and the natives numbered some 67,000, the infantry

battalions each. In Bengal regiments were formed by linking existing battalions of ten companies each with large establishments of English officers. The Madras and Bombay armies were at the same time reorganised on similar lines, and cavalry and artillery companies were raised.

In 1798 the Marquis Wellesley arrived as Governor-General firmly imbued with the necessity of destroying the last vestiges of French influence. In pursuance of this policy he reduced Mysore, where Tipu was intriguing with the French, and then turned his attention to the Mahratta States, in which Sindhia had established power over the Mughal Emperor at Delhi by means of a large regular army offered by Europeans under the French adventurer Perron. In campaigns against Sindhia in Hindustan by a British Army under General Lake, and in the Deccan against that prince and the Raja of Berar by an army under General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, the power of these Chiefs was broken in the battles of Laswari and Amaya. French influence was finally destroyed, and the Mughal Emperor was released from the domination of the Mahrattas. Subsequently Holkar also was reduced, and British power established on a firm footing.

Mutiny at Vellore.—The Indian Army had been from time to time subject to incidents of mutiny which were the precursors of the great cataclysm of 1857. The most serious of these outbreaks occurred at the fort of Vellore in 1806 when the native troops suddenly broke out and killed the majority of the European officers and soldiers quartered in the fort, while the striped flag of the Sultan of Mysore, whose sons were confined there, was raised upon the ramparts. The mutiny was suppressed by Colonel Gillespie, who galloped over from Arcot at the head of the 19th Light Dragoons, blew in the gate of the fort, and destroyed the mutineers. This retribution put a stop to any further outbreaks in the army.

Overseas expeditions.—Several important overseas expeditions were undertaken in the early part of the nineteenth century. Bourbon was taken from the French, Ceylon and the Spice Islands were wrested from the Dutch, and Java was conquered in 1811 by a force largely composed of Bengal troops which had volunteered for this service.

In 1814 the Nepal War took place in which the brave Gillespie, who had distinguished himself in Java, was killed when leading the assault on the fort of Kalunga. The Gurkhas were overcome in this war after offering a stout resistance.

In 1817 hostilities again broke out with the Mahrattas, who rose against the British during the progress of operations against the Pindaris. Practically the whole army took the field and all India was turned into a vast camp. The Mahratta Chiefs of Poona, Nagpur, and Indore rose in succession, and were beaten respectively at Kivki, Sitabaldi, and Mohidpur. This was the last war in Southern India. The tide of

war rolled to the north never to return. In the Punjab, to which our frontier now extended, our army came into touch with the great military community of the Sikhs.

In 1824 the armies were reorganised, the double-battalion regiments being separated, and the battalions numbered according to the dates they were raised. The Bengal Army was organised in three brigades of horse artillery, five battalions of foot artillery, two regiments of European and 68 of native infantry, 5 regiments of regular and 8 of irregular cavalry. The Madras and Bombay armies were constituted on similar lines, though of lesser strength.

First Afghan War and Sikh Wars—

In 1839 a British Army advanced into Afghanistan and occupied Cabul. There followed the murder of the British Envoys and the disastrous retreat in which the army perished. This disaster was in some measures relieved by subsequent operations, but it had far-reaching effects on British prestige. The people of the Punjab had witnessed these unfortunate operations, they had seen the lost legions which never returned, and although they saw also the avenging armies they no longer regarded them with their former eyes. Sikh aggression led to hostilities in 1845-46, when a large portion of the Bengal Army took the field under Sir Hugh Gough. The Sikhs were defeated after stubborn fights at Muddi and Ferozeshahr, the opening battles, but did not surrender until they had been overthrown at the battles of Aliwal and Sohraon. Two years later an outbreak at Multan caused the Second Sikh War when, after an indecisive action at Chillianwala, our brave enemies were finally overcome at Gujrat, and the Punjab was annexed. Other campaigns of this period were the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier, and the Second Burmese War, the first having taken place in 1824.

The conquest of the Punjab extended our frontier to the country inhabited by those turbulent tribes which have given so much trouble during the past sixty years while they have furnished many soldiers to our army. To keep order on this border the Punjab Frontier Force was established, and was constantly engaged in small expeditions which, while they involved little bloodshed, kept the force employed and involved much arduous work.

The Indian Mutiny—On the eve of the mutiny in 1857 there were in the Bengal Army 21,000 British and 137,000 native troops. In the Madras Army 8,000 British and 49,000 native troops, and in Bombay 9,000 British and 45,000 native troops. The proportion of native to British was therefore too large for safety. The causes of the mutiny were many and various. Among these were the annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie, especially that of Oudh from which the greater part of the Bengal Army was drawn, interference with the privileges of the sepoy with respect to certain allowances, and lack of power on the part of commanding officers either to punish or reward. The final spark which fired the revolt was the introduction of a new cartridge. The muskets of those days were supplied with a cartridge in which the powder was enclosed in a paper cover, which had to be bitten off to expose the

powder to ignition. In 1857 a new cartridge was introduced with paper of a glazed texture which it was currently reported was greased with the fat of swine and oxen, and therefore unclean alike for Muhammadans and Hindus. This was interpreted as an attempt to destroy the caste and the religion of the sepoys. Skillful agitators exploited this grievance, which was not without foundation, and added reports that flour was mixed with bone-dust and sugar refined with the blood of oxen.

Disaffection culminated in mutiny at Barrackpore where sepoy Mangal Pande attacked a European officer. The next most serious manifestation was the refusal of men of the 3rd Bengal Cavalry at Meerut to take the obnoxious cartridge. These men were tried and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, their fetters being riveted on parade on the 9th May. Next day the troops in Meerut rose, and, aided by the mob, burned the house of the Europeans and murdered many. The troops then went off to Delhi. Unfortunately there was in Meerut no senior officer capable of dealing with the situation. The European troops in the place remained inactive, and the mutineers were allowed to depart unmolested to spread the flames of rebellion.

Delhi is the historic capital of India. On its time worn walls brood the prestige of a thousand years of Empire. It contained a great magazine of ammunition. Yet Delhi was held only by a few native battalions, who joined the mutineers. The Europeans who did not succeed in escaping were massacred and the Delhi Emperor was proclaimed supreme in India. The capital constituted a nucleus to which the troops who mutinied in many places flocked to the standard of the Mughal. An army was assembled for the recovery of Delhi but the city was not captured until the middle of September. In the meantime mutiny had spread. The massacres of Cawnpore and Jhansi took place, and Lucknow was besieged until its relief on the 27th September. The rebellion spread throughout Central India, and the territory that now forms the Central Provinces, which were not recovered until Sir Hugh Rose's operations in 1858 ended in the defeat of the Rani of Jhansi.

Minor Campaigns—During the period until 1879, when the Second Afghan War began, there were many minor campaigns including the China War of 1860, the Armevka Campaign, and the Abyssinian War. Then followed the Afghan War in which the leading figure was Lord Roberts. There were expeditions to Egypt and China, and Frontier Campaigns of which the most important was the Tirah Campaign of 1897. There were also the prolonged operations which led up to or ensued upon the annexation of Burma, several campaigns in Africa, and the expeditions to Lhasa. But until 1914, since the Afghan War, the army of India, except that portion of the British garrison which was sent to South Africa in 1899, had little severe fighting, although engaged in many arduous enterprises.

Reorganisation after the Mutiny—In 1857 the East India Company ceased to exist and their army was taken over by the Crown. At this time the army was organised into three

armies, *etc.*, Bengal, Bombay and Madras, the total strength being 68,000 British and 140,000 Indian troops.

Several minor re-organisations took place during the following years, such as the linking of three Regiments together and the raising of *Class Regiments and Companies*. In 1895 the next large reorganisation took place. This was the abolition of the three Armies and the introduction of the command system. Four Commands were formed *vis* Punjab, Bengal, Madras and Bombay.

Lord Kitchener's Scheme—This system lasted until 1904 when under Lord Kitchener's re-organisation the Madras Command was abolished and the Army divided into three Commands—the Northern, Eastern and Western, corresponding to the Punjab, Bombay and Bengal Commands.

In 1907 Lord Kitchener considered that consequent on the delegation of administrative powers to Divisional Commanders, retention of such powers by Lieutenant Generals of Commands led to delay in the despatch of business. The Command system was therefore abolished and India was divided into two Armies—the Northern and Southern—each under a General Officer who was responsible for the command, inspection and training of the troops but was given no administrative responsibilities.

Early in the War both Army Commanders took the field and were not replaced until 1916 and 1917 when both had practically the same functions as their predecessors. It was now realised that administration was being unduly centralised at Army Headquarters and the machinery was becoming clogged with unnecessary details. To secure efficiency at A. H. Q., therefore, a certain measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1918. With the alteration of the designation "Army" to "Command" at this time, a considerable increase was made in the administrative staffs of the two Commands and the General Officers Commanding were given powers to deal with all administrative questions other than those dealing with matters of policy, new principles or war.

Present System of Administration of the Army in India.

The Secretary of State, as one of His Majesty's ministers, has a special responsibility and authority in regard to the military administration in India.

The Secretary of State's principal adviser on Indian military affairs is the Secretary in the Military Department of the India Office. The post is filled by an officer of the Indian Army of high rank, he is usually a Lieutenant-General with recent Indian experience. The Military Secretary is assisted by one first grade staff officer, selected from the Indian Army. In order that he may keep in touch with the current Indian affairs, the Military Secretary is expected to visit India during the tenure of his office. In addition, by a practice which has obtained for many years, a retired Indian Army officer of high rank has a seat upon the Secretary of State's Council.

The superintendence, direction and control of the civil and military government of India are vested in the Governor-General in Council, who is required to pay due obedience to all such orders as he may receive from the Secretary of State. The Viceroy's Executive Council exercises in respect of Army administration the same authority and functions as they exercise in respect of other departments of the Government, in the first phase of the representative institutions conferred upon India by the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms Scheme, Army expenditure and the direction of military policy have been excluded from the control of the Legislature.

The Commander-in-Chief—The next authority in the chain of administrative arrangements is His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, who by custom is also the Army Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. All the work connected with the administration of the Army, the formulation and execution of the military policy of the Government of India, the responsibility for maintaining every branch of the Army, combatant and non-combatant, in a state of efficiency, and the supreme direction of any military operations based upon India are centered in one authority,—the Commander-in-Chief and Army Member. In addition, he administers the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India.

Army Headquarters—The organisation of the Army headquarters is founded upon the three principal Staff Officers, the Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant-General in India, and the Quartermaster General in India, whose primary duty is to assist the Commander-in-Chief in the executive side of his administration. There are other minor branches of the Army Headquarters Staff, namely, the Military Secretary, the Director-General of Ordnance and the Engineer-in-Chief.

The Director of Medical Services in India, who was independent before the war, is now included in the Adjutant-General's Branch.

The Army Department—The principal Staff Officers and the other independent heads of branches at Army Headquarters have two separate functions of a well-defined character. In one direction they are staff officers of the Commander-in-Chief, responsible for the administration of their departments of staff duties, for conveying to the subordinate commands the executive decisions of the Commander-in-Chief, and ensuring that these decisions are carried out. In their other aspect they are responsible to initiate and pursue, under the direction of the Commander-in-Chief, proposals relating to the better administration of the Army and the welfare of the troops, which require the decision of the Government of India or the Secretary of State.

The Staff of the Army Department consists of a Secretary who, like the Secretaries in the civil departments, is a Secretary to the Government of India as a whole, possessing the constitutional right of access to the Viceroy, a deputy Secretary, an Establishment Officer and two Assistant Secretaries.

The Army Department deals with all army services proper, and also the administration of the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal

Air Force in India, in so far as questions requiring the orders of the Government of India are concerned. The Army Department has no direct relations with commanders or troops or the staffs of formations subordinate to Army Headquarters. It has continuous and intimate relations with Army Headquarters in all administrative matters. The Army administration is represented in the Legislature by the Army Member in the Council of State and by the Army Secretary in the Legislative Assembly.

The Military Council—Is composed of the Commander-in-Chief as President, and the following members, namely: The Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster General, the Secretary to the Government of India in the Army Department and the Financial Adviser, Military Finance, representing the Finance Department of the Government of India. It is mainly an advisory body, constituted for the purpose of assisting the Commander-in-Chief in the performance of his administrative duties. It has no collective responsibility. It meets when convened by the Commander-in-Chief for the consideration of cases of sufficient importance and difficulty to require examination in conference. The heads of the minor independent branches of Army Headquarters and the directors of technical services attend when required.

Military Territorial Areas.

Indian Territory is divided in four commands, each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief. The details of the organisation are given in the table on p. 218 and it will be seen that the Commands comprise 14 districts: that of the Northern Command, with its headquarters at Murree, coincides roughly with the Punjab and North West Frontier Province, the Southern Command, with headquarters at Poona, coincides roughly with the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and part of the Central Provinces, the Eastern Command, with headquarters at Naini Tal, coincides roughly with the Bengal Presidency and the United Provinces, while the Western Command whose headquarters have for the moment been placed provisionally at Quetta covers Sind, Rajputana and Baluchistan.

The General Officer Commanding-in-Chief of each Command is responsible for the command, administration, training and general efficiency of the troops stationed within his area, and also for all internal security arrangements.

Apart from the four Commands, the only formations directly controlled by Army Headquarters are the Waziristan and Burma districts and the Aden brigade. Waziristan will ultimately be merged in a Command, while Burma and Aden, mainly because of their geographical situation, cannot conveniently be included in any of the four Command areas.

The distribution of the troops allotted to the Commands and districts has been determined by the principle that the striking force must be ready to function in war, commanded and constituted as it is in peace. With this end in

view, the Army in India is now regarded as comprising three categories of troops:

- (1) Covering Troops,
- (2) The Field Army,
- (3) Internal Security Troops.

The role of the Covering Force is to deal with minor frontier outbreaks and, in the event of major operations, to form a screen behind which mobilisation can proceed undisturbed. The force normally consists of 18½ infantry brigades with a due proportion of other arms.

The Field Army consists of 4 Divisions and 5 Cavalry Brigades. The Field Army is India's striking force in a major war.

The Staff.

The staff is organised in three branches:

- (a) The General Staff Branch,
- (b) The Adjutant General's Branch,
- (c) The Quartermaster General's Branch.

The General Staff Branch deals with military policy, with plans of operations for the defence of India, with the organisation and distribution of the army for internal security and external use.

The Adjutant General's Branch deals with all matters appertaining to the raising, organising and maintenance of the military forces, the peace distribution of the army, discipline, etc.

The Quartermaster General's Branch is concerned with the specification, provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of supplies, i.e., foodstuffs, forage, fuel, clothing, armaments, ammunition, equipment, etc.

There are other minor branches of the Army Headquarters staff, administered by officers who are not classified as Principal Staff Officers, but are not directly subordinate to any of the three Principal Staff Officers.

These are:

- (1) The Military Secretary, usually a Major-General, who deals with the appointment, promotion and retirement of officers holding the King's Commission, and the selection of officers for staff appointments.
- (2) The Director-General of Ordnance, also a Major-General, who controls the Ordnance factories.
- (3) The Engineer-in-Chief, also a Major-General and head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India.

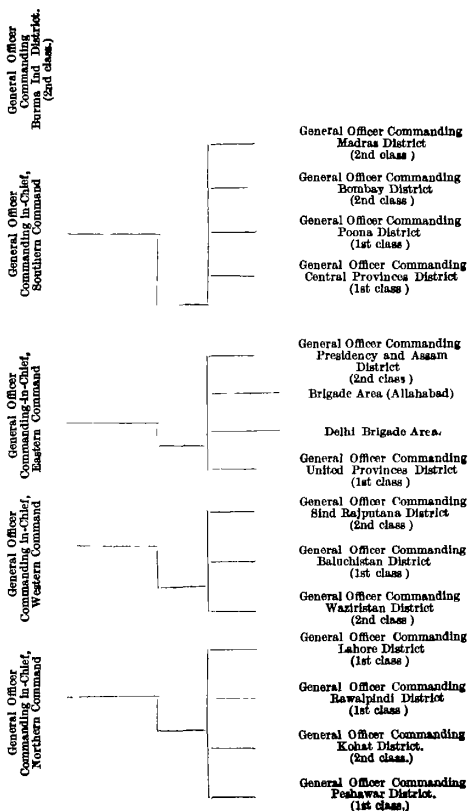
In addition to the above, the Army Headquarters staff includes certain technical advisers, of whom the most important are the Major-General, Cavalry, and the Major-General, Royal Artillery.

Regular British Forces in India.

The British cavalry and British infantry units of the army in India are units of the British service. No individual British service unit is located permanently in India. Units of the British Army are detailed for a tour of foreign

Plan Showing Chain of Command

The Commander-in-Chief



service, of which the major part is as a rule spent in India. In the case of British Infantry battalions the system is that one battalion of a regiment serves in the United Kingdom and the other overseas. The tour of overseas service of a British battalion is usually 16 years. In the case of British cavalry the same arrangement cannot be applied, as one unit only comprises the regiment. The normal tour of overseas duty for a regiment of British cavalry is 14 years. In the United Kingdom, in peace time, units are maintained at an establishment smaller than that required for war. In India, the peace establishments exceed the war establishments in view of the fact that reserves of British personnel do not exist, and reinforcements must be obtained from the United Kingdom.

British Cavalry—There are 6 British cavalry regiments in India. The establishment of a British cavalry regiment is 27 officers and 571 other ranks. Thus the present total establishment of British cavalry in India is 162 officers and 3,426 other ranks.

British Infantry—The present number of British Infantry battalions in India is 45, each with an establishment of 28 officers and 882 other ranks, or a total of 1,260 officers and 39,690 other ranks.

In 1921 an important change was made in the composition of a British Infantry battalion in India by the inclusion of a proportion of Indian combatant ranks. Battalions had always maintained a quota of Indian followers, but up to 1921 the combatant personnel was entirely British. In 1921, on the abolition of the Machine Gun Corps, eight machine guns were included in the equipment of a British Infantry battalion. The peace establishment of Indian combatant personnel is fixed at one Indian officer and forty-one Indian other ranks. The Indian platoon, as it is called, is transferred en bloc to another British battalion when the battalion to which it was originally attached proceeds on relief out of India.

Royal Artillery—Indians are employed as drivers and artificers in the Royal Horse and Field Artillery and in medium batteries, and as drivers, gunners and artificers in the Pack Artillery. In the Frontier Garrison Artillery they are employed as gunners and artificers and in the Indian Coast Artillery as gunners only.

The peace organisation of the artillery at the present day is as follows:

Royal Horse Artillery—One brigade, consisting of headquarters, three batteries and three ammunition columns, and one unbrigaded battery and ammunition column. Each battery is armed with six 18-pounder guns.

Royal Field Artillery Higher and Lower Establishment Brigades—Seven brigades on the higher establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. Three brigades on the lower establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. Of the seven brigades on the higher establishment, four brigades consist of two batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and two batteries each with six 4.5" howitzers. Three brigades consist of three batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and one battery with six 4.5"

howitzers. Of the three brigades on the lower establishment two consist of three batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and one battery with six 4.5" howitzers, and one brigade of two batteries armed with six 18-pounder guns, and two batteries armed with 4.5" howitzers. Two guns in each battery are immobile.

Royal Field Artillery, Reinforcement Brigade—The reinforcement brigade consists of three batteries, each armed with four 18-pounder guns, and one battery with four 4.5" howitzers. In war this brigade will be broken up to form the 3rd Divisional ammunition column.

Royal Field Artillery, Ammunition Columns—Two Divisional ammunition columns are maintained for the artillery of the first and second divisions, and one brigade ammunition column for the covering force brigade on the frontier.

Pack Artillery—Six brigades, each consisting of headquarters, one British and three Indian batteries, also one unbrigaded battery and one section. The British battery and two Indian batteries per brigade are armed or in process of being armed, with four 3.7" howitzers, the remaining batteries are armed with four 2.75" guns.

Medium Artillery—Two brigades, each consisting of one horsedrawn and two tractor drawn batteries. In addition, there are the tractor-drawn batteries, two armed with 6" howitzers and one with 60 pounder guns on a lower establishment, each with only one section mobile. For administrative purposes one of these lower establishment batteries is brigaded with each of the two Medium Brigades. The third battery (armed with 60 pounder guns) is unbrigaded. In each brigade, therefore there are three tractor-drawn and one horsedrawn batteries in one brigade, the horsedrawn battery is armed with 60 pounder guns, in the other, with 6" howitzers.

Coast Artillery—One headquarters and two companies at Bombay and Karachi, and one independent company at Calcutta.

Frontier Garrison Artillery—One corps manning twelve posts. The posts are Kohat, Samana, Thal, Chaman, Banau, Dardani, Peshawar, Hindubagh, Malakand, Shagal, Chakdara, Fort Sandeman.

The corps is responsible for manning the armament allotted for the defence of these posts.

Indian Coast Artillery—One corps, with detachments at two coast defence stations, Bombay, and Karachi. The role of this corps is to assist the coast defence companies of the Royal Garrison Artillery stationed at Bombay and Karachi in the less technical duties connected with the manning of the defences. A special section at headquarters performs launch and boat duties for the outlying forts at Bombay.

Artillery Training Centres—One centre for Indian ranks of Horse, Field and Medium Artillery and another centre for Indian ranks of Pack Artillery. These centres were created for the recruitment and training of Indian personnel required for batteries.

Engineer Services.

The Engineer-in-Chief—The head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India is directly responsible to His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. The Engineer-in-Chief is not a Staff Officer, but the technical adviser of the Commander-in-Chief on all military engineering matters, responsible for:

- (1) Engineer operations and engineer services during war and peace
- (2) The preparedness for war of the engineering services
- (3) The supply of engineer stores during war and peace
- (4) The execution and maintenance of all military works.
- (5) The constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs submitted by him

The Organisation—The Engineer organisation of the Army consists of two main branches *viz.*, the "Sappers and Miners" and "Pioneers and the Military Engineer Services"

The composition of the Corps of Sappers and Miners is as follows:

King George's Own Bengal Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Boreekee Quoen Victoria's Own Madras Sappers and Miners with headquarters at Bangalore, Royal Bombay Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Kiroe Burma Sappers and Miners, Headquarters and one Depot Company

The personnel of the Corps consists of Royal Engineer officers Indian officers holding the Viceroy's commission, a certain number of British non-commissioned officers, Indian non-commissioned officers and Indian other ranks. The first three Corps are commanded by a Lieut.-Colonel, who is assisted by two Majors, as Superintendents of Park and Instruction, an Adjutant, a Quartermaster, two Subadar Majors, a Jemadar Adjutant and a Jemadar Quartermaster. The staff of the Burma Sappers and Miners is proportionately less

Field Troops are mounted units trained to accompany cavalry, and are equipped to carry out heavy bridging, demolition and water supply work. Field companies are trained to accompany infantry. Divisional headquarters' companies are small units containing highly qualified "tradesmen" and are trained to carry out technical work in connection with field workshops. Army Troop companies are somewhat smaller units than field companies, they are required to carry out work behind divisions, under the orders of Chief Engineers, *e.g.*, heavy bridging work, large water-supplies, electrical and mechanical installation. The Bridging Train comprises a sufficient number of pontoons to make a number of floating bridges

The Military Engineer Services are divided into 3 branches, *viz.*, "Buildings and Roads," "Electrical and Mechanical" and "Stores." The unit in the Buildings and Roads branch is the sub-division, which is in charge of a Sub-divisional officer (Military or Civilian upper subordinate), who is assisted by one or more

Sub-overseers (lower subordinates civilians). Two or more sub-divisions are grouped under a Garrison Engineer. The unit in the Electrical and Mechanical branch is the power station ice factory, water-supply, group of road rollers or workshops, and one or more units are grouped under a Sub-divisional officer, who is supervised by a Garrison Engineer. The Stores branch deals with engineer stores and barrack furniture. For every sub-district there is a storekeeper, and for every sub-district there is a Barrack Master (Commissionary, Deputy or Assistant Commissionary, ranking from Major to Lieutenant) or an Assistant Barrack Master (warrant officer), assisted by two or more Barrack Sergeants, who deal with the supply of barrack furniture to troops. At Lahore there is a Command Park for the supply of engineer stores, and at Boreekee there is a Command workshop for minor manufacture and repair work

The Military Engineer Services control all military works in India, Burma, the Persian Gulf and Aden, except in the case of a few small outlying military stations, which are in charge of the Public Works Department. They control all works for the Royal Air Force and for the Royal Indian Marine and they are charged with all civil works in the North West Frontier Province and Baluchistan under the orders, in each of these two areas, of the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General. They also control civil works in Bangalore, under the Mysore Government, and in Aden

Royal Air Force in India

The Royal Air Force in India is controlled by the Commander in Chief in India as part of the defence services of the Indian Empire. The Air Force budget is incorporated in the Army estimates. The Commander of the Air Force, the Air Officer Commanding in India is an Air Vice-Marshal, whose rank corresponds to that of a Major General in the Army

The headquarters of the Air Force is closely associated with Army Headquarters and is located with the latter at the seat of the Government of India. The Air Officer Commanding has a headquarters staff constituted in three branches, namely, air staff, personnel, and technical and stores. The system of staff organisation is similar to the staff system obtaining in the Army. Broadly speaking, the duties assigned to the three divisions mentioned are those which are performed by the General Staff Branch, the Adjutant-General's and Military Secretary's branches, and the Quartermaster General's branch, respectively, of Army Headquarters. The formations subordinate to Royal Air Force Headquarters are (1) The Wing Commands, which, in their turn, comprise the squadrons of aeroplanes. (2) The Aircraft Depot (3) The Aircraft Park

The Wing Commands.—There are three Wing Commands in India, namely, at Peshawar, Baisalpur and Quetta. The Wing Commander is an officer with Air Force rank corresponding to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in the Army. He is equipped with a staff organised on the same system as the headquarters staff of the Air Force. The Wing Headquarters establishment consists, approximately, of seven officers and forty other ranks.

The Squadrons.—Of the six squadrons, five are extended along the North-West Frontier from Quetta to Kisalpur and one is stationed at Ambala. The squadron is the primary air force unit and it consists, normally, of a headquarters and three flights of aeroplanes. A flight can be detached temporarily but not permanently from its squadron, as repair facilities, workshops, and stores cannot economically be organised on anything lower than a squadron basis. The squadron headquarters comprises the officers and other ranks required for the command and administration of the squadron as a whole, it includes the workshop and repair units, the armouries and equipment stores of the squadron. The number of aeroplanes in a squadron varies with the type of aeroplane of which the squadron is composed, but, speaking generally, all squadrons on a peace basis have twelve aeroplanes, i.e., four in each of the three flights.

Of the six squadrons, two are equipped with De Havilland 9A aeroplanes and are allotted to distant reconnaissance and bombardment duties, the other four, which are allotted to army co-operation duties, have Bristol fighter aeroplanes. The establishment of officers in a squadron consists of six officers in the headquarters and fifteen officers allotted to flying duties. This allows a reserve of one officer for each of the operative flights.

The Aircraft Depot.—May conveniently be described as the wholesale store and provision department of the Royal Air Force. Technical stores from the United Kingdom are received and, in the first instance held in the Aircraft Depot. It is also the main workshop and repair shop of the Force, where all engine repairs, mechanical transport repairs, and aircraft repairs of any magnitude are carried out. The Depot is located at Karachi, the chief reason for selecting this place being, first that the climate of Karachi permits of European artificers working efficiently for the greater part of the year, and, secondly, it is contemplated that the projected Cairo Baghdad-India air route will enter India at Karachi. If this anticipation is realised, it will obviously be convenient to have in existence there a large Air Force maintenance establishment.

The Aircraft Park.—Relatively to the Aircraft Depot, the Aircraft Park may be described as a central retail establishment, intermediate between the squadrons and the Aircraft Depot. It receives stores from the depot and distributes them to the squadron. The stocks held in the park are, however, usually limited to items necessary at short notice for operations, and the quantities held are kept as low as distance from the depot and local conditions will admit. In war, the Aircraft Park is intended to be a mobile formation. In peace, the Aircraft Park is located at Lahore. New aeroplanes, received from the United Kingdom, are erected there, but no major repairs are undertaken.

Composition of Establishments.—The personnel of the Royal Air Force in India consist of officers, non-commissioned officers and airmen of the Royal Air Force of the United Kingdom, and Indian artificers and mechanics belonging to the Indian technical section. The

officers are employed on administrative, flying and technical duties, but all are required to be capable of flying an aeroplane. A proposal is now under consideration to employ non-commissioned officers as pilots, but at present non-commissioned officers and airmen are employed solely on technical work. The only flying personnel who are not officers are aerial gunners and a certain number of wireless operators. The non-commissioned officers and airmen are employed both with squadrons and at the Aircraft Depot and Park. The personnel of the Indian technical section are employed entirely at the Depot and Park on technical trades, and consist of carpenters, fitters, fabric workers, instrument repairers, machinists, etc.

The total establishment consists of 218 officers, 1,757 British non-commissioned officers and airmen and 138 Indians.

In India, as in the United Kingdom, the Air Force has a medical service of its own.

Regular Indian Forces.

Indian Cavalry.—The present number of Indian cavalry regiments is 21, arranged in seven groups of three regiments each. In addition, there are seven stations which form suitable permanent locations for regiments allotted to internal security duties. One of these stations is allotted to each group, with the result that one of the three regiments of each group will always be located in a permanent regimental centre. A group depot will be formed in this station on mobilisation and will be made responsible for the training and provision of reinforcements for the whole group.

The peace establishment of an Indian cavalry regiment comprises

14 British officers

18 Indian officers.

504 Indian non-commissioned officers and men

Indian Infantry and Pioneers.—The establishment of the Indian Infantry is constituted as follows

	Battalions.
20 Infantry regiments consisting of	107
3 Pioneer regiments consisting of	12
1 Independent Pioneer battalion (4th Hazara Pioneers)	1
10 Gurkha regiments consisting of	20
—	140

Reserves for these units have to be sufficient to provide for an actual shortage on mobilisation as well as for the maintenance of the mobilised unit at full strength for the first 8 months after mobilisation.

The conditions of the new reserve, which were introduced in August 1923, are as follows

(a) There are two classes in the reserve Class A and Class B. A reservist is eligible to serve in Class A up to 8 years combined army and reserve service, and in Class B up to 15 years combined service.

(b) Service in the reserve is compulsory. On enrolment a man engages to serve at least 5 years in army service, and to serve up to 15 years in combined army and reserve service, if required to do so.

(c) Reservists will be trained for not more than 1 month annually in the cases of Class A, and biennially in the case of Class B. During training the reservist will receive the full pay of a serving soldier.

(d) While not under training, the reservist will receive pay as follows

Class A, Rs 7 per mensem

Class B, Rs 4 per mensem

(e) A reservist will be discharged from the service after 15 years combined army and reserve service, when he will receive a pension of Rs 3 per mensem, or, if he desires it, a gratuity of Rs. 300 in lieu. A reservist who is invalided from the reserve is granted a gratuity varying between 3 and 6 months pay and good conduct pay according to service.

The establishment of the Infantry reservists (including Gurkha battalions and the Independent Pioneer Battalion, 1-4th Hazara Pioneers) is fixed at present as follows

Infantry	28,448
Gurkhas	2,000
Pioneers	1,895
Independent Pioneers	81
Total	29,924

The Signal Service—The Corps is organised on the same lines as a Sapper and Miner Corps, with a headquarters and depot for recruiting and training personnel, and detached field units for the various army formations. The head of the corps is the Signal Officer in-Chief, who is attached to the General Staff Branch at Army Headquarters as a technical adviser on questions connected with signals, and is also

responsible for the technical inspection of all signal units. A chief signal officer with similar functions is attached to the headquarters of each Army Command.

The headquarters and depot, termed the Signal Training Centre and Depot, are located at Jubbulpore, and are commanded by a Lieutenant Colonel, assisted by a staff, British and Indian, organised on very much the same lines as the headquarters of a Corps of Sappers and Miners.

The various types of field units and the number maintained are

Cavalry Brigade Signal Troops	4
Divisional Signals	7
Corps Signals	2
Signal Parks	2

In addition, there are an Army Signal School and a Wireless Training Section, which carry out the training of regimental signalling instructors and of personnel for wireless units, respectively.

Royal Tank Corps—Six Armoured Car companies arrived in India in 1921. Two more companies are due to arrive in 1924. Eight Armoured Car companies is the total establishment at present in view. To complete the organisation, a Tank Corps Centre is maintained at Ahmednagar for the training of Tank Corps personnel, and for the administration of the Corps.

The smallest tactical unit is the sub-section of two cars. Two sub-sections constitute a section. The section is commanded by a captain or a subaltern, and is self contained and capable of independent action. Three sections constitute a company. The company is commanded by a major. In addition to the twelve active cars in the three sections, four cars are held in company reserve to replace active cars temporarily out of action. Each car is armed with a Vickers machine gun.

The establishment of a Tank Corps Company and of the Tank Corps Centre are shown below

	British Officers	British other ranks	Followers	Motor cars	Motor cycles	Armoured cars	Lorries
Tank Corps Centre	9	45	15	1	4	9	12
Armoured Car Company	12	144	37	2	6	16	10

Medical Services—The military medical services in India are composed of the following categories of personnel and subordinate organisations

(a) Officers and other ranks of the Royal Army Medical Corps serving in India.

(b) Officers of the Indian Medical Service in military employment,

(c) The Indian Medical Department, consisting of two branches, viz., (i) assistant surgeons and (ii) sub-assistant surgeons.

(d) The Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India.

(e) The Indian Troops Nursing Service.

(f) The Indian Hospital Corps.

Of these categories, the officers and men of the Royal Army Medical Corps, the assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India are primarily concerned with the medical care of British troops, while the officers of the Indian Medical Service, the sub-assistant surgeon of the Indian Medical Department and the Indian Troops Nursing Service are concerned, primarily, with the medical care of Indian troops. The Indian Hospital Corps serves both organisations.

Indian Army Service Corps and the Mechanical Transport Service.—The Indian Army Service Corps is the counterpart of the Royal Army Service Corps of the British Army. It has developed from the Commissariat Department of an earlier period, and its immediate predecessor was the Supply and Transport Corps, by which name the service was known up to a short time ago. The Indian Army Service Corps is administered by the Quartermaster General, and is one of the principal services included in the Quartermaster General's Department.

The Indian Army Service Corps is constituted in two main branches, namely (a) Supply (b) Animal transport, and is supplemented by the Mechanical Transport Service, which, in India, is constituted upon a special basis, but which is generically, a sub-division of Army Service Corps organisation.

The strength of the supply establishment at the present day is shown by categories in the following table.

Officers with King's commissions	141
Indian officers	20
British other ranks	351
Civilians	679
Followers	2,895
Total	4,066

The total number of mules maintained under this organisation, including the depots and the detachments in Aden, Kashmir and the Persian Gulf, is 18,443, while the camel units are calculated to produce on mobilisation 12,480 camels. There are also 750 pack and draught horses. Wheeled and pack transport are combined. The company on the lower establishment represents the pre-war "cadre," other companies being maintained in peace-time at full war establishment.

The strength of the personnel of animal transport units is shown by categories in the following table.

	1923
Officers with King's commissions	75
British other ranks	79
Indian officers	106
Civilians	142
Silladar sarwans	2,560
Indian non-commissioned officers and drivers	18,524
Artificers and followers	2,162
Total	18,738

The mechanical transport establishment consists of the following.

Heavy Lorries 4 service sections, that is to say, sections of strength sufficient to take the field on mobilisation, 6 cadre sections.

Light Lorries 7 service sections 7 cadre sections.

Apart from units and vehicles employed on the conveyance of military stores, the mechanical transport service also provides motor vehicles for armoured car companies, the tank corps centre, the sappers and miners, the signal corps, motor ambulance convoys for hospitals and field medical units, and vehicles for other minor miscellaneous purposes. Mechanical transport companies and sections are also attached to batteries of medium artillery for drawing the guns and for other purposes. The organisation as a whole is completed by a central training school, a central stores depot, mobile repair units and workshops, of which the most important is the large heavy repair workshop constructed after the war at Chakala. Like the Indian Army Service Corps, the mechanical transport service is administered by the Director of Supply and Transport under the control of the Quartermaster General. Exclusive of motor bicycles the total establishment now provisionally contemplated consists of 1,868 vehicles, of which 1,068 will be actively employed in peace-time, while 770 vehicles will be spare and reserve.

The mechanical transport is at present not actually a part of the Indian Army Service Corps. The officers of the service are mainly drawn from the Royal Army Service Corps, since at present there are no facilities in India for training officers in every branch of mechanical transport duties. The establishment of officers includes, however, a certain number of King's commissioned officers belonging to the Indian Army. The British subordinates of the service are drawn entirely from the Royal Army Service Corps. The establishment is completed by Indian officers with the Victoria's commission, and Indian other ranks employed as drivers. A large number of Indians with non-combatant status are employed as artificers and followers. The strength and categories of the present provisional establishments are shown in the following table.

Officers with King's commissions	145
British other ranks	553
Indian officers and other ranks	2,109
Civilians	325
Indian artificers	1,258
Followers	1,063
Total	5,423

The Ordnance Services may be broadly described as the agency whose duty it is to supply the army with munitions of war, such as small arms, guns, ammunition and other equipment of a technical military character, and also, under an arrangement introduced in recent years, with clothing and general stores other than engineering stores.

The Remount and Veterinary Services—The following are among the most important duties imposed on the remount service: (1) The mounting of the whole of the Indian Cavalry. (2) The provision of camels and draught bullocks for all units and services. (3) The maintenance of 68,844 animals. (4) The enumeration throughout India of all animals available for transport in war. (5) The animal mobilisation of all units and services and departments of the army. (6) A general responsibility for the efficiency of all the animals of the army both in peace and war. (7) The administration of the remount squadron formed in 1922 as a nucleus for expansion into three squadrons on mobilisation. (8) Breeding operations of a direct character and a new horse-breeding area.

The department is organised on lines corresponding to the remount service in the United Kingdom. Its composition is as follows: The Remount Directorate at Army Headquarters consisting of one Director and a Deputy Director. 4 Remount Inspectors, one attached to each Command Headquarters. 4 Deputy Assistant Directors of Remounts of Circles. 7 Superintendents of Remount Depots. 6 District Remount officers of horse-breeding areas. 15 Assistant Remount officers. 9 Veterinary officers.

The Army Veterinary Corps, India—Is responsible for the veterinary care, in peace and war, of mounted British troops, Indian cavalry and artillery I A S C units, the remount department (excluding horse-breeding operations), etc. The Corps now includes: The establishment of Royal Army Veterinary Corps officers, serving on a tour of duty in India. The establishment of warrant and non-commissioned officers, India Unattached List A, veterinary assistants. The clerical establishment of the Army Veterinary Service.

The Army Veterinary Corps, India, is organised in 12 sections, attached in peace time to Class I Station veterinary hospitals at certain important stations.

Terms of service in the Indian army are as follows—

Cavalry, 4 years' service in army

Artillery, 4 years' service in army

S & M Corps, 4 years' service in army

Indian Signal Corps, 4 years' service in army

Infantry and Pioneers (except Gurkha groups, the 4th Hazara Pioneers and trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry) 5 years in army service and 10 years in the reserve. (Note: This is the minimum period of service with the colours. 15 years in Colour and Reserve service must be done.)

Gurkha groups, 4th Hazara Pioneers and the trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry, 4 years' service in army.

Animal transport personnel of the Indian Army Service Corps, drivers of mechanical transport and all combatants of the Army Veterinary Corps, 6 years' service in army and 4 in the reserve.

All combatants in the Works Corps, 2 years' service in army.

Bandmen, musicians, trumpeters, drummers, buglers, fliers and pipers, 10 years' service in army.

Except in the case of those enrolled in the Works and of those who are non-combatants, all School masters, clerks, artificers, armourers, engine drivers, farriers, carpenters, tailors and bootmakers, 10 years' service in army.

The period laid down for service in the army may be extended. Combatants may be enrolled direct into the Reserve, in which case there is no minimum period of service, but no one is allowed to serve in the reserve or in any class of the reserve for a longer period than is permitted by the regulations in force.

Frontier Militia and Levy Corps—These forces are "Civil" troops, i.e., they are administered and paid by the Civil authorities and not by the Army. They are, however, offered by Officers of the Regular Indian Army. These forces were raised for duty on the North-West Frontier and at present consist of the following—Kurram Militia, Tochi Scouts, South Waziristan Scouts, Chitral Scouts, Gilgit Scouts, Zhob Levy Corps and the Makran Levy Corps. The various names show the localities in which each force is situated.

The Auxiliary Force.

After the war, the question of universal training for European British subjects came up for consideration, and it was decided that in India, as elsewhere in the Empire, the adoption of compulsory military service would be undesirable. It was recognised, however, that India needed some adequate auxiliary force, if only on a voluntary basis, that could be trained to a fairly definite standard of efficiency, and in the result, an Act to constitute an Auxiliary Force for service in India was passed in 1920. Under this Act membership is limited to European British subjects, and the liability of members for training and service is clearly defined. Military training is graduated according to age, the more extended training being carried out by the younger members, the older members being obliged to fire a musketry course only. It was laid down that military service should be purely local. As the form of service that would be most suitable varies largely according to localities, the local military authorities, acting in consultation with the advisory committee of the Auxiliary Force area, were given the power of adjusting the form of training to suit local conditions.

The Auxiliary Force comprises all branches of the service, cavalry, artillery, engineers, infantry—in which are included railway battalions, machine gun companies, and the B.A.S.C. sections. Units of the Auxiliary Force are under the command of the local military authority, and the latter has the power of calling them out for service locally in a case of emergency. Their role is to assist in home defence. Training is carried on throughout the year. Pay at a fixed rate is given for each day's training and, on completion of the scheduled period of annual training, every enrolled member of the force is entitled to a certain bonus. Men enrol in the Auxiliary Force for an indefinite period. An enrolled person is entitled to claim his discharge on the completion of four

years service or on attaining the age of 45 years. Till then he can only be discharged on the recommendation of the advisory committee of the area

Indian Territorial Force

The Territorial Force is one of the several aspects of the Indianisation of the military services. The force is intended to cater, amongst other things, for the military aspirations of those classes of the population to whom military service has not hitherto been a hereditary profession. It is intended, at the same time, to be a second line to and a source of reinforcement for the regular Indian army. Membership of the force for this latter reason carries with it a liability for something more than purely local service or home defence. It may, in certain circumstances, involve service overseas. The force is the direct successor of the Indian section of the Indian Defence Force created during the war. It has been modelled on the old militia in England. The essence of its scheme of organisation consists in training men by means of annual embodiment for a short period in successive years. By this means Indian Territorial Force units can be given sufficient preliminary training in peace to enable them after a comparatively short period of intensive training, to take their place by the side of regular units in war.

The Indian Territorial Force consists at present of two main categories, provincial battalions, and the university training corps battalions. The latter are recruited from the staff and students of Indian universities. They are trained all the year round, and are equipped with a permanent staff of British instructors. On ceasing to belong to a university, a member of the corps is discharged. In the case of the university training corps battalions, it is not intended to enforce the liability to render actual military service. Their purpose is mainly educative, to inculcate discipline and form character. But, incidentally, they are expected to be a source of supply of both officers and men for the provincial battalions.

The members of the provincial battalions accept the full liability for service which has been mentioned. Seven such battalions were constituted in the first instance. The number has since been raised to twenty and, though the unit establishment has not been completely filled in all cases, the movement has already achieved a greater degree of success than might have been anticipated at so early a stage. It is in contemplation of the force by constituting some auxiliary units. Although for the present the infantry arm only has been created, the force by law may include every other army service.

Men enrol in the provincial battalions for a period of six years, the period being reduced to four years in certain cases. On the completion of the first period they can re-enrol, voluntarily, for further specified periods. During his first year, every man does twenty-eight days preliminary training, and during every year he receives twenty-eight days periodical training.

The Indian State Forces.

The Indian State Forces, formerly designated "Imperial Service Troops," consist of the military forces raised and maintained by the British of Indian States at their own expense and for State service. It has been the custom, in emergency for State troops to be lent to the Government of India, and the Government of India have on many occasions received military assistance of great value from this source. But the rendering of such aid is entirely at the discretion of the Ruling Princes and Chiefs. Government, on the other hand, provide permanently a staff of British officers, termed "Military Advisers and Assistant Military Advisers," to assist and advise the Ruling Princes in organising and training the troops of their States.

After the war had ended, the Indian States, like the Government of India, undertook a military reorganisation, which in a number of cases, has already been carried out. The principal feature of the new arrangements, as adopted more or less generally, is that in future the Indian State Forces should be composed of three categories of troops, namely

Class A—Troops in this class are organised on the present-day Indian Army system and establishments, and, with some exceptions, are armed with the same weapons as corresponding units of the regular Indian Army.

Class B—These troops consist of units which are, in most cases, little inferior in training and discipline to troops of Class A, but they are not organised on present-day Indian Army establishments. They have, as a rule, retained the system of the pre-war formations. Their standard of armament is pitched lower than that of Class A troops.

Class C—These troops consist in the main of militia formations, which are not permanently embodied. The standard of training, discipline, and armament, prescribed for this class, is generally lower than the standard prescribed for Class B troops.

The actual strength of the Indian State Forces, on the 1st October 1923, amounted to

Cavalry	7,499
Infantry	15,464
Artillery	718
Sappers	831
Camel Corps	734
Transport Corps	1,784
Total	27,030

Officers.

There are two main categories of officers in the Indian Army, those holding the King's Commission and those holding the Viceroy's Commission. The latter are all Indians (apart from the Gurkha officers of Gurkha battalions) and have a limited status and power of command, both of which are regulated by the Indian Army Act and the rules made thereunder. Until recent years Indians were not eligible for King's Commissions.

King's Commissioned Officers for the Indian Army are obtained from two sources from among the cadets who pass through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, and by the transfer to the Indian Army of Officers belonging to British units. The former is the principal channel of recruitment, the latter being only resorted to when, owing to abnormal wastage or for some other special reason, requirements cannot be complete by means of cadets from Sandhurst. When a cadet has qualified at Sandhurst and has received his commission, he becomes, in the first instance, an officer of the Unattached List, and is posted for a period of one year to a British battalion or regiment in India, where he receives a preliminary training in his military duties. At the end of the year, he is posted as a squadron or company officer to a regiment or battalion of the Indian Army. Administrative services and departments of the army draw their officers from combatant units, as it has hitherto been regarded as essential that every officer should, in the first instance, receive a thorough grounding in combatant duties, and acquire at first hand an intimate knowledge of the requirements of the combatant arms.

The promotion in rank of King's commission officers of the Indian Army is regulated by a time-scale up to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, but is subject also to certain professional examinations and tests being successfully passed. The rank of Lieutenant-Colonel is in normal course, attained at about 26 years service; promotion beyond this rank is determined by selection.

Indian Officers.—One of the most momentous decisions of the Great War, so far as the Indian Army is concerned, was that which rendered Indians eligible to hold a King's commission in the army. It was proposed that King's commissions should be obtainable by Indian gentlemen in the following three ways: (1) By qualifying as a cadet through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, (2) By the selection of specially capable and deserving Indian officers or non-commissioned officers of Indian regiments who had either been promoted from the ranks or joined their regiments on direct appointment as jemadar, (3) By the bestowal of honorary King's commissions on Indian officers who had rendered distinguished service, but whose age and lack of education precluded their being granted the full King's commission. A number of honorary King's commissions are still granted annually to a limited number of Viceroy's commissioned officers of the class described in the third category mentioned above. The second of the sources of selection mentioned has since been almost entirely abandoned for the reason that a Viceroy's commissioned officer of this class cannot, as a practical matter, hope to have a normal career as a King's commissioned officer. It is the first of the three avenues of selection mentioned which gives the fullest opportunity to the Indian of satisfying a military ambition and of enjoying a military career on terms of absolute equality with the British officer, who, as a general rule, also enters the army by qualifying at Sandhurst. It was decided that, in the first instance, ten vacancies at Sandhurst should be reserved annually for Indian cadets.

A further measure adopted by the Government was the establishment of the Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun, a Government institution for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for a King's commission in the army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

The arrangements so far made enable a maximum of 70 boys to be in residence at the college at any one time, and the normal course of education is planned to occupy six years. These dispositions will render it possible to provide from Dehra Dun sufficient candidates to fill the ten vacancies at Sandhurst which are at present allotted annually to Indians. In February 1923, it was decided that eight units of the Indian Army should be completely Indianized. The units selected for Indianization were 7th Light Cavalry, 16th Light Cavalry, 2/1st Madras Pioneers, 4/19th Hyderabad Regiment, 5th Royal Battalion, 5th Mahratta Light Infantry, 1/7th Rajput Regiment (Q V O L I), 1/14th Punjab Regiment, 2/1st Punjab Regiment.

Training Institutions.

The following institutions exist in India for the higher training of military personnel and for the education of instructors for units.

Staff College, Quetta

Senior Officers School, Belgaum

School of Artillery, Kakul

Equitation School, Saugor

Two Small Arms Schools, Pachmarhi and Satara

School of Physical Training, Ambala.

Machine Gun School, Ahmednagar

Army Signal School, Poona

Royal Tank Corps School, Ahmednagar

British Army School of Education, Belgaum

Indian Army School of Education, Wellington

Army School of Cookery, Poona.

Two Army Veterinary Schools, Ambala and Poona.

Indian Army Service Corps Training Establishment, Rawalpindi

Their object is to ensure to all formations and units throughout the army a constant supply of officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men, provided with a thorough up-to-date knowledge of various technical subjects, and with the ability to pass on this knowledge.

Army in India Reserve of Officers.—Previous to the Great War there had been what was called the Indian Army Reserve of Officers, a body of trained officers available to replace casualties in the Indian Army. The war proved that for many reasons this reserve did not meet the requirements and in September 1922 sanction was given to reconstitute the I. A. R. O.

The reconstitution proposed and sanctioned was as follows —

(a) The following gentlemen could be granted commissions in the Reserve

(1) Officers holding King's commissions who, having retired from H. M. S. forces, were not liable for further service

(2) Officials, other than Military Officers, serving under the Government of India

(3) Private gentlemen residing in India

(b) Commissions would not usually be given to any one over the age of 28, unless he had previous commissioned service in the Regular Army, I.A.R.O. or I.D.F.

(c) The new Reserve would supply the Army in India and not only the Indian Army as before

(d) The Reserve would be formed on a fixed establishment for each arm and branch of the Army

(e) In the Indian Army the officers would be posted to definite groups and units

(f) Officers would be divided into two groups (i) those immediately available for service in emergency and (ii) those who would not be available until the first group was exhausted

(g) All officers would do periodical training of 30 days a year either with a regular unit or if that were impossible with the Auxiliary Force

(h) All officers would receive Rs 750 for each period of 30 days' training in lieu of pay and allowances.

The fighting races.—The fighting classes that contribute to the composition of the Indian Army have hitherto been drawn mainly from the north of India, but the experiences of the great war have caused some modifications in the opinions previously held as to the relative value of these and other fighting men. The numbers of the various castes and tribes enlisted in the Army have since the war undergone fluctuations, and it is not possible at present to give exact information as to their proportions. Previous to the war the Sikhs contributed very large numbers both to the cavalry and infantry, and the contribution of the Gurkhas was also large. It is probable that these classes preserve their preponderance. The Sikhs, who inhabit the Punjab originated in a sect founded near Lahore by a peasant in the early part of the sixteenth century and in the course of a hundred years grew into a formidable militant power. Muhammadans of various races contribute a still larger proportion to both the cavalry and infantry. These are drawn both from the north and the south of India, as well as from beyond the Frontier. They are all excellent fighting men, hardy and warlike, who have furnished soldiers to all the great powers of India for many hundreds of years. As cavalry the Muhammadans are perhaps unequalled by any other race in the East, being good horsemen and expert men-at-arms.

Next in point of numbers are the Gurkhas of Nepal, who were at the outbreak of war formed in twenty complete battalions, but

these have been considerably increased. As fighters in the hills they are unsurpassed even by the Pathans of the North-West Frontier, but the Garhwals are equally good mountaineers.

The professional military caste of India from time immemorial has been the Rajput, inhabiting not only Rajputana but the United Provinces and Oudh. Of fine physique and martial bearing, these warriors of Hindustan formed the backbone of the old Bengal Army, and have sustained the English flag in every campaign in the East. Their high caste and consequent prejudices in no respect interfere with their martial instincts and efficiency in war. They furnish many battalions. The Garhwals are Hill Rajputs, good and gallant soldiers, who have proved themselves equal to any other troops on the field of battle and have established an imperishable record in the war both in Europe and in the East. The two battalions which were all we had in 1914 have since been added to. The Jats are a fine and warlike race of Hindus found in the Delhi and Rohtak districts and adjoining territory. It was these people who held out so bravely at Bharatpur and repelled Lord Lake's army in 1805. They have proved themselves good soldiers on the battlefields of Europe. Dogras are good and steady soldiers found in the hilly districts of the Punjab. They fought well in Flanders and in Mesopotamia.

Among those who have rendered signal and gallant service in the war are the Mahrattas of the Deccan and the Konkan, who have revived the reputation held by their race in the days of Shivaji, the founder of the Mahratta Empire. It is probable that their proved efficiency in war will lead to their recruitment in larger numbers in future.

In addition to the castes that have been mentioned low caste men from the south and other parts of India have filled the ranks of the Pioneer regiments and Sappers and Miners, and done their duty well in every campaign in which they have been engaged.

Summary of India's Effort in the War.—In a despatch by the Commander-in-Chief published in July, 1919, the whole operations of the Indian Army during the war are reviewed. His Excellency gives in it the following figures showing the extent of India's contribution in terms of men. On the outbreak of war, the combatant strength of the Indian Army, including reservists, was 194,000 Indian ranks, enlistments during the war for all branches of the service amounted to 791,000, making a total combatant contribution of 985,000. Of this number 552,000 were sent overseas. As regards non-combatants, the pre-war strength was 45,000; an additional 427,000 were enrolled during the war and 391,000 were sent overseas. The total contribution of Indian personnel has thus been 1,457,000 of whom 945,000 have served overseas. Casualties amounted to 106,594, which include 86,694 deaths from all causes. The number of animals sent overseas was 175,000.*

* For a record of the services of the Indian Army in the War, see The Indian Year Book for 1920, p. 159, et seq.

Effectives

FIGHTING AND ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES, 1922-23

	1922-23				
	British Officers	British other Ranks	Indian Officers and Indian other Ranks	Others.	Total
(a) Fighting services (including Royal Air Force)	4,467	66,078	144,617	20,490	235,652
(b) Administrative Services	2,360	5,089	25,893	38,557	71,904
Ration (a) to (b)					3 1

Budget Expenditure on National Defence

A part of the Defence expenditure on the Indian Budget is incurred in England, the nature of such expenditure being indicated in the detailed Tables of Army, Marine and Military Works expenditure. This expenditure is met by transfer of funds from India. Since April 1st, 1920, the accounts have been prepared on the basis of the rate of 2/- per rupee for the conversion of English sterling transactions into rupees. The sterling value of the rupee has, however, stood at a lower level in recent years—it is anticipated that the average rate for 1924-25 will work out at 1-4 d. In consequence of this variation from the 2/- rate, large sums have to be brought to account as credits or debits on account of exchange in respect of transactions involving remittances to or from India. All these exchange gains or losses are recorded in the first instance under a suspense heading, the portion attributable to the various headings

in respect of outlay incurred in England is calculated every month on the basis of the average of the daily telegraphic transfer rates from Calcutta to London, and transferred to these accounts, and it is considered, with reference to the circumstances of each year, whether the balance remaining under the suspense heading after these transfers are made should be written off to revenue or kept in suspense against the possibility of opposite results in succeeding years.

As a rule, the receipts collected by the various departments are not set off against expenditure as appropriations in aid, but are shown separately on the receipts side of the budget. This is especially the case with the receipts of the Military Departments, which amount to considerable sums.

The Provincial Governments incur no expenditure for Military purposes.

SUMMARY OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE (Gross)

Table 1

	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates	Budget estimates as passed
Rupees (000's omitted)			
Army	647,060	585,052	578,810
Marine	13,999	9,865	9,168
Military Works	49,000	44,455	42,038
Total	710,059	639,372	630,016
Defence expenditure Index	% 100	% 90	% 89
Index number of wholesale prices			
1914=100	180	175	(a) 1,751
1922-23=100	100	97	97
Rupees (000's omitted)			
Defence Expenditure reduced to pre-war price level	394,000	365,000	360,000
Index of Defence Expenditure reduced to pre-war price level	% 100	% 93	% 91

(a) Average, April-June 1924.

NOTES.—(1) This summary includes the cost of the Royal Air Force, which is included in the Army Estimates, and also the expenditure on non-effective services, but does not include debt service.

(2) All Expenditure for Military purposes incurred in the United Kingdom by the Indian Government, as also all contributions to the Imperial Government for these purposes, are included in the above figures.

ANALYSIS OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE.

1 The following table gives the main items of *Army* Expenditure, shown for India and England separately —

Table 2.

	1922-28	1923-24	1924-25
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates	Budget Estimates
INDIA	Rupees (000 omitted).		
A Standing Army			
(1) Effective Services			
Maintenance of the Standing Army	302,954	291,148	284,048
Educational, etc., establishments and Working Expenses of Hospitals, Depots, etc.	94,069	92,452	82,720
Army Headquarters, Staff of Commands, etc.	21,440	20,408	20,519
Stock Account	-29,864	-35,499	-14,738
Special Services	54,582	21,641	5,795
Miscellaneous charges	19,478	18,375	18,386
Unadjusted expenditure	- 2,484		
Total Effective Services	480,175	408,520	396,728
(2) Non-effective Services			
Non-effective charges	59,275	56,497	53,886
B Auxiliary and Territorial Forces			
Effective	9,546	10,187	11,195
C Royal Air Force			
Effective	11,055	13,258	12,997
Non-effective		62	5
Total India			
Effective	480,776	426,965	420,920
Non-effective	59,275	56,559	53,891
Total	540,051	483,524	474,811

Table 2—contd

	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates	Budget Estimates
(Rupees 000's omitted)			
ENGLAND			
A Standing Army			
(1) Effective Services			
Maintenance of the Standing Army	31,068	29,735	26,945
Educational, etc., establishments and			
Working Expenses of Hospitals,			
depots, etc	2,350	2,526	1,965
Army Headquarters, Staff of Com			
mandas, etc	512	420	420
Stock Account	18,134	11,605	15,750
Special Services	4,536	8,000	10,500
Miscellaneous charges	7,401	7,288	6,380
Total Effective Services	64,901	59,574	61,969
(2) Non-effective Services	34,225	36,243	37,482
B Royal Air Force			
Effective	7,883	5,706	4,548
Total England	107,009	101,523	103,999
Total Army Expenditure—			
Effective	553,560	492,245	487,437
Non-effective	93,500	92,807	91,373
Grand Total	647,060	585,052	578,810

The amounts expended in England on effective services consist of such charges as payments to the War Office in London in respect of British Forces serving in India, the transport to India of these forces, and payments on account of stores taken to India by British troops, educational establishments in England for Indian Services, etc. The expenditure on non-effective services consists of payments to the War Office in London for retired pay to British forces for services in India and to non-effective and retired officers of the Indian Service, and of various gratuities.

Of the sum of Rs 602.5 million allotted in the Budget for 1924-25 to meet the net expenditure on Military Services (i.e., after deducting Defence Receipts), Rs 554.9 million will be available for expenditure under the heading 'Army,' made up of Rs 455.5

million for expenditure in India and Rs 99.3 million in England. The former figure includes Rs 43 million on account of exchange on net expenditure in England. The English expenditure includes £800,000 for the retirement of surplus officers of the Indian Army and £250,000 for payment of the balance of the War Office claim in regard to the exchange on cessation on war gratuities of British Officers and soldiers.

The gross working expenses of military establishments such as bakeries, pasture and dairy farms, army clothing factories, and storage depots, army ordnance factories and base mechanical transport workshops are included in the Budget.

The division of expenditure on Military Works between India and England is shown below.

	1924-25	1923-24	1922-23
	Budget Estimates	Revised Estimates	Closed Accounts
(Rupees 000's omitted)			
India (including exchange)	47,471	43,595	41,560
England	1,529	560	478
Total	49,000	44,455	42,038

The estimate for 1924-25 includes about Rs 300,000 for special expenditure in Waziristan.

The Strength of the Army.

The following table gives the average strength of European troops, Regulars and Territorials and the main facts as regards their health in 1921 with comparative figures for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1915 to 1922 —

Period	Average strength.	Admissions	Deaths.	Invalids sent home	Average constantly sick
1910-14 average	69,440	89,889	803	488	2,094 57
1915	44,891	86,952	267	889	1,754 19
1916	60,737	46,892	397	1,848	2,414 56
1917	80,825	62,872	390	1,837	3,686 45
1918	87,982	90,637	1,424	2,007	5,286 61
1919	56,561	54,982	488	4,824	3,245 84
1915-19 average	66,199	58,867	593	1,980	3,277 53
1920	67,832	61,429	385	2,314	3,488 08
1921	58,981	60,515	408	749	3,070 04
1922	60,166	37,836	284	714	1,902 32

THE INDIAN TROOPS.

The average strength of Indian troops including those on duty in China and Nepal and other stations outside India, but excluding those on Field Service, was 229,731 in 1919 as compared with 341,458 in 1918.

The following table gives below the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths, and invaliding for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1915 to 1922 inclusive —

Period	Average strength	Admissions	Deaths	Invalids	Average constantly sick	Ratio per 1,000 of strength			
						Admissions	Deaths	Invalids	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 average	190,261	71,213	573	699	2,662	544 6	4 39	5 4	20 7
1915	119,985	89,315	1,026	5,415	4,065	744 4	8 55	45 1	33 9
1916	130,076	105,833	1,248	3,745	5,250	757 4	8 97	26 9	37 7
1917	191,242	141,787	2,201	3,421	6,556	741 4	11 51	17 9	34 8
1918	341,458	292,393	9,959	6,589	13,897	855 3	29 17	19 2	40 7
1919	229,731	176,313	2,742	4,999	9,191	767 5	11 94	21 8	40 0
1915-19 average	204,298	161,028	3,435	4,824	7,792	788 2	16 81	23 6	38 1
1920	216,445	164,987	2,124	4,564	9,365	762 3	9 61	21 1	2 8
1921	175,884	119,215	1,782	3,838	6,031	670 7	10 16	20 7	34 4
1922	147,810	77,468	1,014	2,659	3,639	524 0	6 86	18 0	24 6

THE EAST INDIES SQUADRON.

Since 1908 a squadron of the Royal Navy, known as the East Indies Squadron, has been maintained in Indian waters. It has naturally varied in strength from time to time, and of late years in particular there have been several changes in its composition, the most recent being in the direction of strengthening it, owing to the disappearance of strength in the other squadrons of the Eastern Fleet. In 1908 the squadron consisted of one second class and three smaller cruisers and four sloops or gunboats. In 1906, when the policy of withdrawal from Eastern waters was inaugurated, it consisted of two second class and two third class cruisers, and remained at this strength until 1910 when one second class cruiser was withdrawn and two smaller vessels

substituted, and three cruisers were lent from the Mediterranean to assist in the suppression of the arms traffic in the Gulf. By 1918 the position of the East India squadron had considerably improved. The battleship *Swiftsure* had taken the place of the second class cruiser which had been flagship, and a modern second class cruiser replaced the *Perseus*.

The Squadron in 1922.—The latest Navy List shows the composition of the Squadron (Fourth Light Cruiser Squadron) as follows — Southampton (Flag) Light Cruiser, 5,600 tons. Colombo Light Cruiser, 4,190 tons. Cairo Light Cruiser, 4,190 tons. Sloop *Grosvenor* and *Cyclamen*. Special Service vessel *Triad* (B.N.O. Persian Gulf).

The proportion of contributions from the overseas Dominions towards naval expenditure is shown in the following table issued with the last Navy Estimates that gave details —

Received from	Nature of Service	Total.
		£
India	Maintenance of His Majesty's Ships in Indian Waters	100,000
	Indian Troop Service (on account of work performed by the Admiralty)	3,400
	Repayment on account of services rendered by His Majesty's Ships engaged in the suppression of the Arms Traffic in the Persian Gulf	64,000
Australian Commonwealth Dominion of Canada	Contributions on account of Liability for Retired Pay of Officers and Pensions of Men lent from the Royal Navy	10,800
Australian Commonwealth, Do.	Survey of the N W Coast of Australia	7,500
Dominion of New Zealand	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of a branch of the Royal Navy Reserve	41,600
	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of the Imperial Navy generally, also of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve	100,000
Union of South Africa	General maintenance of the Navy	85,000
Newfoundland	Maintenance of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve	8,000
	Total	415,300

India's Marine Expenditure

Since 1869 India has paid a contribution of varying amounts to the Imperial Government in consideration of services performed by the Royal Navy. Under existing arrangements, which date from 1894-7, the subsidy of £100,000 a year is paid for the upkeep of certain ships of the East India Squadron, which may not be employed beyond prescribed limits, except with the consent of the Government of India. The expenditure amounts to nearly £400,000 annually.

ROYAL INDIAN MARINE.

The Royal Indian Marine (The Sea Service under the Government of India) traces its origin so far back as 1612 when the East India Company stationed at Surat found that it was necessary to provide themselves with armed vessels to protect their commerce and settlements from the Dutch or Portuguese and from the pirates which infested the Indian coasts. The first two ships, the Dragon and Hoesander (or Oslander), were despatched from England in 1612 under a Captain Best, and since those days under slightly varying titles and of various strengths the Government in India have always maintained a sea service.

The periods and titles have been as follows —
 Hon E I Co's Marine 1612—1686
 Bombay " 1686—1880
 Indian Navy " 1880—1863
 Bombay Marine " 1863—1877
 H M Indian Marine 1877—1892
 Royal Indian Marine 1892, Present day

The Marine has always been most closely connected with Bombay, and in 1686 when the E. India Co took over Bombay, Captain Young of the Marine was appointed Deputy Governor. From then until 1877 the Marine was under the Government of Bombay, and although from that date all the Marine Establishments were amalgamated into an Imperial Marine under the Government of India, Bombay has continued to be the headquarters and the official residence of the Director.

War Services of the Marine.

1612-1717 Continuous wars against Dutch, Portuguese and Pirates for supremacy of West Coast of India, 1744 War with France, cap-

ture of Chandernagore, and French ship Indienne. In 1756 Capture of Castle of Gheria, 1774 Mahratta War, capture of Tannah. Latter part of the eighteenth century, war with French and Dutch, Capture of Pondicherry, Trincomalee, Jajnapetam, Colombo, etc. 1801 Egyptian campaign under Sir Ralph Abercrombie. 1808 War with France. 1810 Taking of Mauritius and capture of French ship in Port Louis. Early part of the nineteenth century suppression of Jowasmi Pirates in the Persian Gulf. 1811 Conquest of Tara. 1818 Expedition against Sultan of Sambar. 1817-18 Mahratta War, capture of Forts at Severndroog. 1819 Expedition to exterminate piracy in the Persian Gulf. 1820 Capture of Mocho. 1821 Expedition against the Beni-koo-All Arabs. 1824-26 First Burma War. 1827 Blockade of Berbera and Somali Coast. 1835 Defeat of Beni Yas Pirater. 1838 Expedition to Afghanistan and capture of Karachi. 1838 Capture of Aden. 1840-42 War in China. 1843 Scinde War. Battle of Meanee, capture of Hyderabad. 1845-46 Maori war in New Zealand. 1848-49 War in Punjab, siege of Multan. 1852 Second Burma War, Capture of Rangoon, Martaban, Bassein, Prome and Pegu. 1855 Persian War, capture of Bushire, Muhammarah and Ahwaz. 1856-57 War in China. 1857-59 The Indian Mutiny. 1859 Capture of the Island of Bep. 1860 China War, Canton, Taku Forts, Peking and Peking. 1871 Abyssinian War. 1882 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Third Burma War. 1889 Chin-Lahai Expedition. 1890 Sackin Expedition. 1897 Expedition to Imbrie, Mombassa E. Africa, 1899-1902 S. African

War 1900-01 Boxer Rebellion in China relief of Peking, 1902-04, BomaHland Expedition Suppression of Arms Traffic operations, Persian Gulf, 1912-14

During the War 1914-1918 Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on many and various duties Royal Indian Marine Ships "DUFFERIN," "HARDINGE," "NORTHBROOK," "LAWRENCE," "DALHOUSIE" and "MINTO" had their guns mounted and served as Auxiliary Cruisers Officers also served in the Royal Navy in the Grand Fleet, Mediterranean and North Sea

In addition to transport duties in Indian Ports, Officers were sent to Marseilles, East Africa and Egypt for such duties, and on the entry of Turkey into the War were employed on duties towing and manning River Craft and Barges to and in Mesopotamia, and it was necessary to enlist a number of Temporary Officers, Warrant Officers and men to the numbers of approximately 240, 60 and 2,000 respectively for these and other duties

When the War Office assumed full control of Operations in Mesopotamia a large number of Regular and Temporary Officers and men were seconded to the Royal Engineers and General Service respectively for duties in the Inland Water Transport which controlled all River Transport work in that country, and these officers held many important executive appointments in that unit.

The movements of all sea transports between India and the various theatres of War were controlled by Marine Officers

Trawlers were built in the Bombay and Calcutta Dockyards and Mine Sweeping Operations were carried out with these and Launches off Bombay and elsewhere, the Trawlers were also used for towing duties

Retired Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on Naval Transport duties in England and France, and also in very responsible positions with the Inland Water Transport in France

Service in the War 1914-18.—The Royal Indian Marine, though a small Service compared with the Army and Navy, played a very active and conspicuous part in the European War These are set out in details in the Indian Year Book for 1922 and earlier editions (q v pp 292 et seq)

Personnel, 1924.

DIRECTOR.

Captain E J Headlam, C.S.I., C.M.G., D.S.O., R.I.M.

(The Director, R.I.M., advises the Government of India on all maritime matters. Is also Principal Naval Transport Officer, East Indies)

DEPUTY DIRECTOR.

Capt E W Huddleston, C.I.E., C.B.E., R.I.M.

FINANCIAL ADVISER.

J C Crawford, Esq

CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT TO THE DIRECTOR, R. I. M.

E O Carey, Esq

OFFICERS

Captains	9
Commanders	24
Lieutenant-Commanders, Lieutenants, Sub-Lieutenants and Midshipmen	58
Engineer Captain	1
Engineer-Commanders	9
Engineer Lieutenant-Commanders, Engineer Lieutenants and Engineer Sub-Lieutenants	44

WARRANT OFFICERS

Boatswains, European	13
Clerks	14
Boatswains, Indian	9
Engine Drivers, 1st class	1

PETTY OFFICERS AND MEN

Who are mostly recruited from the Ratnagiri District of the Bombay Presidency

SHIPS

	R I M. S. Dufferin	8,380 tons	10,191 Horse Power	
Station Ship ..	Clive	2,100 "	2,422 "	Burma.
" ..	Minto	1,152 "	2,025 "	Andaman Islands
Sloop ..	Cornwallis	1,290 "	"	Aden
" ..	Elphinstone	1,237 "	2,700 "	Relief Station Ship.
Despatch Vessel Light House Tender.	Lawrence	1,259 "	2,020 "	Persian Gulf.
Surveying Ship	Investigator	1,185 "	1,500 "	
" ..	Palnurus	4-4 "	486 "	
Receiving Ship	Dalhousie	2,195 "	2,200 "	Bombay Depot Ship
Patrol Ship ..	Pathan	"	3,500 "	
" ..	Baluchi	"	3,500 "	

In addition to the above there are 38 vessels composed of steam trawlers, service launches, target towing tugs, powder boats, military service launches, distributed at Bombay, Calcutta, Aden, Rangoon and Karachi.

Dockyards.

There were two Royal Indian Marine Dock yards at Bombay and at Calcutta, the former being the more important. The one at Calcutta has been closed. There are 5 graving docks and a wet basin at Bombay, together with factories.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS, BOMBAY DOCK YARD

R I M Officers

Commander of the Yard, Comdr A G Kinch, D.S.O., R.I.M.

Chief Engineer of the Yard, Engineer Captain F B Phillips, O.B.E., R.I.M.

Marine Store Officer, Engineer Commander, W W Collins, R.I.M.

1st Assistant to the Chief Engineer of the Yard, Engineer-Commander R S Baskett, R.I.M.

2nd Assistant to the Chief Engineer of the Yard, Engineer Lieutenant-Commander W G Mansfield, R.I.M.

Maintenance Officer, Lieutenant-Commander, J N Metcalfe, O.B.E., D.S.C., R.I.M.

Civilian Officers

Chief Constructor, Mr E P Newnham, C.I.E.

Electrical Engineer, Mr S W Redcliff

Constructor, Mr F Williams

„ Mr W J Kenshett

Assistant Constructor, Mr W G J Francis

Medical Staff

Marine Surgeon, Lieutenant-Colonel D M Houston, M.B., I.M.S.

Warrant Officer in sub-medical charge, Dock yard Dispensary, Assistant Surgeon J B D Sousa I.M.D.

R I M Warrant Officers

Boatswain of the Yard, Mr C Mahon, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Boatswain-in-Charge, Arsenal Stores, Mr P O'Hara, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Marine Transport Appointments, Bombay

Divisional Marine Transport Officer, Commander R W V Beatty, R.I.M.

Assistant Marine Transport Officer, 1st Grade, Lieutenant-Commander G T D Wells, R.I.M.

Assistant Marine Transport Officer, 2nd Grade, Lieutenant E D L Brown

Appointments

In addition to the regular appointments in the ships of the Royal Indian Marine, and in the R. I. M. Dockyards, the following appointments under local Governments are held by the officers of the Royal Indian Marine —

BOMBAY

Port Officer, Assistant Port Officer, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and 2nd and 3rd Engineers and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bombay also Assistant to the Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bombay (temporary)

CALCUTTA

Port Officer, Deputy Port Officer and Deputy Shipping Master, Assistant Port Officer, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd and 3rd Engineer and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bengal

NARAYANGANJ (Bengal)

Engineer Superintendent of the Police Vessels, Bengal Government

BURMA

Principal Port Officer, 1st and 2nd Assistant Port Officer, Rangoon Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and Superintending Engineer to the Government of Burma Assistant to the Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and Superintending Engineer to the Government of Burma and Engineer Superintendent of Government Vessels in Lower Burma

MANDALAY

Marine Transport Officer and Superintending Engineer

AKYAB

Port Officer

BASSEIN

Port Officer

MOULMEIN

Port Officer

CHITTAGONG

Port Officer and Engineer and Ship Surveyor

MADRAS

Presidency Port Officer and Deputy Conservator of the Port

ADEN

Port Officer

KARACHI

Port Officer, Assistant Marine Transport Officer and Engineer and Ship Surveyor

PORT BLAIR.

Engineer and Harbour Master.

Indian finance has undergone such remarkable changes during the last few years that some general introduction of the present position is required. Originally there was one budget for the whole of India, the provinces receiving fixed allowances with which to meet their expenses. As the provinces grew in importance and in power it was obvious that these conditions could not continue, and there developed a long struggle between the Provinces and the Government of India, the former claiming a larger share of the revenues raised within their borders and greater freedom in the spending of them, and the Government of India, perhaps not unnaturally, striving to retain its control. But by degrees the situation was improved into a working compromise. Contracts were made between the Government of India insuring to the provinces adequate and growing funds, an important element in these contracts being the division of certain heads of revenue between the Province and the Government of India, so as to give the Province as the tax collecting agency an incentive to develop revenues to a reasonable extent. Later, the provinces were given the product of certain fixed heads of revenue instead of the usufruct of divided heads, such fixed heads being decided by negotiation and agreement. A change of this character went deeper than appears at first sight. When the Government of India was entitled to half of any particular head of revenue it naturally kept a jealous eye on expenditure charged to that revenue, and changes of policy which might affect the yield of that revenue. This gave occasion to much interference with the provinces which was increasingly resented. But when there was a clearer cut between the revenues of the Government of India and of the provinces occasions for interference and control were naturally fewer. It may be said that by the time of the passing of the Reform Act of 1919 a satisfactory adjustment between the financial roles of the Government of India and the Provinces had been reached and the real friction was small.

The Clean Cut.—Progress went very much farther in the Reform Act of 1919. By that instrument there was made what is for all practical purposes a clean cut between Imperial and Provincial finance. The Government of India took unto itself the whole product of those taxes which experience and usage have recognised as federal rather than State, which is a better description of the relations between the Government of India and the Provinces than Imperial and Provincial. Such taxes are customs, income tax, posts, and telegraphs, railways and the salt tax. It made over to the provinces, for their free and unfettered disposal, the yield of the other great taxes, such as land revenue, excise, forests, stamps, and miscellaneous heads. The full definition and dividing line drawn under this scheme will be found in the section The Government of India (g v). But when a balance sheet on these lines was drawn it was found that the Government of India was insufficiently provided with money to carry out its responsibilities. The deficiency was 983 lakhs of rupees. It was very difficult to adjust this contribution equitably amongst the provinces concerned, because under the various settlements effected there was a wide disparity between the conditions of the various provinces.

Ultimately the following decision was arrived at, with machinery for the gradual extinction of the provincial contributions, if ever the Government of India is in the happy position to be able to do without the funds. Meantime all that needs to be said is that whilst the disparity of the contributions from the various provinces is at first sight glaring, in practice there is no such disparity, and the financial authorities of Bombay can be found to argue that that Province is much worse off than Madras, though the Madras contribution is so much larger. The only other point is that this scheme has already broken down in part, the great and wealthy Province of Bengal having secured temporary evasion of its payment on the plea of poverty.

In the financial year 1921-22 contributions shall be paid to the Governor General in Council by the local Governments mentioned below according to the following scale:—

Name of Province.	Contributions (In lakhs of rupees)
Madras	348
Bombay	56
Bengal	63
United Provinces	240
Punjab	176
Burma	64
Central Provinces and Berar	22
Assam	18

From the financial year 1922-23 onwards a total contribution of 983 lakhs, or such smaller sum as may be determined by the Governor General in Council, shall be paid to the Governor General in Council by the local Governments mentioned in the preceding rule. When for any year the Governor General in Council determines as the amount of the contribution a smaller sum than that payable for the preceding year, a reduction shall be made in the contribution of those local Governments only whose last previous annual contribution exceeds the proportion specified below of the smaller sum so determined as the total contribution, and any reduction so made shall be proportionate to such excess:—

Madras	17—90ths.
Bombay	13—90ths.
Bengal	19—90ths.
United Provinces	18—90ths.
Punjab	9—90ths.
Burma	63—90ths.
Central Provinces and Berar	8—90ths.
Assam	24—90ths.

1 Recent Indian Finance

The year 1924 marked a distinct and very important stage in the finances of India. Those who have studied the history of Indian finance will remember the general trend of the country's balance sheet. Up to the outbreak of the war it was a record of very careful finance, with a general surplus of revenue over expenditure, all such surpluses, save when they were in the nature of "windfalls" going to the avoidance of debt. Throughout the war

the finances were carefully handled and with certain moderate increases in taxation the accounts were made to balance. But coming in 1919 a lamentable change came over the situation. The warlike invasion of India by Afghanistan meant a war which cost the exchequer directly some 34 crores of rupees. Nor was this all. Whilst the military resistance of Afghanistan to the Indian forces was contemptible, and Kabul lay open to easy capture if it had been thought worth while to occupy it, the effect of this attack was to set a large part of the North-West Frontier ablaze and to thrust on the Government of India a series of costly expeditions. When these were completed, there remained the necessity of establishing a new Frontier system to take the place of that which collapsed in 1919. This especially in the notoriously troublesome country of Waziristan, (q.v. Frontier) involved the occupation of certain dominating posts and of connecting them with each other and with the advanced military stations of India by a series of very expensive roads. This abnormal expenditure derailed the financial equilibrium of the whole country. Nor is it possible to acquit the Finance Department of the Government of India in the difficult post-war period of a relaxation of that close control of expenditure which in previous years had balanced the accounts even in the years of famine and plague. The result was that the accumulated deficits of the Government of India reached the very high figure of Rs 100 crores. This led to two results.

Retrenchment and Taxation.—Bowling to the insistent demand for retrenchment the Government of India appointed in 1922 a retrenchment committee, on the model of the Geddes Committee which overhauled the extravagant post-war expenditure of the British Government. This committee is generally called after its chairman, the Inchoape Committee. It sat in 1921, and presented a report which recommended reductions in expenditure which amounted in the aggregate to Rs 18 crores. Then in the Budget of 1923 it sought for further sources of revenue which would, according to the then estimates, produce funds which would permanently balance the accounts. The source of these additional funds was the Salt Tax, which it was proposed should be doubled from one rupee four annas to two rupees eight annas a maund of 82 pounds. The circumstances were unusual. The Salt Tax is always unpopular in India. The public was so alarmed at the growth of expenditure and the increase in taxation that its representatives in the Legislatures were not disposed to place further funds at the disposal of the Government until the possibilities of economy had been fully explored. Then the first Assembly elected under the Constitution of 1919 was approaching the end of its term of office. That Assembly had voted increased taxes, direct and indirect, amounting to approximately Rs. 29 crores per annum. The members felt that they had done their utmost and that they could not face their constituents after agreeing to a further increase in taxation and that in a more unpopular form. The rise in the Salt Tax was rejected by the Legislative Assembly. It was, however, accepted by the upper cham-

ber, the Council of State, and acting on the advice of his Financial Ministers, the Viceroy 'certified' the higher Salt Duty under the exceptional powers reserved for him in the Government of India Act of 1919. The effect of this measure was seen when the next elections were held. It is not open to doubt that this "certification" of the higher Salt Tax had a powerful influence in returning to the Legislative Assembly towards the end of the year a majority of Swarajists and Independents who were on the whole hostile to the form of Government established in the Act of 1919.

Equilibrium Established.—Fortunately financial equilibrium was established and a surplus realised in the Budget of 1923-24. As the Indian Budgets are framed before the financial year has actually expired on the 31st March, there are always adjustments in the accounts. The estimated deficit for 1922-23 was over the actual figure, the deficit estimated was Rs 17½ crores, the actual deficit owing to reductions in military expenditure was Rs 15.02 crores. The Budget for 1923-24 was framed in the expectation of a surplus of Rs 81 lakhs. The commercial history of the year however did not realise expectations, for the recovery of trade was slow. The higher duty on salt did not yield the revenue anticipated, and although this is not the official view we maintain that the double duty actually decreased consumption. The revenue fell Rs 5.58 crores below the estimate. On the other hand there was a considerable saving in expenditure, aggregating Rs 4.19 crores, with the result that the estimated surplus in the Budget was converted into a deficit of Rs 38 lakhs. The figures are set out in the following table—

Statement comparing the actual Revenue and Expenditure of the Central Government (Imperial Revenue and Expenditure before the Reforms) with the Revised Estimates for each year from 1913-14 to 1922-23.

[In thousands of Rupees]

—	Revenue	Expenditure	Surplus(+) Deficit(—)
1913-14	81,32.71	77,85.86	+3,46.86
1914-15	76,15.35	78,83.14	—2,67.79
1915-16	80,00.06	81,79.28	—1,79.20
1916-17	98,53.10	87,31.37	+11,21.73
1917-18	1,18,70.58	1,06,57.52	+12,13.06
1918-19	1,30,40.66	1,33,13.72	—2,73.06
1919-20	1,87,13.98	1,60,79.27	+26,34.71
1920-21	1,35,83.32	1,61,64.17	—25,80.85
1921-22	1,15,21.50	1,42,86.58	—27,65.02
1922-23	1,21,41.29	1,36,43.05	—15,01.76

A Windfall.—Against this the Government benefited from a providential windfall. They had at their disposal a sum of Rs. 4.73 crores profits from the control of enemy ships belonging to India. After various adjustments, this windfall left the Government with a surplus estimated at Rs 2.03 crores, which was applied to the reduction of debt.

The variations are summarised below —		(In lakhs of rupees)	
		(+better—worse)	
Customs revenue, less		4.68	
Salt revenue, less		3.05	
Opium revenue, more	38		
Net receipts from Railways, more	58		
Net receipts from Posts and Telegraphs, less (62 lakhs of the deterioration is nominal, due to the debit to the Department for the first time of the cost of pensions and to payment made for the stock of postage and telegraph stamps which have now been taken over by the Department)		1.24	
Interest, Currency and Miscellaneous receipts, more	1.42		
Military receipts, more	1.17		
Loss by exchange on revenue realised in 1s 4d rate assumed for Budget		13	
Minor variations	17		
Total		3.72	9.10
Net deterioration in revenue		—5.38	
Opium expenditure, more			70
Saving under expenditure on stamps and superannuation allowances and pensions owing to transfers to the Posts and Telegraphs Department (see explanation above under Posts and Telegraphs receipts)	62		
Saving in interest chargeable to Posts and Telegraphs and in capital outlay of the Department charged to revenue	40		
Saving in gross interest payments	74		
Smaller interest recoveries from Provincial Governments			25
Saving in provision for sinking funds	80		
Saving in gross Military expenditure	68		
Saving in Exchange	1.41		
Minor variations	54		
Total		5.14	95
Net saving in expenditure		+4.19	
Net deterioration in Budget anticipations		—1.19	
Surplus in Budget	81		
Deficit	38		

II The Financial Position

It was in these happier circumstances that the Finance Member was able to frame his budget for 1924-25. But before coming to the actual statement there are certain broad

issues affecting the financial stability of India which merit attention. They come most appropriately in a consideration of the Budget, and are therefore dealt with here rather than under the special heading of debt. In examining the basis of Indian credit, the Finance Member said —

“Broadly speaking it may be said that both in the provinces and in the Central Government the era of unbalanced budgets has now been brought to an end. We have got rid of practically all our embarrassments in regard to floating debt and can face the necessity of meeting short-term bonds which mature in the next few years with confidence. There is no longer any fear of our being forced to undesirable expedients, such as currency inflation, in order to meet our outgoings. And if the time has not yet come at which we can replace the present statutory, but inoperative, ratio of 2s gold to the Rupee by an effective ratio, this is due not to our inability to maintain our currency in a sound condition but to a continuance of economic instability in other parts of the world, which makes immediate stabilisation unattractive.”

“The improvement in our position is happily reflected in the improved market price of all our rupee securities. On the 15th February 1923, the 5 per cent tax-free loan 1945-55 was quoted at Rs 88 10-0, on the 15th February 1924 it was quoted at Rs 98. The quotation for the 5 per cent loan 1929-47 has risen in the same period from Rs 82-10-0 to Rs 93-2-0. In 1923 we were able for the first time since 1919 to raise money by a long term issue, and the improved quotations which I have mentioned give us good reason to hope that we may do even better in 1924-25.”

“One striking feature of the year 1923-24 is the increased popularity of our Post Office Cash Certificates. Originally issued in 1917, these certificates, thanks to a strenuous campaign for saving, were taken by the small investor to a total of 8 crores net during the period ending 31st March 1919. From that time onwards, year by year, repayments considerably exceeded new purchases and on the 31st March 1923 the total outstanding had been reduced to 3 crores. There is nothing which will give a greater stimulus to economic progress in India than the extension of the saving habit. The year 1923-24 has seen a very hopeful development in this direction. From the 1st April 1923 the terms on which Post Office Cash Certificates were issued were improved, so that they now offer a net yield of 6 per cent compound interest to those who hold them till maturity. At the same time as the issue of new certificates began, endeavours were made in various directions to popularise them, with the result that during the ten months ending the 31st January 1924 a total of 6 crores gross and 4½ crores net (after allowing for repayments) was invested in this way to the great advantage both of the small investor who lent us the money and of the Government of India who borrowed it, as well as of the Indian people as a whole who are richer individually by the amount of their savings and collectively by the productive capital assets in which these savings have been invested.”

III The Debt

Next the Finance Member dealt with the debt, and the general statement of the position is given below—

The total debt of the Government of India on the 31st March 1924 was constituted as follows:

In India—	(Rs Lakhs)
Loans	8,58.79
Treasury Bills in the hands of the public	2.13
Total in India	3,60.92
In England (at Rs. 15)—	
Loans	3,64.22
War Contribution	28.90
Total in England	3,93.12
Unfunded—	
Post Office Savings Banks	24.87
Cash Certificates	8.51
Provident Funds, etc	39.97
Total unfunded	73.35
	8,27.39

Add—

The Capital value of the liabilities undergoing redemption by way of Terminable Railway Annuities, amounting, on 31st March 1924, to Rs 60,095,485 or at Rs 15

	90.14
Total debt	9,17.53

"I have excluded Treasury Bills, amounting to 49.65 crores, held in the Paper Currency Reserve, as these represent a liability not entirely comparable to ordinary public debt. If, however, they are included, the gross total of the debt amounts to 9,67.18 crores. The corresponding total on the 31st March 1923 was 9,29.55 crores including a similar total of 49.35 crores of Treasury Bills in the Currency Reserve and 8,79.90 crores excluding these Treasury Bills."

Of the total on the 31st March 1924, 11.88 crores are due to the discount at which some of the loans were issued. This liability is treated as an interest charge and is being extinguished by annual appropriations from revenue within the period of each loan. It should therefore be excluded from our total debt figure, which is thus reduced to 9,05.65 crores. Of this, 5,75.39 crores are classed as productive debt and 3,28.45 crores as unproductive debt. The balance of 98.81 crores represents loans to Provincial Governments. These figures compare with 5,55.07 crores of productive debt and 3,30.11 crores of unproductive debt a year ago and 87.49 crores of loans to Provincial Governments. The rupee debt, which stood at 4,23.98 crores on the 31st March 1923, amounts to 4,34.27 crores on the 31st March 1924, while the sterling debt has risen from 504 million pounds on the 31st March 1923 to 522½ million pounds on the 31st March 1924.

The amount provided for reduction or avoidance of debt in the Estimates for 1923-24 was as follows—

	(Rs Lakhs)	(Rs Lakhs)
In India—		
1½ per cent Depreciation Fund against—		
5 per cent Indian War Loan, 1923-47		41
5 per cent Tax free Loan, 1915-55		38
Lump sum addition to the above made in and since 1921-22		80
		1,54
In England—		
War contribution—annual instalments in repayment of principal		442,900
Railway Annuities (capital portion) and sinking funds		1,544,300
Total in England		1,987,200
Which at Rs 16=		2,98
Total provision		4,52

Sinking Funds—For some years the provision of an adequate sinking fund for the redemption of debt has been under consideration in India. The sum actually provided for the reduction or avoidance of debt in the 1923-24 Budget was Rs 4.52 crores, but this was reached in rather haphazard manner. On a careful examination of the position, it was found that a satisfactory sinking fund would amount to Rs 4 crores per annum, and this has now been set aside.

Railway Finance—Another overdue reform effected in the Budget, and confirmed by subsequent legislation was the separation of Railway Finances from General Finances. The position arising from the confusion of these two financial arrangements was described as "an alternation between raids by the railways on the taxpayer and raids by the taxpayer on the Railways." The benefits expected to accrue from the separation of the two accounts are thus described—

"The taxpayer, instead of paying the whole of the expenses and taking the whole of the incomes of the railways, will enter into a bargain with the Railways to receive from them (a) a sum sufficient to pay in full the interest on the capital he has invested in the commercial lines, (b) an additional dividend of five sixths of one per cent on that capital and (c) a share of one fifth of any surplus earnings that may be secured in addition. In return, the railways will be left to carry on their business with the right to retain any surplus over and above what they pay to the Government and to apply it to railway purposes, first of all for creating reserves and then by using those reserves to improve the services they render to the public and reduce the price which they charge for those services. The Government of India and this Assembly will remain in complete control of the Railway Administration just as they now are. That control will be in no way impaired. But there will no longer be any need to consider

from the narrow standpoint of their effect upon the general revenues in a particular period of twelve months, that is in a particular Budget period, proposals by the Railway authorities which, though excellent and desirable in themselves, might, under the present system, upset the apparent equilibrium of the Budget for the year. The taxpayer will secure a regular and increasing contribution from his investment, largely independent of fluctuations in railway receipts and expenditure, and the railways will be able to spend money according to the real needs of the railway system, unimpeded by the necessity for conforming to the vagaries of Budget figures and the requirements of Budget accounting. The Railways will become a real commercial undertaking managed on commercial lines, and the taxpayer will get the benefit of commercial accounts and management.

"The main figures in the Railway Budget framed according to the proposed new plan are traffic receipts 97 07 crores, working expenses 65 23 crores interest and other charges 26 23 crores, leaving 1,33 48 lakhs as reserve and 4,27 80 lakhs as the net contribution to general revenues. Under the old system the net contribution is 4 18 lakhs."

IV The Budget of 1924-25

The financial position in the current year is improved by the rise in the Indian Exchange. Even in making his calculations the Finance Member was able to take a rate of one shilling and four pence three farthings, instead of the former rate of one shilling and four pence. In practice, although the actual figures will not be known until later, the rate has been much better than this. The Budget provides for an expenditure of Rs 104 57 crores, with a revenue of Rs 107 93 crores, giving a prospective surplus of Rs 3 36 crores.

Budget Certified—The disposal of this surplus gave rise to much discussion. As is apparent from what has gone before, the doubling of the Salt Tax by "certification" gave rise to acute controversy. It was felt on many hands that the reduction of this tax to the former figure should be the first charge on the surplus. On the other hand, the Provincial Contributions to the Imperial Exchequer, which are explained in the first section press hardly on several Provinces, especially on Madras and the United Provinces, and it is recognised that the gradual extinction of these contributions is demanded as soon as the financial position allows. The Government of India chose a middle course, suggesting that the Salt Tax should be reduced to two rupees a maund, and the balance of the surplus, Rs 1 50 crore, devoted to the reduction of provincial contributions.

These proposals were not discussed on their merits. It has been shown that the result of the elections to the Legislative Assembly was to establish a majority hostile to the Government as constituted. This majority decided, after a see-saw course, to refuse supplies, that is permission to introduce the necessary Finance Bill, as a protest against the refusal of the Government to progress beyond the constitution of 1919. The Viceroy therefore had to "certify" the Budget, and in so doing he fixed the Salt

Tax at one rupee four annas, or the sum at which it stood before the "certification" in the previous year.

V Ways and Means.

The Government of India has large capital commitments every year. It finances the Railways and Irrigation Works and also the Provincial Governments. This it does in the Ways and Means Section of the Budget.

The following statement summarises the Ways and Means operations in India and England together during 1923-24 and 1924-25:

[Crores of Rs.]

Revised Budget

<i>Liabilities</i>	
Railway capital outlay	23 6 30 0
Delhi, Irrigation and Telegraph outlay	2 8 3 2
Discharge of funded debts, etc.	5 2 1 0
Discharge of Treasury Bills with the public	19 5 2 1
Loans to Provincial Governments	11 3 12 7
Drawings of Provincial Governments from their balances	2 3
	<hr/>
	62 4 51 3

Met as follows

Central Government's revenue surplus	2 1 .
Surplus revenues of Provincial Governments	5 0
Rupee loan	23 1 20 0
Sterling loan	18 2 .
Net receipts from Post Office Cash Certificates	5 4 1 5
Net receipts from Savings Bank deposits	5 3 6 0
Miscellaneous items	2 3 7 9
Reduction of cash balances	1 0 15 9
	<hr/>
	62 4 51 3

The Finance Member explained —

"I have already referred to the satisfactory receipts from Post Office Cash Certificates in the current year and to the practical extinction of Treasury Bills issued to the public. I want to draw special attention to three further points in these figures: the amount of our proposed Rupee borrowings, the position in regard to our sterling remittances, and the absence of any provision for new sterling borrowing. The last is a very satisfactory feature in view of the onerous obligations for the future which the provision of interest and sinking fund on external debt involves. I must, however, remind the House that our Ways and Means Budget figures are necessarily illustrative rather than exact, and in particular I must not be taken as saying that in no cir

Finance.

circumstances will the Government of India borrow abroad during 1924-25. Something must depend on the relative cost of borrowing inside and outside India. But all indications point to our being able to meet all our capital requirements and all our sterling requirements in 1924-25 without issuing any external loan.

"Moreover, we hope to achieve this while at the same time reducing our demands on the market in India, where, thanks to the reduction of our total requirements for new capital, we expect to be able to limit ourselves to a rupee loan of not more than 20 crores as against the total of 24 crores in 1923."

General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure

— —	For details, <i>vide</i> State ment	Accounts, 1922-23	Revised Estimate, 1923-24	Budget Estimate, 1924-25
		Rs	Rs	Rs.
REVENUE				
Principal Heads of Revenue—				
Customs	A	41,34,05,362	40,41,53,000	45,01,82,000
Taxes on Income	„	17,99,41,150	19,07,45,000	18,21,97,000
Salt	„	8,82,43,112	8,70,27,000	10,54,62,000
Opium	„	3,78,92,068	4,30,84,000	4,33,60,000
Other Heads	„	2,34,00,268	2,34,27,000	2,22,32,000
TOTAL PRINCIPAL HEADS		72,29,44,900	74,84,16,000	80,34,33,000
Railways Net Receipts	„	26,82,08,476	32,37,87,000	30,94,98,000
Irrigation Net Receipts	„	10,90,762	11,20,000	12,47,000
Posts and Telegraphs Net Receipts	„	1,22,29,448	84,94,000	1,06,12,000
Interest Receipts	„	1,15,70,393	3,24,25,000	3,17,25,000
Civil Administration	„	44,34,528	67,49,000	72,01,000
Currency, Mint and Exchange	„	3,62,03,131	3,07,38,000	3,63,83,000
Civil Works	„	14,38,067	13,19,000	12,36,000
Miscellaneous	„	62,46,325	3,23,44,000	67,48,000
Military Receipts	„	5,73,78,865	4,19,53,000	2,75,13,000
Provincial Contributions and miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments	„	9,22,93,608	9,22,29,000	7,72,11,000
TOTAL REVENUE		1,21,41,29,153	1,31,98,04,000	1,31,23,08,000
DEFICIT ..	₹	15,01,76,392	. .	.
TOTAL ..		1,36,43,05,545	1,31,98,04,000	1,31,23,08,000

I.—General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure—contd

	For details, vide State ment	Accounts, 1922-23	Revised Estimate, 1923-24	Budget Estimate, 1924-25
EXPENDITURE				
Direct Demands on the Revenues	B	5,22,04,980	5,60,92,000	5,55,45,000
Hallways Interest and Miscellaneous Charges	"	25,70,99,247	26,06,87,000	26,67,63,000
Irrigation	"	13,75,391	16,51,000	22,85,000
Posts and Telegraphs	"	76,98,536	12,62,000	—12,20,000
Debt Services	"	13,15,89,540	11,74,88,000	18,15,15,000
Civil Administration	"	9,94,32,040	9,57,10,000	9,80,36,000
Currency Mint and Exchange	"	1,03,09,731	1,05,32,000	77,31,000
Civil Works	"	1,34,81,040	1,31,11,000	2,04,50,000
Miscellaneous	"	5,20,58,088	4,80,13,000	4,88,73,000
Military Services	"	71,00,58,955	63,93,72,000	63,00,16,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Govern ments	"		17,79,000	22,65,000
TOTAL EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE SURPLUS		1,36,43,05,548	1,29,89,97,000	1,31,24,50,000
			2,06,07,000	3,68,000
TOTAL		1,33,43,05,548	1,31,96,04,000	1,31,28,08,000

THE LAND REVENUE.

The principle underlying the Land Revenue system in India has operated from time immemorial. It may be roughly formulated thus—the Government is the supreme landlord and the revenue derived from the land is equivalent to rent. On strictly theoretical grounds, exception may be taken to this statement of the case. It serves, however, as a substantially correct description of the relation between the Government and the cultivator. The former gives protection and legal security. The latter pays for it according to the value of his holding. The official term for the method by which the Land Revenue is determined is "Settlement." There are two kinds of settlements in India—Permanent and Temporary. Under the former the amount of revenue has been fixed in perpetuity, and is payable by the landlord as distinguished from the actual cultivator. The Permanent Settlement was introduced into India by Lord Cornwallis at the close of the eighteenth century. It had the effect intended of converting a number of large revenue farmers in Bengal into landlords occupying a similar status to that of landowners in Europe. The actual cultivators became the tenants of the landlords. While the latter became solely responsible for the payment of the revenue, the former lost the advantage of holding from the State. This system has prevailed in Bengal since 1795 and in the greater part of Oudh since 1859. It also obtains in certain districts of Madras.

Temporary Settlements.

Elsewhere the system of Temporary Settlements is in operation. At intervals of thirty years, more or less, the land in a given district

is subjected to a thorough economic survey on the basis of the trigonometrical and topographic surveys carried out by the Survey Department of the Government of India. Each village area, wherever the Temporary Settlement is in vogue, has been carefully mapped, property-boundaries accurately delineated, and records of rights made and preserved. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal the occupant does not enjoy these advantages. The duty of assessing the revenue of a district is entrusted to Settlement Officers, members of the Indian Civil Service specially delegated for this work. The duties of a Settlement Officer are thus described in Strachey's *India* (revised edition, 1911)—"He has to determine the amount of the Government demand, and to make a record of all existing rights and responsibilities in the land. He has a staff of experienced subordinates, almost all of whom are natives of the country, and the settlement of the district assigned to him is a work which formerly required several years of constant work. The establishment of agricultural departments and other reforms have, however, led to much simplification of the Settlement Officer's proceedings, and to much greater rapidity in the completion of the Settlements. All the work of the settlement officer is liable to the supervision of superior officers, the assessments proposed by him require the sanction of the Government before they become finally binding, and his individual decisions may be reviewed by the Civil Courts. It is the duty of the settlement officer to make a record of every right which may form the subject of future dispute, whether affecting the interests of the State or of the people. The intention

is to alter nothing, but to maintain and place on record that which exists."

The Two Tenures.

Under the Temporary Settlement land tenures fall into two classes—peasant-holdings and landlord-holdings, or *Ryotwari* and *Zemindari* tenures. Broadly speaking, the difference between the two in a fiscal sense is that in *Ryotwari* tracts the ryot or cultivator pays the revenue direct, in *Zemindari* tracts the landlord pays on a rental assessment. In the case of the former, however, there are two kinds of *Ryotwari* holdings—those in which each individual occupant holds directly from Government, and those in which the land is held by village communities, the heads of the village being responsible for the payment of revenue on the whole village area. This latter system prevails in the North in Madras, Bombay, Burma and Assam, *ryotwari* tenure is on an individual basis, and the Government enters into a separate agreement with every single occupant. The basis of assessment on all classes of holdings is now more favourable to the cultivator than it used to be. Formerly what was believed to be a fair average sum was levied on the anticipated yield of the land during the ensuing period of settlement. Now the actual yield at the time of assessment alone is considered, so that the cultivator gets the whole of the benefit of improvements in his holding subsequently brought about either by his own enterprise or by "unearned increment." The Government, however, may at a new settlement re-classify a holding so as to secure for itself a fair share in an increment that may have resulted from public works in the vicinity, such as canals and railways, or from a general enhancement of values. But the principle that improvements effected by private enterprise shall be exempt from assessment is now accepted by the Government and provided for in definite rules.

Incidence of the Revenue

The incidence of the revenue charges varies according to the nature of the settlement, the class of tenure, and the character and circumstances of the holding. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal Government derive rather less than £3,000,000 from total rental estimated at £12,000,000. Under Temporary Settlements, 50 per cent of the rental in the case of *Zemindari* land may be regarded as virtually a maximum demand. In some parts the impost falls as low as 35 and even 25 per cent, and only rarely is the proportion of one-half the rental exceeded. In regard to *Ryotwari* tracts it is impossible to give any figure that would be generally representative of the Government's share. But one-fifth of the gross produce is the extreme limit, below which the incidence of the revenue charge varies greatly. About sixteen years ago the Government of India were invited in an unofficially signed memorial to fix one-fifth of the gross produce as the maximum Government demand. In reply to this memorial and other representations the Government of India (Lord Curzon being Viceroy) issued a Resolution in defence of their Land Revenue Policy. In it was stated that "under the existing practice the Government is already taking

much less in revenue than it is now invited to exact" and "the average rate is everywhere on the down grade." This Resolution, together with the statements of Provincial Governments on which it was based, was published as a volume, it is still the authoritative exposition of the principles controlling the Land Revenue Policy of the Government of India. In a series of propositions claimed to be established by this Resolution the following points are noted—(1) In *Zemindari* tracts progressive moderation is the key note of the Government's policy, and the standard of 50 per cent. of the assets is more often departed from on the side of deficiency than excess. (2) In the same areas the State does not hesitate to interfere by legislation to protect the interests of the tenants against oppression at the hands of the landlords. (3) In *Ryotwari* tracts the policy of long term settlements is being extended, and the proceedings in connection with new settlements simplified and cheapened. (4) local-taxation (of land) as a whole is neither immoderate nor burdensome, (5) over-assessment is not, as alleged, a general or widespread source of poverty, and it cannot fairly be regarded as a contributory cause of famine. At the same time the Government laid down as principles for future guidance—(a) large enhancements of revenue, when they occur, to be imposed progressively and gradually, and not *per saltum*. (b) greater elasticity in revenue collection, suspensions and remissions being allowed according to seasonal variations and the circumstances of the people, (c) a more general resort to reduction of assessments in cases of local deterioration.

Protection of the Tenants

In regard to the second of the five propositions noted above, various Acts have been passed from time to time to protect the interests of tenants against landlords, and also to give greater security to the latter in possession of their holdings. The Oudh Tenancy Act of 1886 placed important checks on enhancement of rent and eviction, and in 1900 an Act was passed enabling a landowner to entail the whole or a portion of his estate, and to place it beyond the danger of alienation by his heirs. The Punjab Land Alienation Act, passed at the instance of Lord Curzon, embodied the principle that it is the duty of a Government which derives such considerable proportion of its revenue from the land, to interfere in the interests of the cultivating classes. This Act greatly restricted the credit of the cultivator by prohibiting the alienation of his land in payment of debt. It had the effect of arresting the process by which the Punjab peasantry were becoming the economic serfs of money-lenders. A good deal of legislation affecting land tenure has been passed from time to time in other provinces and it has been called for more than once in Bengal, where under the Permanent Settlement (in the words of the Resolution quoted above), "so far from being generously treated by the Zemindars, the Bengal cultivator was rack-rented, impoverished, and oppressed."

Government and Cultivator

While the Government thus interferes between landlord and tenant in the interests of the latter, its own attitude towards the cul-

tivator is one of generosity. Mention has already been made of the great advantage to the agricultural classes generally of the elaborate systems of Land Survey and Records of Rights carried out and maintained by Government. In the Administration Report of Bombay for 1911-12, it is stated—"The Survey Department has cost the State from first to last many lakhs of rupees. But the outlay has been repaid over and over again. The extensions of cultivation which have occurred (by allowing cultivators to abandon unprofitable lands) have thus been profitable to the State no less than to the individual, whereas under a *Zamindari* or *indred* system the State would have gained nothing, however much cultivation had extended throughout the whole of 30 years leases." On the other hand, the system is of advantage to the ryots in reducing settlement operations to a minimum of time and procedure. In the collection of revenue the Government consistently

pursues a generous policy. In times of distress, suspensions and remissions are freely granted after proper inquiry.

Land revenue is now a provincial head of revenue and is not shown in the All India accounts. It may be taken roughly at £28 million, as compared with £84 million said to have been raised annually by Aurangzeb from a much smaller Empire.

The literature of the subject is considerable. The following should be consulted by readers who require fuller information—"Land Revenue Policy of the Indian Government," 1902 (Superintendent of Government Printing), Sir J. Powell's *Land Systems of British India*, Sir John Strachey's *India, its Administration and Progress, 1911*, (Macmillan & Co.), M. Joseph Chailley's *Administrative Problems of British India* (Macmillan & Co., 1910), and the Annual Administration Reports of the respective Provincial Governments.

EXCISE.

The Excise revenue in British India is derived from the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, hemp, drugs, toddy and opium. It is a commonplace amongst certain sections of temperance reformers to represent the traffic in intoxicating liquors as one result of British rule. There is, however, abundant evidence to show that in pre-British days the drinking of spirituous liquors was commonly practised and was a source of revenue.

The forms of intoxicating liquor chiefly consumed are country spirit, fermented palm juice, beer made from grain, country brands of rum, brandy, &c., locally manufactured malt beer and imported wine, beer and spirits. Country spirit is the main source of revenue, except in the Madras Presidency, and yields about two-thirds of the total receipts from liquors. It is usually prepared by distillation from the Mhowra flower, molasses and other forms of unrefined sugar, fermented palm juice and rice. In Madras a very large revenue is derived from fresh toddy. The British inherited from the Native Administration either an uncontrolled Out-Still System or in some cases a crude Farming System and the first steps to bring these systems under control were the limitation of the number of shops in the area farmed, and the establishment of an improved Out-Still System under which the combined right of manufacture and sale at a special shop was annually granted. This of course was a kind of control, but it only enabled Government to impose haphazard taxation on the liquor traffic as a whole by means of vend fees. It did not enable Government to graduate the taxation accurately on the still head duty principle nor to insist upon a standard of purity or a fixed strength of liquor. Moreover for political and other reasons the extent of control could not at first be complete. There were tribes of aborigines who regarded the privilege of making their own liquor in their private homes as a long established right, and who believed that liquor poured as libations to their god should be such as had been made by their own hands. The introduction of any system amongst these peoples had to

be worked very cautiously. Gradually, as the Administration began to be consolidated, the numerous native pot-stills scattered all over the country under the crude arrangements then in force began to be collected into Central Government enclosures called Distilleries, thus enabling Government to perfect its control by narrowing the limits of supervision, and to regularize its taxation by imposing a direct still head duty on every gallon issued from the Distillery. Under Distillery arrangements it has also been possible to regulate and supervise thoroughly the manufacture of its liquor and its disposal subsequent to leaving the Distillery by means of a system of transport passes, establishment supervision, improved distribution and vend arrangements.

Various Systems.

The Out-Still System may be taken to include all systems prior in order of development to the imposition of Still head duty. Briefly stated the stages of development have been—First farms of large tracts, Second farms of smaller areas, Third farms of the combined right to manufacture and sell at particular places without any exclusive privilege over a definite area, Fourth farms of similar right subject to control of means and times for distilling and the like. The Provincial Governments have had to deal with the subject in different ways suited to local conditions, and so the order of development from the lower forms of systems to the higher has not been always everywhere identical in details. Yet in its essence and main features the Excise Administration in most provinces of British India has progressed on uniform lines the key note lying in attempts, where it has not been possible to work with the fixed duty system in its simplest forms, to combine the farming and fixed duty systems with the object of securing that every gallon of spirit should bear a certain amount of taxation. The Out-Still System has in its turn been superseded by either the Free-supply system or the District Monopoly system. The Free-supply system is one of free competition among the licensed distil-

lers in respect of manufacture. The right of vend is separately disposed of. The District monopoly system on the other hand is one in which the combined monopoly of manufacture and sale in a district is leased to a farmer subject to a certain amount of minimum still-head duty revenue in the monopoly area being guaranteed to the State during the term of the lease.

The recommendations of the Indian Excise Committee of 1905-06 resulted in numerous reforms in British India, one of them being that the various systems have been or are gradually being superseded by the Contract Distillery System under which the manufacture of spirit for supply to a district is disposed of by tender, the rate of still head duty and the supply price to be charged are fixed in the contract and the right of vend is separately disposed of. This is the system that now prevails over the greater portion of British India. The other significant reforms have been the revision of the Provincial Excise Laws and regulations, and the conditions of manufacture, vend, storage and transport, an improvement in the quality of the spirit, an improved system of disposal of vend licenses, reductions and re-distributions of shops under the guidance and control of local Advisory Committees and gradual enhancement of taxation with a view to checking consumption.

Since the issue of the report of the Excise Committee 1905-06, no less than 213,000 square miles of territory were transferred from the out-still to the distilling system. In 1905-06 39 per cent of the total excise area and 28 per cent of the population of that area were served by out-stills, the proportions in 1921-22 were only 15 and 8 per cent respectively.

Excise has now been made over entirely to the Provincial Governments, and the duties vary from province to province. The governing principle in fixing these rates is the highest duty compatible with the prevention of illicit distillation. In the Bombay Presidency the issue of spirit to all country spirit shops has been rationed on the basis of consumption for the year 1920-21. From that consumption reduced to proof gallons 10 per cent is deducted in the case of shops in Bombay City and 5 per cent elsewhere and the ration is then fixed for each shop according to the issues in the corresponding month of 1920-21. This is the most important step taken by the new Government to reduce consumption. Two large distilleries in the Presidency have been placed entirely under Government management, thus partially superseding the Contract Distilling system.

Sap of the date, palmyra, and coconut palms called toddy, is used as a drink either fresh or after fermentation. In Madras and Bombay the revenue is obtained from a fixed fee on every tree from which it is intended to draw the liquor and from shop license fees. In Bengal and Burma the sale of shop licenses is the sole form of taxation. Country brands of rum, and so-called brandies and whiskies, are distilled from grape juice, etc. The manufacture is carried out in private distilleries in various parts of India. A number of breweries has been established, mostly in the hills, for the manufacture of a light beer for European and Eurasian consumption. The uniform fee of 8 annas per gallon is levied all over India at the time of issue.

Foreign liquor is subject to an import duty at the tariff rates, which are set out in the Customs Tariff (q v). It can only be sold under a license.

Since the war Brandy and Whisky have been manufactured in considerable quantities at Baroda.

The base used is the Mhowra flower. It is drunk in big towns as a substitute for German spirit, and is excised at tariff rates.

Drugs.—The narcotic products of the hemp plant consumed in India fall under three main categories, namely, ganja or the dry flowering tops of the cultivated female hemp plant charas, or the resinous matter which forms an active drug when collected separately, and bang, or the dried leaves of the hemp plant whether male or female cultivated or uncultivated. The main features of the existing system are restricted cultivation under supervision, storage in Bonded Warehouses, payment of a quantitative duty before issue, retail sale under licenses and restriction on private possession. Licenses to retail all forms of hemp drugs are usually sold by auction. The sale of charas has been prohibited in the Bombay Presidency except Sindh from the 1st April 1922.

Opium.—Opium is consumed in all provinces in India. The drug is commonly taken in the form of pills, but in some places, chiefly on social and ceremonial occasions, it is drunk dissolved in water. Opium smoking also prevails in the City of Bombay and other large towns. The general practice is to sell opium from the Government Treasury, or a Central Warehouse, to licensed vendors. The right of retail to the public is sold by annual auction to one or several sanctioned shops. Further legislation against opium smoking in clubs and dens is now under contemplation.

The estimated opium revenue in 1924-25 is Rs. 4,33,60,000.

SALT.

The salt revenue was inherited by the British Government from Native rule, together with a miscellaneous transit dues. These transit dues were abolished and the salt duty consolidated and raised. There are four great sources of supply, rock salt from the Salt Range and Kohat Mines in the Punjab, brine salt from the Sambhar Lake in Rajputana, salt brine condensed on the borders of the lesser Rann of Cutch, and sea salt factories in Bombay, Madras and at the mouth of the Indus.

The Salt Range mines contain an inexhaustible supply. They are worked in chambers excavated in salt strata, some of which are 250 feet long, 45 feet wide and 200 feet high. The Rajputana supply chiefly comes from the Sambhar Lake where brine is extracted and evaporated by solar heat. In the Rann of Cutch the brine is also evaporated by solar heat and the product is known as Bangare salt. Important works for the manufacture of that salt were opened in Dhrangadhra State in

1923 In Bombay and Madras sea water is let into shallow pans on the sea-coast and evaporated by solar heat and the product sold throughout India. In Bengal the damp climate together with the large volume of fresh water from the Ganges and the Brahmaputra into the Bay of Bengal render the manufacture of sea salt difficult and the bulk of the supply, both for Bengal and Burma, is imported from Liverpool, Germany, Aden, Bombay and Madras.

Broadly, one-half of the indigenous salt is manufactured by Government Agency, and the remainder under license and excise systems. In the Punjab and Rajputana the salt manufactures are under the control of the Northern India Salt Department, a branch of the Commerce and Industry Department. In Madras and

Bombay the manufactures are under the supervision of Local Governments. Special treaties with Native States permit of the free movement of salt throughout India, except from the Portuguese territories of Goa and Damann, on the frontiers of which patrol lines are established to prevent the smuggling of salt into British India.

From 1888 1903 the duty on salt was Rs 2-8 per maund of 82 lbs. In 1903 it was reduced to Rs. 2, in 1905 to Rs 1 8-0, in 1907 to Rs 1 and in 1916 it was raised to Rs 1 4-0. The successive reductions in duty have led to a largely increased consumption, the figures rising by 25 per cent. between 1903-1908. In 1923 the duty was doubled bringing it again to Rs 2 8. In 1924 it was reduced to Rs. 1 4 0. The estimated salt revenue in 1924 25 is Rs 9,06,62,000.

CUSTOMS.

The import duties have varied from time to time according to the financial condition of the country. Before the Mutiny they were five per cent., in the days of financial stringency which followed they were raised to 10 and in some cases 20 per cent. In 1875 they were reduced to five per cent., but the opinions of Free Traders, and the agitation of Lancashire manufacturers who felt the competition of the Indian Mills, induced a movement which led to the abolition of all customs dues in 1882. The continued fall in exchange compelled the Government of India to look for fresh sources of revenue and in 1894 five per cent. duties were imposed, various and cotton fabrics being excluded. Continued financial stringency brought piece-goods within the scope of the tariff, and after various expedients the demands of Lancashire were satisfied by a general duty of 5½ per cent. on all woven goods—an import duty on goods by sea, an excise duty on goods produced in the country. The products of the hand-looms are excluded. These excise duties are intensely unpopular in India, for reasons set out in the special article dealing with the subject. In 1910-11, in order to meet the deficit threatened by the loss of the revenue on opium exported to China, the silver duty was raised from 5 per cent. to 4d. an ounce, and higher duties levied on petroleum, tobacco, wines, spirits, and beer. These were estimated to produce £1 million annually.

The Customs Schedule was completely recast in the Budget of 1916-17 in order to provide additional revenue to meet the financial disturbance set up by the war. The general import tariff, which had been at the rate of 5 per cent *ad valorem* since 1894 was raised to 7½ per cent *ad valorem*, except in the case of sugar, as India is the largest producer of sugar in the world the import duty on this staple was fixed at 10 per cent. There was also a material curtailment of the free list. The principal article of trade which was not touched was cotton manufactures. For the past twenty years the position has been that cotton trunks and yarns of all kinds are free of duty while a duty at the rate of 5½ per cent. is imposed on woven goods of all kinds whether imported or manufactured in Indian mills. The Budget left the position as it stood. The Government of India would have been glad to see the tariff raised to 5 per cent.

without any corresponding alteration of the excise, but were over-ruled by the Cabinet on the ground that this controversial matter must come up for discussion after the war. Finally the Budget imposed export duties on tea and jute. In the case of tea the duty was fixed at Rs 1-8-0 per 100 lbs., in the case of jute the export duty on raw jute was fixed at Rs 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs, approximately equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent., manufactured jute was charged at the rate of Rs. 10 per ton on sacking and Rs 16 per ton on Hessians.

The Customs Tariff was further materially modified in the Budget for 1917-18. In the previous year an export duty on jute was imposed at the rate of Rs 2 4-0 per bale of 400 lbs in the case of raw jute and Rs 10 per ton on sackings, and Rs 16 per ton on Hessians, these rates were doubled, with a view to obtaining an additional revenue of £500,000. The import duty on cotton goods was raised from 3½ per cent to 7½ per cent without any alteration in the Excise, which remained at 3½ per cent. This change was expected to produce an additional revenue of £1,000,000. The question of the Excise was left untouched, for the reason, amongst others, that the Government could not possibly forgo the revenue of £320,000, which it was expected to produce. With these changes in operation the revenue from Customs in 1920-21 was Rs 32,37,29,000.

The Customs Tariff was further raised in the Budget of 1921-22 in order to provide for the big deficit which had then to be faced. The general *ad valorem* duty was raised from 7½ to 11 per cent. a special duty was levied on matches of 12 annas per gross boxes in place of the existing *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent; the duties on imported liquors was raised to 8 annas per degree of proof per gallon, the *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent was raised to 20 per cent in the case of certain articles of luxury, the import duty on foreign sugar was increased from 10 to 15 per cent and the duty on manufactured tobacco was raised by 50 per cent. The Customs duties were further increased in the Budget of 1922-23. The Government proposals in this direction have been described in an early passage. They were to raise the general Customs duty from 11 to 15 per

cent., the cotton excise duty from $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the duty on sugar from 15 to 25 per cent., a duty of 5 per cent. on imported yarn, a rising duty on machinery, iron, steel and railway material from $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to 10 per cent. together with the general duty on articles of luxury from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. In the course of the passage of the Budget through the Legislatures the cotton excise duty was retained at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the duty on machinery was retained at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and the duty on cotton piecegoods at 11 per cent. the other increases being accepted. Full details with regard to the customs duty are set out in the section on Indian Customs Tariff (q v). The estimated revenue from the customs in 1924-25 is Rs 45,01,82,000.

The Senior Collectors were Covenanted Civilians specially chosen for this duty, before the introduction of the Imperial Customs Service in 1908. Since that date, of the five Collectorships at the principal ports (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, and Karachi) three are ordinarily reserved for Members of the I.C.S. (i.e. "Covenanted Civilians"). The other two are reserved for members of the Imperial Customs Service.

Assistant Collectors in the Imperial Customs Service are recruited in two ways (a) from members of the Indian Civil Service—3 vacancies, and (b) by the Secretary of State—19 vacancies. There are in addition a few Gazetted Officers in what is known as the Provincial Customs Service. These posts are in the gift of the Government of India, and are usually filled

by promotion from the subordinate (in the Government sense of the word) service. The "subordinate" staff is recruited entirely in India.

Income Tax.

The income tax was first imposed in India in 1880, in order to meet the financial dislocation caused by the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent. or a little more than $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. in the pound on all incomes of five hundred rupees and upwards. Many changes have from time to time been made in the system, and the present schedule was consolidated in the Act of 1885. This imposed a tax on all incomes derived from sources other than agriculture which were exempted. On incomes of 2,000 rupees and upwards it fell at the rate of five ples in the rupee, or about $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. in the pound, on incomes between 500 and 2,000 rupees at the rate of four ples in the rupee or about 5d. in the pound. In March 1908 the minimum taxable income was raised from 500 to 1,000 rupees. The income tax schedule was completely revised, raised, and graduated in the Budget of 1916-17 in the general scale of increased taxation imposed to meet the deficit arising out of war conditions.

Since then the process has been almost continuous and in every financial difficulty the authorities turn to the Income Tax as a means of raising fresh revenue. The last revision was in the Budget of 1922-23, when the scale was fixed as follows:—

RATES OF INCOME-TAX

	Rate
A In the case of every individual, every unregistered firm and every undivided Hindu family —	
(1) When the total income is less than Rs 2,000	Nil
(2) When the total income is Rs. 2,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 5,000	Five ples in the rupee
(3) When the total income is Rs 5,000 or upwards but is less than Rs. 10,000	Six ples in the rupee
(4) When the total income is Rs. 10,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 20,000	Nine ples in the rupee
(5) When the total income is Rs 20,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 30,000	One anna in the rupee
(6) When the total income is Rs. 30,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 40,000	One anna and three ples in the rupee
(7) When the total income is Rs 40,000 or upwards	One anna and six ples in the rupee
In the case of every company, and every registered firm whatever its total income	One anna and six ples in the rupee

RATES OF SUPER-TAX

In respect of the excess over fifty thousand rupees of total income

	Rate
(1) In the case of every company	One anna in the rupee
(2) (a) In the case of every Hindu undivided family—	
(i) In respect of the first twenty five thousand rupees of the excess	Nil
(ii) for every rupee of the next twenty five thousand rupees of such excess	One anna in the rupee
(b) In the case of every individual and every unregistered firm, for every rupee of the first fifty thousand rupees of such excess	One anna in the rupee
(c) In the case of every individual, every unregistered firm and every Hindu undivided family —	
(i) or every rupee of the second fifty thousand rupees of such excess	One and a half anna in the rupee

(46) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Two annas in the rupee
(46) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Two and a half annas in the rupee
(46) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Three annas in the rupee
(e) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Three and a half annas in the rupee
(46) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Four annas in the rupee
(46) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Four and a half annas in the rupee
(46) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Five annas in the rupee
(46) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess	Five and a half annas in the rupee
(z) for every rupee of the remainder of the excess	Six annas in the rupee.

The head of the Income-Tax Department of a province is the Commissioner of Income tax who is appointed by the Governor General in Council. The rest of the income tax staff in a province are subordinate to him and they are appointed and dismissed by him. His power of appointment and dismissal is, under section 5 (4) "subject to the control of the Governor General in Council," but the Governor-General in Council exercises this control through the local Government.

The estimated yield of Income tax in 1921-25 is Rs 18,36,58,000

THE INDIAN MINTS

The silver coinage executed for the Government of India during 1923-24 consisted of Rs 50 lakhs of whole rupees and half rupees coined from silver obtained from melting uncurrent coins. No other coinage of rupees was undertaken during the year

Nickel and Bronze coinage—The coinage during 1923-24 consisted of 12,781,667 nickel two-anna pieces and 8,876,090 nickel one-anna pieces. Bronze coinage consisted of half pice and pice pieces of the aggregate value of Rs 1 39,300

HISTORY OF THE COINAGE

The Indian mints were closed to the un restricted coinage of silver for the public from the 26th June 1893, and Act VIII of 1893, passed on that date, repealed Sections 19 to 28 of the Indian Coinage Act of 1870, which provided for the coinage at the mints for the public of gold and silver coins of the Government of India. After 1893 no Government rupees were coined until 1897, when, under arrangements made with the Native States of Bhopal and Kashmir, the currency of those States was replaced by Government rupees. The re-coinage of these rupees proceeded through the two years 1897 and 1898. In 1899 there was no coinage of rupees, but in the following year it seemed that coinage was necessary, and it was begun in February 1900, the Government purchasing the silver required, and paying for it mainly with the gold accumulated in the Paper Currency Reserve. In that and the following month a crore of rupees was coined and over 17 crores of rupees in the year ending the 31st March 1910 including the rupees issued in connection with the conversion of the currencies of Native States. From the profit accruing to Government on the coinage it was decided to constitute a separate fund called the Gold Reserve Fund

as the most effective guarantee against temporary fluctuations of exchange. The whole profit was invested in sterling securities, the interest from which was added to the fund. In 1906 exchange had been practically stable for eight years and it was decided that of the coinage profits devoted to this fund, six crores should be kept in rupees in India, instead of being invested in gold securities. The Gold Reserve Fund was then named the Gold Standard Reserve. It was ordered in 1907 that only one-half of the coinage profits should be paid into the reserve, the remainder being used for capital expenditure on railways. The Gold Standard Reserve was called into action before the year 1907-08 was out. Exchange turned against India, and in March 1908, the Government of India offered bills on the Secretary of State up to half a million sterling, while the Secretary of State sold £1,000,000 Consols in order to meet such demands. During April to August, further sterling bills were sold for a total amount of £8,058,000. On a representation by the Government of India, the Secretary of State agreed to defer the application of coinage profits to railway construction until the sterling assets of the Gold Standard

Reserve amounted to £25,000,000. On the outbreak of the war in August 1914 the Reserve was drawn upon to meet the demands for sterling remittances, and Government offer to sell £1,000,000 of Bills weekly.

Gold

Since 1870 there had been no coinage of double mohurs in India and the last coinage of single mohurs before 1918 in which year coinage was resumed, was in the year 1891-92.

A Royal proclamation was issued in 1918 establishing a branch of the **Royal Mint at Bombay**. It stated—Subject to the provision of this proclamation the Bombay Branch Mint shall for the purpose of the coinage of gold coins be deemed to be part of the Mint, and accordingly, (a) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint shall comply with all directions he may receive from the Master of the Mint whether as regards the expenditure to be incurred or the returns to be made or the transmission of specimen coins to England or other wise and (b) the said specimen coins shall be subject to the trial of the pyx under section 12 of the Coinage Act, 1870, so that they shall be examined separately from the coins coined in England or at any other branch of the Mint and (c) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint and other officers and persons employed for the purpose of carrying on the business of the Branch Mint may be appointed, promoted, suspended and removed and their duties assigned and salaries awarded and in accordance with the provisions of section 15 of the Coinage Act, 1870. Pending the completion of the arrangements at the Branch Royal Mint, power was taken by legislation to coin in India gold mohurs of the same weight and fineness as the sovereign. Altogether 2,109,703 pieces of these new coins of the nominal value of Rs 3,16,45,545, were struck at the Bombay Mint. The actual coinage of sovereigns was begun in August, 1918, and 1,295,372 sovereigns were coined during the year. This branch of the Royal Mint was closed in April, 1919, owing to difficulties in supplying the necessary staff.

Act XXII of 1890, passed on the 15th September 1890, provided that gold coin (sovereign and half-sovereigns) shall be a legal tender in payment or on account at the rate of fifteen rupees for one sovereign.

With the receipt of large consignments of gold, the Bombay Mint made special arrangements for the refining of gold by the chlorine process and at the end of the year 1919-20 the Refinery Department was capable of refining a daily amount of 6,000 ounces of raw gold. The Refinery turned out 16,62,466 fine tolas of refined gold in 1920-21.

Silver

The weight and fineness of the silver coins are —

—	FINE SILVER grains		
	ALLOY grains.	TOTAL grains	
Rupee	165	15	180
Half rupee	82½	7½	90
Quarter rupee or 4-anna piece	41½	3½	45
Eighth of a rupee or 2-anna piece	20½	1½	22½

One rupee = 165 grains of fine silver
One shilling = 80½ grains of fine silver
One rupee = shillings 2 0439

Copper and Bronze

Copper coinage was introduced into the Bengal Presidency by Act XVII of 1835 and into the Madras and Bombay Presidencies by Act XXII of 1844.

The weight of the copper coins struck under Act XXIII of 1870 remained the same as it was in 1835. It was as follows —

	Grains	troy
Double pice or half-anna	200	
Pice or quarter anna	100	
Half pice or one-eighth of an anna	50	
Pice being one-third of a pice or one-twelfth of an anna	33½	

The weight and dimensions of bronze coins are as follows —

	Standard weight in grains troy	Diameter in millimetres
Pice	75	25.4
Half pice	37½	21.15
Pice	25	17.45

Nickel.

The Act of 1906 also provides for the coinage of a nickel coin. It was directed that the nickel one-anna piece should thenceforth be coined at the Mint and issue. The notification also prescribed the design of the coin, which has a waved edge with twelve scolops, the greatest diameter of the coin being 21 millimetres and its least diameter 19.8 millimetres. The desirability of issuing a half-anna nickel coin was considered by the Government of India in 1909 but after consultation with Local Governments it was decided not to take action in this direction until the people had become thoroughly familiar with the present one-anna coin. The two-anna nickel coin was introduced in 1917-18, and the four-anna and eight-anna nickel coins in 1919. The eight-anna nickel is now being withdrawn from circulation.

The Currency System.

The working of the Indian currency system which has commanded a large amount of public attention since 1893, was forced to the front in 1920, as the result of measures taken to stabilise the exchange value of the rupee after the fluctuations caused by the war. These assumed so

much importance, and they continue to bulk so largely in all Indian economic questions, that we propose to give here a short summary of the Indian currency system in non-technical language.

I. THE SILVER STANDARD.

Prior to 1893 the Indian currency system was a mono-metallic system, with silver as the standard of value and a circulation of silver rupees and notes based thereon. But with the opening of new and very productive silver mines in the United States of America the supply of silver exceeded the demand and it steadily receded in value. The result was that the gold value of the rupee, which was nominally two shillings, fell continuously until it reached the neighbourhood of a shilling. These disturbances were prejudicial to trade, but they were still more prejudicial to the finances of the Government. The Government of India has to meet every year in London a substantial sum in the form of payment of interest on the debt, the salaries of officials on leave, the pensions of retired officials, as well as large payment for stores required for State enterprises. As the rupee fell in its gold value the number of rupees required to satisfy these payments rose. The total reached a pitch which seriously alarmed the Government, which felt that it might be called upon to raise a sum in rupees which would necessitate a considerable increase in taxation, which should be avoided if possible. It was therefore decided to take measures to raise and fix the gold value of the rupee for the purposes of exchange.

Closing the Mints—The whole question was examined by a strong committee under the presidency of Lord Herschell, whose report is commonly called the Herschell Report. It was decided in 1893 to close the mints to the unrestricted coinage of silver. This step led, as was intended, to a gradual divergence between the exchange value of the rupee and the gold value of its silver content. Government ceased to add rupees to the circulation. Rupees remained unlimited legal tender and formed the standard of value for all internal transactions. Since Government refused, and no-one else had the power to coin rupees, as soon as circumstances led to an increased demand for rupees, the exchange value of the rupee began to rise. By 1898 it had approached the figure of one shilling and fourpence. Meantime, in response to the undertaking of Government to give notes or rupees for gold at the rate of fifteen rupees to the pound sterling, gold began to accumulate in the Paper Currency Reserve. These purposes having been attained, a second committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Sir Henry Fowler to consider what further steps should be adopted in the light of these conditions. The report of the Fowler Committee as it was called marked the second stage in Indian currency policy.

II THE NEW STANDARD.

The Fowler Committee rejected the proposal to re-open the Mints to the free coinage of silver. They proposed that the exchange value of the rupee should be fixed at one shilling and fourpence, or fifteen rupees to the sovereign. They further suggested that the British sovereign should be made a legal tender and a current coin in India, that the Indian mints should be thrown open to the unrestricted coinage of gold, so that the rupee and the sovereign should freely circulate side by side in India. The goal which the Committee had in view was a gold standard supported by a gold currency. Now under the condition which compelled the Government of India to give either rupees or rupee notes for gold tendered in India, at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, it was impossible for the rate of exchange to rise above one shilling and fourpence, save by the fraction which covered the cost of shipping gold to India. But if the balance of trade turned against India, it was still possible for the rate of exchange to fall. To meet this the Fowler Committee recommended that the profits on coining rupees should not be absorbed in the general revenues, but should be set aside in a special reserve, to be called the

Gold Standard Reserve. Inasmuch as the cost of coining rupees was approximately elevenpence halfpenny, and they were sold to the public at one and fourpence, the profits were considerable, they were to have been kept in gold, so as to be freely available when required for the support of exchange.

A 16 pence Rupee—The Government of India professed to accept all the recommendations of the Fowler Committee, actually only a portion of them was put in practice. The official rate of exchange was fixed at one and fourpence. The sovereign and the half sovereign were declared unlimited legal tender in India. But after a first attempt when sovereigns soon came back to the treasuries, no effort was made to support the gold standard by an active gold currency. The gold mint was not set up. The Gold Standard Reserve was established, but instead of holding the Reserve in gold, it was invested in British securities. These practices gave rise to conditions which were never contemplated by the Fowler Committee. Reference has been made to the Home Charges of the Government of India, which at the time amounted to

about seventeen millions sterling a year. These are met by the sale of what are called Council Bills. That is to say, the Secretary of State, acting on behalf of the Government of India, sold Bills against gold deposited in the Bank of England in London. These Bills when presented in India were cashed at the Government Treasuries. Now if the Secretary of State sold Council Bills only to meet his actual requirements, it follows that the balance of trade in favour of India over and above this figure would be liquidated, as it is in other countries, by the importation of bullion or by the creation of credits. It is a fact that owing to the failure of the policy of encouraging an active gold circulation to support the gold standard, gold tended to accumulate in India in embarrassing quantities. In 1904 therefore the Secretary of State declared his intention of selling Council Bills on India without limit at the price of one shilling fourpence one-eighth—that is to say gold import point. The effect of this policy was to limit the import of gold to India, for it was generally more convenient to deposit the gold in London and to obtain Council Bills against it, than to ship the gold to India. Nevertheless as the Egyptian cotton crop was very largely financed in sovereigns it was sometimes cheaper and more convenient to ship sovereigns from Egypt, or even from Australia, than to buy Council Bills. Considerable quantities of sovereigns found their way into India and circulated freely, particularly in the Bombay Presidency, the Punjab and parts of the Central Provinces.

Sterling Remittance.—This system worked until 1907-08. A partial failure of the rains in India in 1907, and the general financial stringency all over the world which followed the American financial crisis in the autumn, caused the Indian exchange to become weak in November. This was one of the occasions contemplated, in a different form, by the Fowler Committee when it proposed the formation of the Gold Standard Reserve. There had been very heavy

coining of rupees in India and the amount in the Reserve was ample. But the Reserve was in securities not in gold, and was therefore not in a liquid form, nor was the time an opportune one for the realisation of securities. Moreover the authorities did not realise that a reserve was for use in times of emergency. It had been assumed that in times of weakness it would be sufficient for the Secretary of State to stop selling Council Bills, and it would firm up, meantime he would finance himself by drawing on the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. But it was apparent that the stoppage of the sales of Councils was not enough, there was an insistent demand for the export of gold, or the equivalent of gold. The Government of India refused and exchange fell to one and threepence twenty-three thirty seconds. Ultimately the authorities had to give way. It was decided to sell in India a certain quantity of sterling bills on London at one and threepence twenty nine thirty seconds, representing gold export point and the equivalent of the export of gold. These were met in London from the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. Bills to the extent of between eight and nine millions sterling were sold, which regularised the position and the Indian export trade recovered. Thus were gradually evolved the main principles of the Indian currency system. It consisted of silver rupees and rupee notes in India, with the sovereign and half sovereign unlimited legal tender at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, or one and fourpence. The rate of exchange was prevented from rising above gold import point by the unlimited sale of Council Bills at gold point in London, it was prevented from falling below gold point by the sale of Sterling Bills (commonly called Reverse Councils) at gold export point in India. But it was not the system proposed by the Fowler Committee, for there was no gold mint and only a limited gold circulation, some people invented for it the novel term of the gold exchange standard, a term unknown to the law of India. It was described by one of the most active workers in it as a "limping standard."

III THE CHAMBERLAIN COMMITTEE

This brings us to the year 1918. There were many critics of the system. Some hankered for a return to the open mints, others objected to the practice of unlimited sales of Council Bills as forcing rupees into circulation in excess of the requirements of the country. But the general advantages of a fixed exchange were so great as to smother the voices of the critics, and the trade and commerce of the country adjusted itself to the one and fourpenny rupee. But there gradually grew up a formidable body of criticism directed against the administrative measures taken by the India Office. These criticisms were chiefly directed at the investment of the Gold Standard Reserve in securities instead of keeping it in gold in India, at a raid on that reserve in order temporarily to relieve the Government of the difficulty of financing its railway expenditure, at the transfer of a solid block of the Paper Currency Reserve from India to London, at the holding of a portion of the Gold Standard Reserve

in silver in order to facilitate the coining of rupees, and at the unlimited sales of Council Bills at rates which prevented the free flow of gold to India, thus forcing token rupees into circulation in quantities in excess of the requirements of the country. The cumulative effect of this policy was to transfer from India to London an immense block of India's resources, aggregating over seventy millions, where they were lent out at low rates of interest to the London bankers, whilst India was starved of money until at one point money was not available for loans even against Government securities and the bank rate was artificially high. All these things were done, it was contended, on the *obiter dicta* of a small Finance Committee of the India Office, from which all Indian influence was excluded, and on which London banking influence was supreme. The India Office for long ignored this criticism, until it was summarised in a series of articles in *The Times*, and public

opinion was focussed on the discussion through the action of the India Office in purchasing a big block of silver for coinage purposes from Messrs Montagu & Co., instead of through their recognised and constituted agents, the Bank of England. The Government could no longer afford to stand aloof and yet another Currency Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. Amstutz Chamberlain. This is known as the Chamberlain Committee.

New Measures—The conclusions of this Commission were that it was unnecessary to support the Gold Standard by a gold currency, that it was not to the advantage of India to encourage the internal use of gold as currency, that the internal currency should be supported by a thoroughly adequate reserve of gold and sterling, that no limit should be fixed to the amount of the Gold Standard Reserve, one half of which should be held in gold, that the silver

branch of the Gold Standard Reserve should be abolished, that Reserve Councils should be sold on demand, that the Paper Currency should be made more elastic, and that there should be two Indian representatives out of three on the Finance Committee of the India Office. The Committee dealt inconclusively with the accumulation of excessive balances in London, the general tenor of their recommendations being 'not gully, but do not do it again.' They gave a passing commendation to the idea of a State Bank. Sir James Begg, the only Indian banker on the Committee, appended a vigorous minute of dissent, in which he urged that the true line of advance was to discourage the extension of the token currency by providing further facilities for the distribution of gold when increases to the currency became necessary, including the issue of an Indian gold coin of a more convenient denomination than the sovereign or the half sovereign.

IV CURRENCY AND THE WAR

The report was in the hands of the Government of India shortly before the outbreak of the war. Some immediate steps were taken, like the abolition of the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve, but before the Government could deal entirely with the temporary recommendations of the Commission, the war broke out. The early effects of the war were precisely those anticipated. There was a demand for sterling remittance which was met by the sale of Reserve Councils £8,707,000, being sold up to the end of January 1915. There were withdrawals from the Post Office Savings Banks, and a net sum of Rs. 8 crores was taken away. There was some lack of confidence in the Note issue, and a demand for gold. Notes to the extent of Rs. 10 crores were presented for encashment and the Government were obliged to suspend the issue of gold. But these were transient features and did not demand a moratorium, confidence was soon revived and Exchange and the Note issue continued strong. The difficulties which afterwards arose were from causes completely unanticipated by all students of the Indian currency: they arose from an immense balance of trade in favour of India, caused by the demand for Indian produce for the United Kingdom and the Allies and the decline in the export trade from these countries, a heavy expenditure in India on behalf of the British Government, and a phenomenal rise in the price of silver. If we take the three years 1916-17 to 1918-19 the balance of trade in favour of India was £8 millions a year above the corresponding years of the previous quinquennium. The disbursements in India on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Allies were by December 1919 £240,000,000. This balance of trade and expenditure for Imperial purposes could not be financed either by the import of the precious metals, owing to the universal embargo on the movement of gold and silver nor by credits in India. It could be financed only by the expansion of the Note issue, against sterling securities in the United Kingdom, chiefly Treasury Bills, and the issue of coined

rupees. But simultaneously there was a reduction in the output of the silver mines of the world coinciding with an increased demand for the metal. The price of silver in 1915 was 27½ pence per standard ounce. In May 1919 it was 58 pence, on the 17th December of that year it was 78 pence. The main difficulties in India were not therefore the prevention of the rupee from falling below the ratio of 15 to one, but to keep it within any limits and to provide a sufficiency to meet the demand.

Rise in Exchange—The measures adopted by the Government of India in these emergencies were to bring exchange under rigid control, confining remittance to the finance of articles of national importance. The next step was to raise the rate for the sale of Council Bills, so that silver might be purchased at a price which would allow rupees to be coined without loss. The following table shows how rates were raised from one shilling fourpence to two shillings fourpence—

Date of Introduction	Minimum Rate for Immediate Telegraphic Transfers
1st January 1917	1 4½
28th August 1917	1 5
12th April 1918	1 6
13th May 1919	1 8
12th August 1919	1 10
15th September 1919	2 0
22nd November 1919	2 2
12th December 1919	2 4

Rise in Exchange.—Silver for coining was purchased in large quantities, the following table showing the amount acquired by the Government of India in the last five years —

	In open Market (Standard Ounces)	From United States Dollar Reserve (equivalent in Standard Ounces)
1915-16	8,636,000	—
1916-17	124,535,000	—
1917-18	70,923,000	—
1918-19	106,410,000	152,518,000
1919-20 (to 30th November 1919)	14,108,000	60,875,000
Total	324,612,000	213,393,000

The total amount is thus 538,005,000 standard ounces.

Gold and silver were taken under control and measures taken to prevent export and melting. Gold went to a premium and ceased to function as currency. The Note issue was expanded, and small Notes of one and two and a half rupees were specially prepared to economise the use of silver rupees. The nature of this expansion is shown below —

Date.	Lakhs of Rupees.					
	Gross Note Circula- tion	Composition of Reserve.				Per- centage of Total Metallic Reserve to gross Note Circula- tion.
		Silver	Gold.	Securities	Total	
31st March 1914	66.12	20.53	31.59	14.00	66.12	78.9
„ 1915	61.63	32.34	15.29	14.00	61.63	77.3
„ 1916	67.73	23.57	24.16	20.00	67.73	70.5
„ 1917	86.38	19.22	18.67	48.49	86.38	43.9
„ 1918	99.79	10.79	27.52	61.48	99.79	38.4
„ 1919	153.46	37.39	17.49	98.58	153.46	35.8
30th November 1919	179.67	47.44	32.70	99.53	179.67	44.6

The facilities for the encashment of Notes were reduced. In these ways the Government were able to maintain the broad convertibility of the Note issue and finance the essential trades and

expenditure for the Imperial Government. It often meant sailing very near to the wind, but these measures carried the country through the war

V. THE 1919 COMMITTEE.

The effect of these measures however was to put on the currency policy pursued from 1893 to 1915, the main object of which was to stabilise the rupee at one and fourpence. The war being over, a Committee was appointed to advise in regard to the future of Indian exchange and

currency. It sat in 1919 and reported towards the end of the year. Its main recommendations are summarised below —

(i) It is desirable to restore stability to the rupee and to re-establish the automatic working of the Indian currency system.

(44) The reduction of the fineness or weight of the rupee, the issue of 2 or 3-rupee coins of lower proportional silver content than the present rupee, or the issue of a nickel rupee, are expedients that cannot be recommended.

(44a) The maintenance of the convertibility of the note issue is essential, and proposals that do not adequately protect the Indian paper currency from the risk of becoming inconvertible cannot be entertained.

(45) The rise in exchange, in so far as it has checked and mitigated the rise in Indian prices, has been to the advantage of the country as a whole, and it is desirable to secure the continuance of this benefit.

(c) Indian trade is not likely to suffer any permanent injury from the fixing of exchange at a high level.

If, contrary to expectation, a great and rapid fall in world prices were to take place, and if the costs of production in India fail to adjust themselves with equal rapidity to the lower level of prices, then it might be necessary to consider the problem afresh.

(46) The development of Indian industry would not be seriously hampered by a high rate of exchange.

(46a) The gain to India of a high rate of exchange for meeting the Home charges is an incidental advantage that must be taken into consideration.

(46b) To postpone fixing a stable rate of exchange would be open to serious criticism and entail prolongation of Government control.

(47) The balance of advantage is decidedly on the side of fixing the exchange value of the rupee in terms of gold rather than in terms of sterling.

(48) The stable relation to be established between the rupee and gold should be at the rate of Rs. 10 to one sovereign, or, in other words, at the rate of one rupee for 11 30 016 grains of fine gold, both for foreign exchange and for internal circulation.

(49) If silver rises for more than a brief period above the parity of 2s (gold), the situation should be met by all other available means rather than by impairing the convertibility of the note issue. Such measures might be (a) reduction of sale of Council Bills, (b) abstention from purchase of silver, (c) use of gold to meet demands for metallic currency. If it should be absolutely necessary to purchase silver, the Government should be prepared to purchase even at a price such that rupees would be coined at a loss.

(50) Council Drafts are primarily sold not for the convenience of trade but to provide for the Home charges in the wider sense of the term. There is no obligation to sell drafts to meet all trade demands; but, if without inconvenience or with advantage the Secretary of State is in a position to sell drafts in excess of his immediate needs, when a trade demand for them exists, there is no objection to his doing so, subject to due regard being paid to the principles governing the location of the reserves.

Council Drafts should be sold as now by open tender at competitive rates, a minimum rate being fixed from time to time on the basis of the sterling cost of shipping gold to India. At present this rate will vary, but when sterling is again equivalent to gold, it will remain uniform.

The Government of India should be authorized to announce, without previous reference to the Secretary of State on each occasion, their readiness to sell weekly a stated amount of Reverse Councils (including telegraphic transfers) during periods of exchange weakness at a price based on the cost of shipping gold from India to the United Kingdom.

(51a) The import and export of gold to and from India should be free from Government control.

(51b) The statutory minimum for the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve should be 40 per cent of the gross circulation.

As regards the fiduciary portion of the reserve, the holding of securities issued by the Government of India should be limited to 20 crores. The balance should be held in securities of other Governments comprised within the British Empire, and of the amount so held not more than 10 crores should have more than one year's maturity and all should be redeemable at a fixed date. The balance of the invested portion above these 30 crores should be held in short-dated securities, with not more than one year's maturity, issued by Government within the British Empire.

The sterling investments and gold in the Paper Currency Reserve should be revalued at 2s. to the rupee. The depreciation which will result from this revaluation, cannot be made good at once, but any savings resulting from the rise in exchange will afford a suitable means of discharging this liability in a limited number of years.

(52) With a view to meeting the seasonal demand for additional currency, provision should be made for the issue of notes up to five crores over and above the normal fiduciary issue as loans to the Presidency Banks on the security of export bills of exchange.

Minority Report—The main object of the Committee, it will be seen, was to secure a stable rate of exchange, without impairing the convertibility of the Note issue, and without debasing the standard silver rupee in India, or substituting another coin of inferior metallic content, which would be debasement in another form. In order to attain these ends it was imperative to fix a ratio for the rupee in relation to gold which would ensure that the Government was able to purchase silver for coining purposes without more than temporary loss. For reasons given in the report they fixed this point at two shillings gold. All other recommendations are subsidiary thereto. But in this they were not unanimous. An important member of the Committee, Mr. Dadabhai Dalal, of Bombay, appended a minority report in which he urged the adoption of the following courses—

(a) The money standard in India should remain unaltered, that is, the standard of the sovereign and gold mohur with rupees related thereto at the ratio of 15 to 1.

(b) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of gold bullion and gold coins.

(c) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of silver bullion and silver coins.

(d) The existing silver rupees of 165 grains of fine silver at present in circulation to continue full legal tender.

(e) As long as the price of silver in New York is over 92 cents, Government should not manufacture silver rupees containing 165 grains fine silver.

(f) As long as the price of silver is over 92 cents Government should coin 2 rupee silver coins of reduced fineness compared with that of the present silver rupee and the same to be unlimited legal tender.

(g) Government to sell Council Bills by competitive tenders for the amount defined in the Budget as required to be remitted to the Secre-

tary of State. The Budget estimate to show under separate headings the amount of Council Bills drawn for Home Charges, for Capital Outlay and Discharge of Debt. Council Bills to be sold for Government requirements only and not for trade purposes, except for the purpose mentioned in the next succeeding recommendation.

(A) "Reverse" drafts on London to be sold only at 1s 32d-32d. The proceeds of "Reverse" drafts to be kept apart from all other Government funds and not to be utilised for any purpose except to meet drafts drawn by the Secretary of State at a rate not below 1s 4 3/4d per rupee.

VI. THE TWO SHILLING RUPEE

The fundamental recommendation of the Committee was that the rupee should be linked to gold and not to sterling, in view of the decline in the value of sterling, that it should be linked at the rate of two shillings instead of the standard value, one and fourpence, all other recommendations were ancillary to this. But it is very important to bear in mind the twofold problem which confronted the Committee. It would be quite easy to fix any low ratio provided the paper currency were made inconvertible, or the rupee debased to such a point that the Government in providing rupee currency, were independent of the price of silver. But if the convertibility of the rupee were to be maintained, and if the rupee were not to be debased, it was essential that the new ratio should be one at which the Government could reasonably rely on purchasing without loss the silver necessary to meet the heavy demands for rupee in India. For reasons set out in the Report, the Committee came to the conclusion that the Government could reckon on purchasing silver for coining at a little under two shillings gold, and that powerfully influenced them in fixing the new ratio at two shillings gold.

The Report Adopted—The Currency Committee's Report was signed in December 1919, but it was not until February 1920 that action was taken thereon. In the first week of that month a Notification was issued in India accepting the principal recommendations in the Report and notifying that the necessary official action would be taken thereon. This action covered a wide field, but for the sake of clarity in this narrative we shall concentrate on the main issue, the changing of the official monetary standard from fifteen rupees to the sovereign to ten rupees to the sovereign and its effect on Indian currency and trade. That may be summarised in a sentence. A policy which was avowedly adopted to secure fixity of exchange produced the greatest fluctuations in the exchanges of any solvent country and widespread disturbance of trade, heavy losses to Government, and brought hundreds of big traders to the verge of bankruptcy.

Financial Confusion—This result was produced by many causes. It has been explained above that the essential features of the Indian currency system are the free sales of Council Bills at gold export point in London to prevent exchange from rising above the official standard and the sale of Reverse Councils in India at gold export point to prevent exchange from falling below the official standard. Now when the

Currency Report was signed the Indian exchange were practically at two shillings gold. But between the signing of the Report and the taking of official action, there was a sensational fall in the sterling exchange, as measured in dollars, the dollar-sterling rate, inasmuch as America was the only free gold market, being the dominating factor in the situation. Consequently the Indian exchanges were considerably below the two shillings gold rate when the Notification accepting the Currency Committee's Report was issued. The Indian exchange were two shillings and fourpence, and weak at that, the gold rate was about two shillings ninepence. There was an immediate and prodigious demand for Reverse Councils, to take advantage of this high rate of exchange, the market rate jumped up to two shillings eightpence.

Effect of the Rise—The effect of a rise in exchange has been well described in the words of the Currency Committee's Report, it is that a rising exchange stimulates imports and impedes exports, the effect of a falling exchange is the reverse.

Now when the official notification of the two shilling rupee was made the Indian export trade was weak. The great consuming markets of Great Britain and America were glutted with Indian produce. The continent of Europe, which was starved of Indian produce and in urgent need of it, had not the wherewithal to pay for it nor the means of commanding credit. The only Indian staples which were in demand were foodstuffs, and as the rains of 1920 failed over a wide area, the Government were not able to lift the embargo on the export of foodstuffs, save to a limited extent in the case of wheat. On the other hand, the import trade was strong. Orders had been placed for machinery and other manufactured goods during the war and after the Armistice for delivery at the discretion of manufacturers. These began to come forward.

Difficulties Accentuated—In accordance with the principles laid down by the Currency Committee these difficulties were accentuated by the action of Government in raising exchange by an administrative act. The weak export trade was almost killed. At the same time the temptation of a high exchange gave powerful stimulus to the import trade and orders were placed for immense quantities of manufactured goods, in which textiles filled an important place. Afterwards other forces intervened which accentuated the difficulties of the situation. There was a severe commercial crisis in Japan and this

shooked the export of Indian cotton. Japan is the largest buyer of Indian cotton, and when her merchants not only stopped buying but began to re-sell in the Indian markets, the trade was severely shaken and stocks accumulated at a great rate. Even before the 1920 crop came into the market the stocks in Bombay were double these in the corresponding period of the previous year. The expectations of a revival in the buying power of the Continent which were held in many quarters were disappointed and throughout the year there was a heavy balance of trade against India, which made the stabilisation of exchange at the high rate attempted a hopeless proposition.

Confession of Failure.—Government struggled long against these conditions in the desperate hope that a revival of the export trade would come to their assistance, but they were further handicapped by the variations of the sterling-dollar exchange, which at one time took the rate for Reverse Councils to two shillings twopenny half penny. They sold two millions of Reverse Councils a week, then five millions, then dropped down to a steady million. But their policy only aggravated the situation. In addition to arresting the export trade and stimulating the import trade at a time when the precise converse was demanded, their action created an artificial movement for the transfer of capital from India to England. Large war profits accumulated in India since 1914 were hurriedly liquidated and transferred to England. Then the difference between the Reverse Council rate and the market rate, which on some occasions was several pence, induced gigantic speculations. The Exchange Banks set aside all their available resources for the purpose of bidding for Bills, and at once sold their allotments at substantial profits. Considerable groups of speculators pooled their resources and followed the same course. In this way the weekly biddings for the million of Reverse Councils varied from a hundred and 20 millions to a hundred and thirty millions and the money market was completely disorganised. The biddings assumed such proportions that it was necessary to put up fifty lakhs of rupees to obtain the smallest allotment made, five thousand pounds, and Reverse Councils and the large profits thereon came under the entire control of the Banks and the wealthy speculators. Various expedients were tried to remedy the situation but without the slightest effect.

Sterling for Gold.—The first definite break from the recommendations of the Currency Committee came at the end of June, when the Government announced that instead of trying to stabilise the rupee at two shillings gold they would aim at stabilising it at two shillings sterling, leaving the gap between sterling and gold to be closed when the dollar-sterling rate became par. The effect of this was to alter the rate at which Reverse Councils were sold from the fluctuating rate involved in the fluctuations of dollar-sterling exchange to a fixed sterling rate, namely one shilling elevenpence nineteen thirty seconds. But this had little practical effect. The biddings for Reverse Councils continued on a very big scale, and the market rate for exchange was always two pence or three pence below the Reverse Council rate. This practice continued until the end of September, when it was officially declared

that Reverse Councils would be stopped altogether. Exchange immediately slumped to between one and sixpence and one and sevenpence, and it continued to range between these narrow points until the end of the year. The market made its own rate, it made a more stable rate than the efforts of Government to attain an administrative stability.

Other Measures.—Apart from the effort to stabilise exchange, which had such unfortunate results, the policy of Government had certain other effects. During the year all restrictions on the movement of the precious metals were removed, in accordance with the recommendations of the Currency Committee. This included the abandonment of the import duty on silver, always a sore point with Indian bullionists. Legislative action was taken to alter the official rate of the sovereign from fifteen to one to ten to one, due notice of this intention was given to holders of sovereigns and of the gold mohurs which were coined as an emergency measure in 1918, and they were given the option of tendering them at fifteen rupees. As the gold value of these coins was above fifteen rupees only a limited number was tendered, although there was extensive smuggling of sovereigns into India to take advantage of the premium. Then measures were adopted to give greater elasticity to the Note issue. Under the old law the invested proportion of the Note issue was fixed by statute and it could be altered only by altering the law or by Ordinance. An Act was passed fixing the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve at fifty per cent of the Note Issue, the invested portion being limited to Rs. 20 crores in Indian securities and the balance in British securities of not more than twelve months' currency. The invested portion of the Paper Currency Reserve was revalued at the new rate of exchange, and an undertaking was given that the profits on the Note issue would be devoted to writing off the depreciation, as also would be the interest on the Gold Standard Reserve when the total had reached £40 millions. Further, in order to give greater elasticity to the Note issue, power was taken to issue Rs. 5 crores of emergency currency in the busy season against commercial bills. These measures, save the alteration of the ratio, were generally approved by the commercial public.

Results.—It remains to sum up the results of these measures. In a pregnant sentence in their report the Currency Committee say that whilst a fixed rate of exchange exercises little influence on the course of trade, a rising exchange impedes exports and stimulates imports, a falling exchange exercises a reverse influence. Here we have the key to the failure of the currency policy attempted. At the moment when it was sought suddenly and violently to raise the rate of exchange by the introduction of the new ratio of two shillings gold, the export trade was weak and the import trade in obedience to the delivery of long deferred orders was strong. The very principle enunciated by the Currency Committee wrecked the policy which they recommended. The rising rate of exchange soothed the weak export trade and gave a great stimulus to imports. Unexpected forces, such as the financial crisis in Japan, the lack of buying power on the Continent, and the movement for the transfer of capital from India to England at the

artificially high rate of exchange stimulated these forces, but they had their origin in the attempt by administrative action artificially and violently to raise the rate of exchange. If let alone, the natural fall in exchange would have tended to correct the adverse balance of trade, the official policy exaggerated and intensified it. The effects on Indian business were severe. Exporters found themselves loaded with produce for which there was no foreign demand, importers found themselves loaded up with imported goods, bought in the expectation of the continuance of a high rate of exchange, delivered when it had fallen one and fourpence from the highest point reached. Immense losses were incurred by all importers. The Government sold £55 millions of Reverse Councils before abandoning

their effort to stabilise exchange at the new ratio, the loss on these—that is the difference between the cost of putting the funds down in London and in bringing them back to India—was Rs 35 crores of rupees. Government sold £53 millions of gold, without breaking or seriously affecting the premium on gold. The Secretary of State, in the absence of any demand for Council Bills, was able to finance his expenditure in England only through the lucky chance of heavy expenditure on behalf of the Imperial Government for the forces in Mesopotamia—this expenditure being made in India and set off by payments in London. The only advantages were a considerable contraction of the Note issue and the silver token currency.

VII—RECENT EXCHANGE AND CURRENCY HISTORY.

These unfortunate experiments induced a period of great caution in dealing with Indian currency. The currency quacks having had their way, and proved their ignorance, went out of the field, and the wholesome policy of leaving Exchange alone, to find its natural level, followed. Left alone Exchange established itself round about the old ratio of fifteen to one, that is one shilling and fourpence to the rupee. Meantime great improvements were made in the organisation of Indian credit. The three Presidency Banks were merged in The Imperial Bank of India, a State Bank in all but name, and the Bank entered into a contract with Government to open a hundred new branches in the first five years of its existence. The Bank has mobilised and strengthened and widened Indian credit. The metallic backing of the Paper Currency has been strengthened and the fiduciary portion of the Reserve brought within negligible proportions. Greater elasticity has been established in the currency by the power to issue emergency currency up to Rs 12 crores against commercial paper endorsed by the Imperial Bank when there is a tightness of money, and the practice of also issuing emergency currency against sterling in England. The Government of India now purchases sterling in India to meet its Home Charges when the conditions are favourable, instead of relying entirely on the sales of Council Bills in London. A notable feature in Exchange history during the past eighteen months has been the rise of Exchange, of its own strength, above the one and fourpenny figure. Towards the close of 1924 it gradually rose to one shilling and sixpence and stayed there. The prevailing sentiment in India is for fixity of Exchange,

and for a Gold Standard, not the Gold Exchange Standard foisted on it by the India Office. This has revived in consequence of the rise of the rupee towards gold point. There is nowhere an inclination to regard the two shilling rupee as more than a fiction which survives the tragic history of 1919, but there is considerable doubt as to whether we have yet reached the stage when the rupee can be safely fixed in relation to gold. But if we have not reached it, we are moving toward it and we may almost say it is in sight.

Committee to be appointed.—Speaking at the opening of the Legislature in January 1925, the Viceroy said he was authorised to make the following announcement, which explains the conclusions of His Majesty's Government and the Government of India—

"The Government of India have been in communication with the Secretary of State on the subject of the rupee exchange, and the intention of Government is to appoint an authoritative committee to consider the question as soon as world economic factors appear sufficiently stable to justify the formulation of a new policy. In their judgment there is much to be gained by postponing an enquiry till those factors on which any decision must rest are less fluid and obscure. But they anticipate that, if the movement towards more stable conditions which has lately manifested itself continues, the appointment of such a committee should be possible not later than 12 months hence."

The character of the Reserves which are the backbone of the Indian currency system are shown below—

Composition of the Currency Reserve held against the note circulation at the end of each month. (In lakhs of rupees.)

MONTH	COIN AND BULLION RESERVE							Internal Bills of Ex- change
	Gross circulation of notes	Silver coin in India	Gold coin and bullion in India	Silver bullion under coinage.	Gold coin and bullion in England	Silver bullion in England	Gold coin and bullion in transit between India and England, and His Majesty's Dominions.	
1923								
April	1,78,37	79,09	24,32	4,56				63,40
May	1,71,23	79,00	24,32	4,56				63,35
June	1,73,61	81,39	24,32	4,56				63,34
July	1,75,72	85,48	24,32	4,56				61,26
August	1,76,80	89,91	24,32	4,56				57,51
September	1,79,29	92,66	24,32	4,83				57,48
October	1,80,82	93,48	24,32	5,54				57,46
November	1,78,30	89,88	22,32	5,62				60,48
December	1,83,41	80,97	22,32	5,64				66,48
1924								8,00
January	1,84,02	76,49	22,32	5,69				71,52
February	1,86,19	74,64	22,32	5,70				71,53
March	1,85,85	74,18	22,32	5,82				71,53
								12,00
								12,00

* For details of securities, see next page.

† Section 20 of the Indian Paper Currency Act, 1923.

* Made up of —

	Nominal Value	Cost Price
	Rs	Rs a p
Rupee securities—		
3½ per cent loan of 1842-43	8,15,95,000	8,00,00,000 0 0
3 per cent loan of 1896-97	2,04,86,500	1,99 99 945 10 0
	10,20,81,500	9,99,99,945 10 0
Indian Treasury Bills	40 65,00,000	47,52,75,000 0 0
	59,85,81,500	57,52,74,945 10 0
	£ s d	£ s d
Sterling securities—		
British Treasury Bills	14,110,000 0 0	13 999 480 1 0

Details of the balance of the Gold Standard Reserve on the 31st March 1924

In England—	£
Estimated value on the 31st March 1924 of the Sterling Securities of the nominal value of £ 39 006 821 (as per details below)	39,999,059
Cash at the Bank of England	941
Total	40 000 000

Details of investments —

	Face value
	£
British Treasury Bills	23,605,000
Guaranteed 2½ per cent Stock	438,720
National War Loan 5 per cent Stock 1920—47	567,601
War Loan 3½ per cent 1925 28 Stock	150,000
Exchequer 5½ per cent Bonds, 1925	3,275,000
National 5 per cent War Bonds, 1925	1,295,000
National 5 per cent War Bonds, 1927	750,000
National 5 per cent War Bonds, 1928	2,745,000
National 5 per cent War Bonds, 1929	1 990,000
Treasury 5 per cent 5-15 year Bonds, 1925	690,000
Treasury 5 per cent Bonds, 1927	3,450 000
Treasury 5½ per cent Bonds, 1929	150,000
Treasury 5½ per cent Bonds, 1930	500 000
Total	39,606,321

Agriculture.

As crops depend on the existence of plant food and moisture in the soil so the character of the agriculture of a country depends largely on its soil and climate. It is true that geographical situation, the character of the people and other considerations have their influence which is not inconsiderable, but the limitations imposed by the nature of the soil and above all by the climate tend to the production of a certain class of agriculture under a certain given set of conditions.

The climate of India, while varying to some extent in degree, in most respects is remarkably similar in character throughout the country. The main factors in common are the monsoon, the dry winter and early summer months, and the intense heat from March till October. These have the effect of dividing the year into two agricultural seasons, the *Kharif* or Monsoon and the *Rabi* or Winter Season each bearing its own distinctive crops. From early June till October abundant rains fall over the greater part of the continent while the winter months are generally dry although North Western India benefits from showers in December and January. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year, which is of considerable importance to agriculture, is none too favourable, but is not quite so bad as is often represented. The rainfall is greatest at what would otherwise be the hottest time of the year, viz. mid-summer and when it is most needed. It should be remembered that in a hot country intermittent showers are practically valueless as evaporation is very rapid. The distribution of rainfall such as is common in England, for example, would be of little use to Indian soils.

Soil.—For the purpose of soil classification India may be conveniently divided into two main areas in (1) The Indo-Gangetic plains, (2) Central and Southern India. The physical features of these two divisions are essentially different. The Indo-Gangetic plains (including the Punjab, Sind, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Assam) form large level stretches of alluvium of great depth. The top soil varies in texture from sand to clay, the greater part being a light loam, porous in texture, easily worked, and naturally fertile. The great depth of the alluvium tends to keep down the soil temperature. Central and Southern India on the other hand consist of hills and valleys. The higher uplands are too hot and too near the rock to be suitable for agriculture which is mainly practised in the valleys where the soil is deeper and cooler and moisture more plentiful. The main difference between the soils of the two tracts is in texture and while the greater part of the land in Northern India is porous and easily cultivated, and moist near to the surface, large stretches in Southern and Central India consist of an intractable soil derived from the Deccan trap, sticky in the rains, hard and crumbly in the dry weather and holding its moisture at lower levels.

Agricultural Capital and Equipment.—India is a country of small holdings and the vast majority of the people cultivate patches varying in size from one to eight acres. Large holdings are practically unknown, and are mainly confined to the planting industries. Farming is

carried on with a minimum of capital, there being practically no outlay on fencing, buildings, or implements. The accumulation of capital is prevented by the occurrence of famine and the high rate of interest and extravagance of expenditure in marriage celebrations. The organisation of co-operative credit which has been taken in hand by Government and which has already proved successful in many provinces will undoubtedly lead to an increase in Agricultural capital.

Equipment.—For power the ryot depends chiefly on cattle which, as a rule, are light and active but possess little hauling power. The necessary tillage for crops is brought about by frequency of ploughings, the result being that the soil is seldom tilled as it should be. This is not chiefly due to want of knowledge on the part of the people but through want of proper equipment. The Indian agriculturist, as a rule, possesses an intimate though limited knowledge of the essentials of his own business, and fails, not only through ignorance, but also through lack of ways and means.

Implements are made of wood although ploughs are usually tipped with iron points, and there is a great similarity in their shape and general design. The introduction of iron ploughs has made much progress in the last few years and many hundred thousand are now in use. The levelling beam is used throughout the greater part of the country in preference to the harrow and roller, and throughout Northern India the plough and the levelling beam are the only implements possessed by the ordinary cultivator.

In the heavier soils of the Deccan trap a cultivating implement consisting of a single blade, resembling in shape a Dutch hoe, is much used. Seed drills and drill hoes are in use in parts of Bombay and Madras but throughout the greater part of the country the seed is either broadcast or ploughed in. Hand implements consist of various sizes of hoes, the best known of which are the *kodal* or spade with a blade set at an angle towards the labourer who does not use his feet in digging, and the *khurpi* or small hand hoe. Of harvesting machinery there is none, grain is separated either by treading out with oxen or beating out by hand, and winnowing by the agency of the wind.

Cultivation.—Cultivation at its best is distinctly good but in the greater part of the country it has plenty of room for improvement. As in any other country success in agriculture varies greatly with the character of the people, depending largely as it does on thrift and industry. In most places considering the large population cultivation is none too good. Agriculture suffers through lack of organisation and equipment. Owing to the necessity of protection against thieves, in most parts the people live in villages, many of them at considerable distances from their land. Again, holdings, small though they are, have become sub-divided without any regard for convenience. Preparatory tillage generally consists of repeated ploughings, followed as seed time approaches by harrowings with the levelling beam. The *Rabi* crops generally receive a more thorough cultivation than the *Kharif*, a finer seed bed being necessary owing to the dryness of the sowing season. **Manure** is

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE.

The following table shows the area under the principal crops, in British India, and their territorial distribution, for 1922-23. The sown area is always greater than the area of cultivated land, owing to double cropping. The figures represent acres —

Province.	Rice	Wheat	Barley and	Other Food Grains and Pulses	Total Food Grains and Pulses	Oilseeds	Sugar	Cotton	Jute	Total Area sown	Net sown Area after deducting Area sown more than once
Madras	11,285,924	30,127	3,331	17,624,497	28,943,879	3,556,948	211,395	2,322,928		37,762,471	32,997,115
Bombay	3,058,398	2,028,426	42,369	18,044,061	23,173,244	1,270,896	67,733	3,977,158		32,095,387	30,679,434
Bengal	21,773,300	124,800	83,000	1,267,706	23,249,306	1,061,500	261,600	34,000	1,196,500	27,749,600	23,642,100
United Provinces	7,016,142	7,056,676	4,338,427	20,447,470	38,858,718	626,027	1,349,185	645,938		44,167,546	35,614,977
Punjab	928,738	9,620,201	1,178,000	12,015,940	23,737,800	1,477,667	493,560	1,273,001		31,788,851	26,960,665
Burma	11,287,873	84,602		1,574,605	12,947,130	1,241,343	53,064	233,631		16,818,049	16,314,635
Bihar and Orissa	15,850,100	1,265,900	1,406,100	9,143,600	27,565,700	2,116,200	305,700	79,900	160,000	31,914,200	25,639,100
Central Provinces and Berar	5,143,582	3,007,323	17,514	10,795,675	18,964,091	2,040,604	19,278	4,856,871		26,648,671	24,286,304
Assam	4,624,964			18,503,338	4,807,067	319,364	42,472	40,211	80,927	6,862,998	5,837,798
N. W. Frontier Provinces	23,785	1,122,913	270,195	941,400	2,361,383	148,177	39,242	15,108		2,720,243	2,340,825
Minor Areas	85,032	66,571	68,904	400,434	618,941	24,781	9,224	38,524		860,799	663,051
Total	80,576,925	24,407,679	4,012,290	92,641,513	205,027,938	19,913,587	2,855,491	18,537,820	1,446,427	256,828,891	224,945,489

generally applied to the maximum extent available, both to *Kharif* and to *Rabi* crops. Seeding is either done broadcast or by drilling behind a wooden plough or drill. Thinning and spacing are not nearly so well done as they might be, and intercultivation is generally too superficial. Harvesting is done by sickle where the crops are cut whole, and there is little waste involved. On the whole the methods of the ryot if carried out thoroughly would be quite satisfactory, but it is doubtful if this could be done with the number of cattle at his disposal.

Irrigation is necessary in order to grow full crops on the land, over a large part of the country owing to insufficient rain, fall and the vagaries of the monsoon. Canal irrigation has been greatly extended over the Punjab, Sind, United Provinces and Madras through Government canals which, in addition to securing the crops over existing cultivated land, have converted large desert tracts into fertile areas. The Punjab and parts of the United Provinces are naturally well suited to canal irrigation owing to the frequency of their rivers. The water is generally taken off at a point a little distance from where the rivers leave the hills and is conducted to the arid plains below. The main canal splits up into diverging branches, which again subdivide up into distributaries from which the village channels receive their supplies. Water rates are levied on the matured areas of crops. Government thus bearing a part of the loss in case of failure. Much of the land is supplied by what is termed *flow irrigation*, i.e. the land is directly commanded by the canal water, but a great deal has to be lifted from one to three feet the canal running in such cases below the level of the land. Rates for lift irrigation are, of course, lower than those for flow.

Irrigation canals are generally classed into (1) perennial and (2) inundation canals. Perennial canals, which give supplies in all seasons generally have their headworks near the hills, thus commanding a great range of country. Farther from the hills, owing to the very gradual slope of the land and the lowness of the rivers in the cold weather, perennial irrigation is difficult and inundation canals are resorted to. These canals only give irrigation when the rivers are high. As a rule, in Northern India they begin to flow when the rivers rise owing to the melting of the snow on the hills in May and dry up in September.

Irrigation from Wells—About one quarter of the total irrigation of the country is got from lifting water from wells ranging in depth from a few feet to over fifty feet. Their numbers have greatly increased in recent years largely through Government advances for their construction. The recurring cost of this form of irrigation has, however, greatly increased owing to the high price of draught cattle and the increasing cost of their maintenance.

Tank irrigation is common in Central and Southern India. Large quantities of rain water are stored in lakes (or tanks) and distributed during the drier seasons of the year. The system of distribution is the same as that by canal.

Manures—Feeding of animals for slaughter being practically unknown in India, the amount of farm yard manure generally available in other countries from this source

thus does not exist. This is partially if not entirely made up for by the large numbers required for tillage and the amount of cows and bullocks kept for milk. Unfortunately fuel is very scarce and a greater part of the dung of animals has to be used for burning. Most of the trash from crops is used up for the same purpose and the net return of organic matter to the soil is thus insignificant. In some parts cakes of oil seed are used as manures for valuable crops like tea and sugarcane but in the greater part of the country the only manure applied is the balance of farm yard manure available after fuel supplies have been satisfied. Farm yard manure is particularly effective and its value is thoroughly appreciated but the people have much to learn in the way of storage of bulky manures and the conservation of urine.

Rice—A reference to the crop statistics shows that rice is the most extensively grown crop in India, although it preponderates in the wetter parts of the country viz., in Bengal, Bihar and Burma and Madras. The crop requires for its proper maturing a moist climate with well assured rainfall. The cultivated varieties are numerous, differing greatly in quality and in suitability for various conditions of soil and climate, and the people possess an intimate acquaintance with those grown in their own localities. The better qualities are sown in seed beds and transplanted in the monsoon. Broadcast rice is grown generally in low lying areas and is sown before the monsoon as it must make a good start before the floods arrive. Deep water rice grows quickly and to a great height and are generally able to keep pace with the rise in water level.

For transplanted rice the soil is generally prepared after the arrival of the monsoon and is worked in a puddle before the seedlings are transplanted. The land is laid out into small areas with raised partitions to regulate the distribution of the water supply. The seedlings are planted in small bunches containing from 4 to 6 plants each and are simply dibbled into the mud at distances of 6 to 12 inches apart. Where available, irrigation water is given at frequent intervals and the fields are kept more or less under water until the crop begins to show signs of ripening.

Wheat—Wheat is grown widely throughout Northern India as a winter crop, the United Provinces and the Punjab supplying about two thirds of the total area, and probably three quarters of the total output in India. The majority of the varieties grown belong to the Species *Triticum Vulgare*. Indian wheats are generally white, red and amber coloured and are mostly classed as soft from a commercial point of view. The grains are generally plump and well filled but the samples are spoiled through mixtures of various qualities. Indian wheat is generally adulterated to some extent with barley and largely with dirt from the threshing floor and although there is a good demand in England and the Continent for the surplus produce, prices compare unfavourably with those obtained for Canadian and Australian produce. The crop is generally grown after a summer fallow and, except in irrigated tracts, depends largely on the conservation of the soil moisture from the previous monsoon.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS

	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Net Area by professional survey	619 239,653	620,334,850	625,166,316	625,149,442	621 226,065	606 700 557	606 278,697
Area under forest	85,070 524	86 024,912	87,728,572	98 313 310	81 245,141	86,413 111	85,591,925
Net available for cultivation	148,441,598	142,782,768	146 798 696	145,769 969	141,504 618	153,178 439	152,638 901
Outstanding waste other than fallow	112,485 364	111 485,761	113 812,543	113 414,708	114 841 090	151,173 040	154 632 175
Fallow land	45,493,149	48 465,917	72 668,244	52,134 792	61 348,523	50 553,524	47 869 781
Net area sown with crops	220 620,075	227 847,771	201 384 395	222,825 437	212 259,596	211,113 648	224,940 489
Area irrigated	48 006,917	45 966,845	47,222 442	48 903 033	48 966 111	47 789 679	47 874 704
Area under Food-grains—							
Rice	80 988,124	80,067 619	77 613 377	78,706 103	78 130,570	79,699,870	80 176 925
Wheat	23,018,886	20,427 544	19 147 521	23 598,804	20 367,757	22,383,519	21 407 729
Barley	7,971,897	8,506,286	6,494,123	7,518,736	6 268,171	7,356,429	7 401 220
Jowar	21,921,980	21,117 771	20 537 466	22,438 240	22 600 318	24 214,243	22 834 098
Bajra	14,297 937	12 409 197	11 200,972	14,582 453	12 002 033	15,090 529	13 928 849
Ragi	4,072,163	4,285 211	4,004,350	4,222 366	4 238,957	4,211 067	4,262,040
Maize	6,541 212	6,485,508	6,063 510	6,656 116	6 206 920	6 334,705	5 954 638
Gram	15,809,021	16 724 034	7 647 075	12 940 459	9,463 432	15,034,835	16 776 086
Other grains and pulse	81,334,065	30 543 956	25,165,659	20 022 910	27,543 185	29,615,231	28 839 277
Total Food-grains	208,773 108	207 436 586	177,843 665	199,667,194	186 890 043	204,790,808	206 027 338
Area under other food-crops (including fruits, vegetables, etc.)	8,410,439	8 330,477	8,095 384	8,484 656	7 610 459	8,194,791	8 220 438
Area under—							
Sugar	2 014,788	2,092,616	3,015,571	2,813,428	2,705,773	2,522,176	2,865,491
Coffee	90 962	95,811	98,822	96,815	96 501	96,611	97,006
Tea	603,510	619 922	688,034	701,443	660,761	713,379	710,244

Rains in January and February are generally beneficial but an excess of rainfall in these months usually produces rust with a diminution of the yield. On irrigated land 2 to 4 waterings are generally given. The crop is generally harvested in March and April and the threshing and winnowing go on up till the end of May. In good years the surplus crop is bought up at once by exporters and no time is lost in putting it on the European market as other supplies are at that time of year scarce. In years of famine the local price is generally sufficiently high to restrict exports.

The Millets—These constitute one of the most important group of crops in the country, supplying food for the poorer classes and fodder for the cattle. The varieties vary greatly in quality, height and suitability to various climatic and soil conditions. Perhaps the two best known varieties are Jowar (*Sorghum vulgare*) tall growing with a large open head, and Bajra with a close rat tail head and thin stem. Generally speaking the jowars require better land than the bajras and the distribution of the two crops follows the quality of the soil. Neither for jowar nor bajra is manure usually applied and cultivation is not so thorough as for wheat, the main objective being to produce a fine seed bed. The crop is generally sown in the beginning of the monsoon and so it requires to be thoroughly weeded. In the case of Jowar, however, very large areas are sown as a *raab* crop. It is often grown mixed with the summer pulses and other crops in which case thin seedlings are resorted to. The subsidiary crops are harvested as they ripen either before the millet is harvested or afterwards. The produce is consumed in the country.

Pulses are commonly grown throughout India and the grain forms one of the chief foods of the people. Most kinds do well but are subject to failure or shortage of yield owing to a variety of circumstances among which rain at the time of flowering appears to be one of the most important. They are therefore more suitable to grow as mixed crops especially with cereals, and are generally grown as such. Being deep rooted and practically independent of a Nitrogen supply in the soil they withstand drought and form a good alternation in a cereal rotation. The chief crops under this heading are gram, mash, mung and moth, gram forming the main winter pulse crop while the others are grown in the summer. The pulses grow best on land which has had a good deep cultivation. A fine seed bed is not necessary. For gram especially the soil should be loose and well aerated. Indian pulses are not largely exported although they are used to some extent in Europe as food for dairy cows.

Cotton is one of the chief exports from India and the crop is widely grown in the drier parts of the country. The lint from Indian cotton is generally speaking short and coarse in fibre and unsuited for English mills. Japan and the Continent have, in the past, been the chief buyers. The crop is grown during the summer months and requires a deep moist soil and light rainfall for the proper growth. Rain immediately after sowing or during the flowering period is injurious. In parts of Central Western and Southern India the seed is sown in lines and the crop receives careful attention but over

Northern India it is sown broadcast (often mixed with other crops) and from the date of sowing till the time of picking is practically left to itself. The average yield, which does not amount to more than 400 lbs. per acre of seed cotton, could doubtless be greatly increased by better cultivation.

Sugarcane—Although India is not naturally as well suited for sugarcane growing as many other tropical countries, some 2½ millions of acres are annually sown. The crop is mostly grown in the submontane tracts of Northern India. The common varieties are thin and hard, yielding a low percentage of juice of fair quality, but cane of the highest quality and yield is grown in South India. In India white sugar is not made by the grower who simply boils down the juice and does not remove the molasses. The product called gur or gul is generally sold and consumed as such, although in some parts a certain amount of sugar-making is carried on. The profits, however, are small owing to the cheapness of imported sugar and there appears to be some danger to the crop if the present taste for gur were to die out. The question has been taken up by Government and a cane breeding station has been recently opened near Coimbatore in Madras with the object of raising seedling canes and otherwise improving the supply of cane sets. A number of sugar factories of a modern type have been set up within recent years in Bihar and the United Provinces and more recently in Bombay. The chief difficulty seems to be the obtaining of a sufficiently large supply of canes to offset the heavy capital charges of the undertakings.

Oilseeds—The crops classified under this heading are chiefly sesamum, linseed and the cruciferous oilseeds (rape, mustard, etc.). Although oilseeds are subject to great fluctuation in price and the crops themselves are more or less precarious by nature—they cover an immense area.

Linseed requires a deep and moist soil and is thus grown chiefly in Bengal, Bihar, the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The crop is grown for seed and not for fibre and the common varieties are of a much shorter habit of growth than those of Europe. The yield varies greatly from practically nothing up to 500 or 600 lbs. of seed per acre. The seed is mainly exported whole but a certain amount of oil pressing is done in the country.

Sesamum (or Gingelly) is grown mostly in Peninsular India as an autumn or winter crop. The seed is largely exported.

The Cruciferous Oilseeds form an important group of crops in Northern India where they grow freely and attain a fair state of development. They are one of the most useful crops in the rotation. They occupy the land for a few months only, and owing to their dense growth leave the soil clean and in good condition after their removal. A number of varieties are grown differing from each other in habit of growth, time of ripening, and size and quality of seed. The best known are rape, toria, and sarson. The crop is generally sown in September or early October and harvested from December to February. The crop is subject to the attack of aphids (green fly) at the time of flowering and sometimes suffers considerable damage from this pest. The seed

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF BRITISH INDIA

	1916-17		1917-18		1918-19		1919-20		1920-21		1921-22		1922-23	
	Acres		Acres		Acres		Acres		Acres		Acres		Acres	
Area under Oilseeds—														
Linseed	2,558,074		2,781,280		1,447,818		2,245,905		1,496,189		2,083,868		2,372,649	
Sesamum (oil)	4,014,078		3,374,432		3,234,616		3,490,864		3,561,919		3,707,067		3,166,442	
Rapo and Mustard	4,010,044		4,358,909		3,838,699		3,679,789		2,979,484		4,233,882		3,809,186	
Other Oilseeds	4,052,492		3,592,756		2,731,753		3,135,346		4,302,860		4,202,824		4,576,280	
Total Oilseeds	14,035,588		14,108,377		10,472,675		12,571,304		12,370,892		14,196,571		13,913,567	
Area under—														
Cotton	13,834,607		15,403,088		14,440,566		15,318,089		14,114,276		11,605,295		13,537,820	
Jute	2,671,302		2,700,824		2,472,644		2,790,937		2,472,088		1,505,527		1,446,427	
Other fibres	830,540		837,587		576,331		746,440		728,815		683,521		637,645	
Indigo	764,823		700,247		286,888		242,810		241,461		328,859		277,132	
Opium	216,809		221,500		506,733		181,787		193,884		132,888		147,191	
Tobacco	1,041,303		1,014,862		1,047,215		1,101,231		932,482		1,050,695		1,082,087	
Fodder crops	8,173,058		8,193,925		7,227,846		8,206,256		8,108,016		8,008,219		8,711,042	
Estimated yield* of—														
Rice (Cleaned)	35,054,000	tons	35,999,000		24,312,000		32,024,000		27,656,000		33,143,000		33,702,000	
Wheat	10,236,000	lb	9,922,000		7,507,000		10,122,000		6,706,000		9,830,000		9,974,000	
Coffee	370,313,500		371,296,800		389,459,000		377,055,000		345,339,000		274,263,800		25,380,000	
Tea †	4,492,000	400 lb bales	4,055,000		3,677,000		5,769,000		3,600,000		4,485,000		5,078,000	
Cotton	8,309,300	"	8,367,200		6,955,700		8,481,300		5,916,000		3,985,000		5,408,000	
Jute †	526,000	tons	515,000		235,000		419,000		270,000		486,000		532,000	
Rapo and Mustard	1,198,200	"	1,156,200		768,800		1,133,000		859,000		1,168,000		1,209,000	
Sesamum (oil)	513,000	"	382,000		278,000		449,000		892,000		618,000		481,000	
Groundnut	1,196,000	"	1,056,000		628,000		822,000		1,022,000		969,000		1,286,000	
Indigo	96,700	cent	127,000		48,600		43,300		43,700		67,300		52,100	
Gauze-sugar	2,762,000	tons	3,434,000		2,466,000		3,039,000		2,522,000		2,614,000		3,046,000	
Rubber †		lb					13,615,000		13,769,000		9,066,000		11,918,000	

* The acreage of crops given in this table is for British India only, but the estimated yield includes the crops in certain of the Indian States.

† The statistics of the production of tea, jute and rubber are for calendar years.

‡ Return of production discontinued up to 1918-19

is very subject to injury from rain and great care has to be taken in the drying. The produce is largely exported whole, but there is a considerable amount of local oil-pressing—the cake being in demand for feeding purposes.

Jute.—Two varieties of the plant are cultivated as a crop, *Capauria* and *Qitorius*. Jute growing is confined almost entirely to Eastern Bengal, in the Ganges Brahmaputra Delta. The crop requires a rich moist soil. Owing to river inundation this part of India receives a considerable alluvial deposit every year and the land is thus able to sustain this exhausting crop without manure. The crop is rather delicate when young, but once established requires no attention, and grows to a great height (10 to 11 feet). Before ripening the crop is cut and retted in water. After about three weeks submersion the fibre is removed by washing and beating. At the recent high range of prices jute may be considered to have been, for the last few years, the best paying crop in India.

Tobacco is grown here and there all over the country chiefly, however, in Bengal, Bihar, Bombay Madras and Burma. Of two varieties cultivated *Nicotiana Tabacum* is by far the most common. Maximum crops are obtained on deep and moist alluvium soils and a high standard of cultivation including liberal manuring is necessary. The crop is only suited to small holdings where labour is plentiful as the attention necessary for its proper cultivation is very great. The seed is germinated in seed beds and the young plants are transplanted when a few inches high, great care being taken to shield them from the sun. The crop is very carefully weeded and hoed. It is topped after attaining a height of, say, 2 ft., and all suckers are removed. The crop ripens from February onwards and is cut just before the leaves become brittle. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves different qualities

of tobacco are obtained. A black tobacco is required for *Hooka* smoking and this is the most common product but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Live-stock consist mainly of cattle, buffaloes and goats, horses not being used for agricultural purposes. Sheep are of secondary importance.

For draught purposes cattle are in more general use than buffaloes especially in the drier parts of the country, but buffaloes are very largely used in the low lying rice tracts. For dairying buffaloes are perhaps more profitable than cows as they give richer milk and more of it but they require more feeding. The poorer people depend largely on the milk of goats of which there are an enormous number throughout India. Cattle breeding is carried on mainly in the non-cultivated tracts in Central and Southern India, Southern Punjab and Rajasthan, where distinct breeds with definite characters have been preserved. The best known draught breeds are Banal, Nellore, Amritmahal, Gujrat, Malvi, and the finest milk cows are the Saniwal (Punjab) Gir (Kathiawar) and Sind Owing, however to the encroachment of cultivation on the grazing areas well bred cattle are becoming scarce and some of the breeds are threatened with extinction. Efforts to improve the quality of the cattle in the non breeding districts by the use of selected bulls have hitherto been frustrated by the promiscuous breeding which goes on in the villages.

Dairying—Though little noticed, dairying forms a very large indigenous industry throughout India. The best known products are anjra butter (ghos) and cheese (dahi). During recent years a considerable trade in tinmed butter has sprung up in Gujrat (Bombay Presidency). While pure ghos and milk can be procured in the villages, in the towns dairy products can scarcely be bought unadulterated.

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS

The Agricultural Departments in India as they now exist may be said to be a creation of the last twenty years. There have for a good many years past been experimental farms, under official control, in various parts of India, but they were in the past to a large extent in the hands of amateurs, and the work of the Agricultural Departments, with which all the major provinces were provided by about 1884, was in the main confined to the simplification of revenue settlement procedure and the improvement of the land records system. In 1901 the appointment of an Inspector General of Agriculture gave the Imperial Agricultural Department for the first time an expert head, and placed the Government of India in a position to enlarge the scope of their own operations and to co-ordinate the work being done on independent lines in various provinces. At that time the staff attached to the Government of India consisted of an Agricultural Chemist and a Cryptogamic Botanist, while trained Deputy Directors of Agriculture were employed only in Madras, Bombay and the United Provinces and the Koonmie Botanist in Madras was the only provincial representative of the more specialised type of appointments. Within the next few years a number of new appointments

were made so that by March 1905 there were altogether 20 sanctioned agricultural posts, of these seven were Imperial, including a number of specialist appointments attached to the Agricultural Research Institute and College the establishment of which at Pusa in Bengal was sanctioned in 1903. A great impetus was given to the development of the Agricultural Departments by the decision of the Government of India in 1905 to set apart a sum of 20 lakhs (£133,000) a year for the development of agricultural experiment, research, demonstration and instruction. Their ultimate aim, as then expressed, was the establishment of an experimental farm in each large tract of country in which the agricultural conditions are approximately homogeneous, to be supplemented by numerous small demonstration farms, the creation of an agricultural college teaching up to a three years course in each of the larger provinces and the provision of an expert staff in connection with these colleges for purposes of research as well as education. The eventual cost, it was recognised, would largely exceed 20 lakhs a year. The Pusa Research Institute and College alone has cost nearly £150,000 including equipment. A part of the cost was met from a sum of £30,000 placed at Lord Curzon's dis-

AREA, CULTIVATED and UNCULTIVATED, in 1922-23 in EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces	Area according to Survey	Deduct Indian States	NET AREA.	
			According to Survey	According to Village Papers
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Bengal	53,824,158	3,476,638	50,347,520	50,347,520
Madras	97,800,633	6,846,308	91,044,265	89,805,947
Bombay	119,757,325	40,891,260	78,862,125	78,862,125
United Provinces	1,064,741	4,318,232	68,300,509	68,101,451
Bihar and Orissa	71,449,560	18,134,720	53,111,840	53,111,840
Punjab	65,474,908	3,216,022	62,259,886	60,293,304
Burma	15,052,067		15,052,067	155,652,667
Central Provinces and Berar	83,926,901	19,960,727	63,966,174	64,192,841
Assam	41,229,440	8,051,440	168,000	33,168,000
North West Frontier Province	8,521,252	140,800	8,380,452	8,515,417
Ajmer Merwara and	1,802,267		1,802,267	1,802,267
Manpur Pargana	1,012,260		1,012,260	1,012,260
Coorg				
Delhi	367,612		367,612	367,612
TOTAL	77,551,744	10,275,147	668,278,597	665,233,271

Provinces	CULTIVATED		UNCULTIVATED		Forests
	Net Area actually Sown	Current Fallows	Culturable Waste other than Fallow	Not available for Cultivation	
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Bengal	21,642,100	4,669,062	6,166,648	11,581,977	4,296,833
Madras	32,007,115	10,211,245	12,170,571	21,321,860	13,106,368
Bombay	30,679,131	12,069,262	7,071,014	19,753,788	9,886,667
United Provinces	35,614,977	2,810,480	10,374,447	9,971,754	9,329,793
Bihar and Orissa	25,639,100	5,088,910	6,896,811	8,094,768	7,102,580
Punjab	26,060,655	2,725,360	15,888,731	12,628,090	2,190,462
Burma	16,114,631	3,781,549	61,132,720	54,823,034	19,397,720
Central Provinces and Berar	21,236,041	3,147,500	15,060,507	4,860,870	10,538,651
Assam	5,837,703	1,723,296	16,574,263	5,510,500	8,522,148
North West Frontier Province	2,340,325	473,271	2,700,196	2,641,487	380,138
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana.	318,538	208,037	311,323	851,942	112,422
Coorg	139,616	169,724	11,690	234,045	357,185
Delhi	224,897	8,102	63,856	70,777	
TOTAL	224,945,469	47,389,781	154,652,175	152,653,901	85,501,925

posal by Mr. Phippe, an American visitor to India. This example of munificence has recently been followed by Sir Sassoon J. David, who placed the sum of £55,800 at the disposal of the Government of Bombay for the establishment of vernacular agricultural schools and the improvement of agricultural methods, in commemoration of the visit of Their Imperial Majesties to India. The headquarters of the Imperial Department of Agriculture at Pusa are maintained at a cost of slightly over £85,000 and the total expenditure of all Provincial Departments is £594,000, or about one half penny per acre per annum.

Recent Progress.—A survey of the results of the activities of the Agricultural Department in relation to the chief crops of India shows valuable results. First in importance of all grain crops in India is Rice and the demand for improved seed now far outruns the supply. One of the departmental grains which has been planted in the Madras Presidency produced 37 717 lbs per acre representing a net profit to the cultivator of nearly £23 sterling per acre for the crop. The improved varieties of wheat produced at Pusa have now been extended to all the wheat-growing provinces. Each acre cultivated under Pusa wheat gives the grower an increased return of £1 sterling. One of the main features of the sugar work of the Agricultural Department has been the promising results attending the cane produced in Coimbatore in the Madras Presidency. One variety of improved cane in the Central Provinces has given over a period of eight years an average outturn of 2 488 lbs of rough sugar per acre more than the variety it displaced. The improvement of the Cotton crop is dealt with in detail in the report of the Cotton Committee (q. v.) and in the operations of the Indian Central Cotton Committee set up in accordance with its recommendations. The demand for seed for the new and improved varieties of jute recommended by the Department is greater than over and cannot be satisfied. In the case of Tobacco the demand for Pusa type 28 which combines both yield and quality and is suitable both for cigarette making and general cultivation has increased more than fourfold.

Experiment has shown that the fruit-growing industry has a great field before it. But the possibility of establishing a system of co-operative marketing has yet to be tested. The study of pests animal and vegetable is making progress. Experiments seem to show that a rat consumes 6 lbs of grain a year and as the total rat population is 8 hundred millions the loss caused to the population by this animal per year is about 15 millions sterling.

Amongst the most important measures is the improvement of the cattle population. At Pusa cattle breeding is directed mainly along two lines, the breeding of ordinary country milch cattle and the experiment of breeding by crossing varieties of high milk yielding pedigrees. The progress is slow largely on account of the magnitude of the task. In regard to implements, the scope of tractor cultivation appears to be limited since irrigated lands are not suitable for tractor cultivation and the fields are too small for the purpose. The co-operative credit societies are now greatly facilitating the distribution of the results of the experimental work done by the Agricultural Department.

Work of the Departments.

The work of the Agricultural Department has two main aspects. On the one hand, by experiment and research, improved methods or crops are developed, or the means of combating a pest are worked out, on the other hand, ascertained improvements must be demonstrated and introduced as far as possible into the practice of the Indian cultivator. There is an essential difference between agricultural departments in the East and in the West in that, whereas the latter have arisen to meet the spontaneous demands of the cultivators of the soil, the former are entirely the creation of a government anxious to give all the assistance it can to its agricultural subjects. The demand for improved agriculture has not in India, except in special cases, come from the cultivator, and it is necessary for the Department to put forth every effort, first to ascertain the needs of the cultivators and then to demonstrate how they can most effectively be met. It is only a few years since work on modern lines was commenced by the reorganised agricultural departments, and, in the first place, a great deal of *spade work* had to be performed. An important advance in the direction of bringing the provincial agricultural departments more closely into touch with one another was made in 1905 by the creation of the Board of Agriculture. The Board, which includes the Imperial and provincial experts, meets biennially to discuss the programme of agricultural work, and agricultural questions generally and makes recommendations which are submitted to the Government of India for consideration.

Machinery

The rapid extension in India in recent years of the use of machinery in connection with agriculture and irrigation has created a demand for expert assistance to meet which Agricultural Engineers have been appointed in Bombay and several other Provinces to advise cultivators as to engines, pumps, threshing machinery, etc. Experiments have at various times and in various parts of India been made with steam ploughing machinery and since the war trials have been made with the petroleum driven tractors that were specially developed in England during the war. But while there is everywhere immense scope for the employment of the most modern machinery, progress is greatly hampered by the laissez faire attitude of the manufacturers of it. The reports of the Agricultural Departments constantly bear witness of this. Farmers have generally no direct representatives in India, being content with representation by agents in the large towns. There are no stocks of machinery in the country, spare parts are difficult to get and exorbitant prices are often charged for them.

Information and assistance in regard to the choice of implements suitable for various conditions has, under present circumstances, to be interpreted and brought home to Indian cultivators largely by the agricultural departments which have therefore to do a good deal of this work. Up to the present, the departments perform to a certain extent the functions of dealers in implements, but it is becoming difficult to control the work as the area covered by the introduction is gradually becoming large,

AREA UNDER IRRIGATION IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	Total Area Sown	AREA IRRIGATED				
		By Canals		By Tanks	By Wells	Other Sources.
		Government	Private			
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres.
Bombay	37,762,471	3,537,128	234,984	3,664,448	1,776,674	396,010
Bombay	32,095,337	3,204,767	57,231	96,381	567,806	158,869
Bengal..	27,749,800	137,865	113,707	755,104	11,355	702,469
United Provinces	(a) 44,167,546	2,200,272	38,236	64,791	4,888,920	2,631,595
Punjab	31,784,857	9,621,730	543,197	14,330	3,215,987	115,707
Burma	16,818,049	588,801	275,502	203,114	15,603	292,820
Bihar and Orissa	31,014,200	906,592	878,629	1,702,982	639,220	1,172,446
Central Provinces & Berar	26,648,671	330,896	2,347	571,933	109,307	41,373
Assam	6,362,998	120	180,663	650		100,967
North West Frontier Province	2,720,248	331,176	402,873		131,692	47,104
Ajmer-Merwara and Mampur Pargana	346,929			17,110	70,472	..
Coorg . .	141,532	2,565		1,447		
Delhi . .	312,338	28,263		659	14,890	..
Total	358,828,621	21,036,175	2,727,369	6,902,944	11,438,366	5,659,350

(a) Includes 343, 286 acres in the Agra province for which details are not available

Provinces	AREA IRRIGATED	CROPS IRRIGATED *				
	Total Area Irrigated	Rice	Wheat.	Barley	Jowar or choium (great millet)	Bajra or cumbu (spiked millet)
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	9,509,239	7,996,639	5,668	14	622,638	809,920
Bombay	4,085,054	1,322,643	556,567	26,872	648,342	588,599
Bengal	1,770,490	1,768,395	30,920	2,040	100	100
United Provinces	9,883,814	311,446	3,404,224	1,975,487	24,343	2,711
Punjab	13,510,951	735,855	5,049,410	327,526	207,402	387,213
Burma	1,375,810	1,338,069	1,343
Bihar and Orissa	5,299,869	3,616,306	298,892	117,937	11,900	806
Central Provinces and Berar	1,058,856	921,753	39,660	2,855	95	2
Assam	282,400	272,453	20
North West Frontier Province	962,845	23,552	378,884	91,410	18,331	7,840
Ajmer - Merwara and Munpur Pargana	87,582	72	9,140	30,368	929	305
Coorg	4,012	4,012
Delhi	43,752	36	18,755	3,052	154	48
TOTAL	47,874,704	18,311,231	9,858,483	2,577,561	1,520,244	1,297,544

* Includes the area irrigated at both harvests.

Provinces	CROPS IRRIGATED *						
	Maize	Other cereals and pulses	Sugar cane	Other Food crops	Cotton	Other Non-food crops	Total
	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	4,197	1,390,389	123,505	294,686	170,882	488,680	11,407,218
Bombay .	32,819	809,931	63,495	192,977	273,140	373,951	4,884,886
Bengal .	4,818	97,505	61,641	159,805	700	115,100	2,241,181
United Provinces	89,017	2,554,527	997,324	273,213	103,323	388,545	10,310,360
Punjab ..	513,317	1,489,350	436,342	228,467	1,152,806	3,422,541	13,800,220
Burma		3,708	2,311	52,627		13,184	1,411,242
Bihar and Orissa	108,627	742,421	165,086	142,538	2,580	112,776	5,299,869
Central Provinces and Berar	80	2,763	18,005	68,890	284	6,283	1,000,220
Assam .		1,825		6,894		1,208	282,400
North West Frontier Province .	244,567	30,818	39,184	29,179	11,018	91,646	966,459
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	21,704	4,135	232	6,261	18,240	87	92,267
Coorg . ..							4,012
Delhi ..	268	1,298	7,787	4,370	551	7,463	43,752
TOTAL	1,019,404	6,568,970	1,804,862	1,469,467	1,822,500	4,922,292	51,303,548

* Includes the area irrigated at both harvests.

† Includes 35,900 acres for which details are not available.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	FOOD GRAINS				
	Rice	Wheat	Barley	Jowar or Cholam (Great Millet)	Bajra or Cumbu (Spiked Millet)
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	11,285,924	30,127	3,331	5,255,463	3,077,568
Bombay	3,958,388	2,028,426	42,360	8,720,166	4,043,729
Bengal	21,778,300	124,800	83,500	4,400	2,700
United Provinces	7,016,142	7,006,676	4,338,427	2,270,313	2,346,585
Punjab	928,736	9,620,291	1,172,880	96,439	3,114,881
Burma	11,287,873	81,652		893,194	
Bihar and Orissa	1,250,100	1,205,904	1,406,100	74,500	53,900
Central Provinces and Berar	5,143,582	1,007,323	17,514	4,120,507	146,071
Assam	4,624,064				
North West Frontier Province	23,785	1,122,013	270,195	60,345	142,518
Ajmer Merwara and Manipur Pargana Coorg	86 84,602	17,263	48,677	53,001	24,691
Delhi	44	49,008	19,227	25,610	63,005
TOTAL	60,576,926	24,407,600	7,401,220	22,844,618	13,921,669

Provinces	FOOD GRAINS				
	Ragi or Munja (Millet)	Maize	Gram (pulse)	Other Food Grains and Pulses	Total
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	2,582,618	127,147	126,804	6,454,897	8,943,879
Bombay	636,289	212,104	787,946	2,744,816	23,173,244
Bengal	5,000	78,400	140,600	1,026,000	21,249,300
United Provinces	168,642	1,870,019	7,121,417	6,605,097	38,868,718
Punjab	27,867	1,123,107	5,427,576	1,367,010	23,787,852
Burma		216,452	207,058	257,901	12,947,130
Bihar and Orissa	820,500	1,609,400	1,541,500	5,213,800	27,365,700
Central Provinces and Berar	18,005	160,014	1,103,726	4,841,273	18,064,004
Assam			*	183,033	4,807,097
North-West Frontier Province		440,908	220,078	71,011	2,361,883
Ajmer Merwara and Manipur Pargana Coorg	78 3,896	69,812	13,526 241	40,341 1,020	272,775 89,829
Delhi	85	2,280	84,825	13,003	96,893
TOTAL	4,992,040	5,954,663	16,776,866	28,489,277	205,027,318

* Included under "Other Food Grains and Pulses."

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	OIL-SEEDS							Total
	Linseed.	Sesamum (oil or linjili).	Rape and Mustard	Ground- nut.	Cocon- nut	Castor	Other Oil- Seeds.	
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres.
Madras ..	6,505	732,631	40,992	1,754,384	543,263	327,131	152,092	3,556,984
Bombay	148,079	224,188	266,108	329,679	50,676	63,843	188,824	1,270,886
Bengal	128,700	156,100	752,700	500	500		24,900	11,061,500
United Provinces	281,711	197,960	121,294	6,729		3,567	14,766	626,027
Punjab	81,859	156,325	1,286,029			162	3,292	1,477,667
Burma	479	885,443	2,504	332,477	12,611		7,829	1,241,848
Bihar and Orissa	745,800	187,700	517,700	200	28,500	37,200	299,100	2,116,200
Central Provinces and Berar	1,019,496	576,861	55,388	18,024		45,061	325,814	2,040,664
Assam	11,488	17,774	315,002			5,100		349,364
North West Frontier Province	54	3,675	144,533			2	13	148,177
Ajmer Merwara and Munpur Pargana	484	16,429	677				328	17,918
Coorg		410	12				15	437
Delhi		51	6,247				128	6,426
TOTAL	2,372,649	3,155,442	3,809,186	2,441,943	635,650	431,586	1,017,101	13,913,557

Provinces.	Condi- ments & Spices	Sugar Cane	Sugar Others †	FIBRES			
				Cotton	Jute	Other fibres	Total.
	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	744,700	131,095	80,800	2,322,928		162,203	2,485,131
Bombay	198,934	63,896	3,837	3,977,158		107,819	4,084,977
Bengal	174,800	200,600	61,000	54,500	1,196,500	77,600	1,828,800
United Provinces	113,737	1,349,981		645,938		124,610	770,548
Punjab	29,958	496,595		1,273,051		48,911	1,821,062
Burma	112,718	31,542	21,522	283,631		1,063	285,594
Bihar and Orissa	64,600	305,500	200	79,900	160,000	33,200	273,100
Central Provinces and Berar	84,473	19,274		4,856,871		99,228	4,956,097
Assam		42,472		40,211	89,027		130,138
North-West Frontier Province	1,478	39,342		15,108		595	15,703
Ajmer-Merwara and Munpur Pargana	3,489	237		36,436		207	36,643
Coorg	3,770	39		4		244	248
Delhi	1,116	8,948		2,084		767	2,851
TOTAL ..	1,533,779	2,686,632	166,859	13,587,820	1,446,427	657,545	15,501,892

† Area under sugar-yielding plants other than sugarcane.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Dyes and Tanning materials.		Drugs and Narcotics.					Fodder Crops.
	Indigo.	Others	Opium.	Tea.	Coffee.	Tobacco	(c) Other Drugs and Narcotics	
	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	141,316	4,990		48,039	55,979	213,689	131,979	347,573
Bombay	2,790	576,812		21	48	102,438	23,504	1,989,096
Bengal	7,300			176,900		298,600	4,700	103,000
United Provinces	89,073	765	145,199	6,376		89,427	3,468	1,218,289
Punjab	50,492	4,418	1,992	9,801		55,520	1,613	4,230,591
Burma	709			55,433	75	111,339	67,265	238,461
Bihar and Orissa	35,400	7,100		2,100		119,300		48,500
Central Provinces & Berar	13	166				23,964	2,557	439,355
Assam				412,599		6,756		
North West Frontier Province	20					8,532		72,488
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	16					58		4,624
Coorg				1,075	40,904	13	237	
Delhi	3					1,056		29,465
TOTAL	277,132	596,251	147,191	710,244	97,006	1,032,687	210,323	8,711,642

Provinces	Fruits and Vegetables including Root Crops	Miscellaneous Crops		Total Area Sown	Deduct Area Sown more than once	Net Area Sown
		Food	Non-Food			
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	676,892	48,403	153,552	37,762,471	4,785,356	32,997,115
Bombay	554,305	3,456	40,145	32,095,337	1,415,953	30,679,484
Bengal	660,800	302,000	120,300	27,749,600	4,107,500	23,642,100
United Provinces	469,229	127,311	7,025	44,167,549	8,552,569	35,614,977
Punjab	296,781	69,488	4,127	31,788,857	4,828,202	26,960,655
Burma	1,496,517	23,844	194,657	16,815,049	508,414	16,315,635
Bihar and Orissa	724,900	549,100	302,500	31,914,200	6,275,100	25,639,100
Central Provinces & Berar	114,346	2,742	722	26,645,671	2,412,367	24,233,304
Assam	476,546	(a)	136,026	6,362,998	525,205	5,837,793
North West Frontier Province	33,224	33,765	1,231	2,720,243	379,918	2,340,325
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	1,024	6,522	3,623	346,929	23,391	318,538
Coorg	4,880			141,532	1,916	139,616
Delhi	5,232	344	560	312,338	87,441	224,897
TOTAL	5,319,679	1,166,975	964,368	258,828,621	33,888,832	224,945,489

(a) Included under non-food crops

(b) Includes 343,326 acres in Maini Tal and Almora for which details are not available.

(c) Include figures for Cinchona and Indian hemp

The following is a summary of the various crop forecasts relating to the season 1923-24 issued by the Commercial Intelligence Department, India —

Crop and Forecast	Tracts comprised in the figures and percentage of total Indian crop represented by them.	Estimated Area	Per cent. of preceding year (100 = figure of same date preceding year)	Estimated outturn.	Per cent. of preceding year (100 = figure of same date preceding year)
Jute*	Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam (106 per cent of the total Jute area in India)	Acres 2,743,000	98	Acres 8,044,000	95
Sugarcane	U P, † Punjab Bihar and Orissa Bengal, Madras, Bombay and Sind, † Assam, N W F Province, C P and Berar, Delhi, Mysore and Baroda (99 per cent of total sugarcane area of British India)	2,016,000 (a)	106	3,265,000 tons (a)	107
Cotton	All cotton growing tracts	2,008,000	100	5,075,000 bales	100
Sesamum	Burma, U Provinces, Madras (C P and Berar Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay and Sind† Punjab, Ajmer Merwara Hyderabad Kotah (Rajputana) and Baroda (99.6 per cent of total sesamum area of British India)	5,018,000	100	441,000 tons	90
Indigo	Madras, United Provinces Bihar and Orissa, Punjab, Bombay and Sind† and Bengal, (containing practically the whole area under indigo in British India)	1,00,400	61	46,100 cwt.	60
Rice	Bengal, Bihar and Orissa Madras Burma, United Provinces, † C P and Berar, † Assam Bombay, and Sind†, Coorg, Mysore Hyderabad and Baroda (99 per cent of total rice area of British India)	78,227,000	90	28,208,000 tons	84
Groundnut	Madras, Burma and Bombay † (99 per cent of total Groundnut area of British India)	2,704,000	104	1,074,000 tons	87
Linseed	Central Provinces and Berar, † United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal Bombay, † Punjab Kotah (Rajputana) and Hyderabad (99.1 per cent of the total linseed area of British India.)	4,730,000	110	462,000 tons	87
Rape and Mustard	United Provinces, Bengal, Punjab, Bihar, and Orissa, Assam, Bombay† North West Frontier Province, Delhi, Baroda, Alwar (Rajputana) and Hyderabad (98.7 per cent of the total area under Rape and Mustard in British India)	6,134,000	95	1,134,000 tons	16
Wheat	Punjab † United Provinces, † Central Provinces and Berar, † Bombay and Sind, † Bihar and Orissa, North West Frontier Province, Bengal, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Central India, Gwalior, Rajputana, Hyderabad Baroda and Mysore over (98 per cent of the total wheat acreage of India).	31,178,000	101	27,740,000 tons	98

* Issued by the Director of Agriculture, Bengal and refers to the season 1924-25.

(a) Subsequently revised.

† Including Indian States.

The chief characteristics of the Indian rainfall are its unequal distribution over the country, its irregular distribution throughout the seasons, and its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The normal annual rainfall varies from 450 inches at Cherrapunji in the Assam hills to less than three inches in Upper Sind. The greatest rainfall actually measured at any station in any one year was 915 inches, recorded at Cherrapunji in 1861, while at stations in Upper Sind it has been nil. There are thus portions of the country which suffer as much from excessive rainfall as others do from drought.

The second important characteristic of the rainfall is its unequal distribution throughout the seasons. Except in the south-east of the peninsula, where the heaviest precipitation is received from October to December by far the greater portion of the rain falls during the south-west monsoon, between June and October. During the winter months the rainfall is comparatively small, the normal amount varying from half an inch to two inches, while the hot weather, from March to May or June, is practically rainless. Consequently it happens that in one season of the year the greater part of India is deluged with rain and is the scene of the most wonderful and rapid growth of vegetation, in another period the same tract becomes a dreary, sun-burnt waste. The transition from the latter to the former stage often occurs in a few days. From the agricultural point of view the most unsatisfactory feature of the Indian rainfall is its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The average annual rainfall over the whole country is about 45 inches and there is but little variation from this average from year to year, the greatest recorded being only about seven inches. But if separate tracts are considered extraordinary variations are found. At many stations annual rainfalls of less than half the average are not uncommon, while at some less than a quarter of the normal amount has been recorded in a year of extreme drought.

Scarcity—(classing a year in which the deficiency is 25 per cent as a dry year and one in which it is 40 per cent as a year of severe drought, the examination of past statistics shows that, over the precarious area, one year in five may be expected to be a dry year and one in ten a year of severe drought. It is largely in order to remove the menace of these years that the great irrigation systems of India have been constructed.

Government Works—The Government irrigation works of India may be divided into two main classes, those provided with artificial storage, and those dependent, throughout the year on the natural supplies of the rivers from which they have their origin. In actual fact, practically every irrigation work depends upon storage of one kind or another but, in many cases, this is provided by nature without man's assistance. In Northern India, upon the Himalayan rivers, and in Madras, where the cold weather rains are even heavier than those of the south-west monsoon, the principal non-storage systems are found.

The expedient of storing water in the monsoon for utilisation during the subsequent dry weather has been practised in India from time immemorial.

In their simplest form, such storage works consist of an earthen embankment constructed across a valley or depression, behind which the water collects, and those under Government control range from small tanks irrigating only a few acres each to the huge reservoirs now under construction in the Deccan which will be capable of storing over 20,000 million cubic feet of water. By gradually escaping water from a work of the latter type, a supply can be maintained long after the river on which the reservoir is situated would otherwise be dry and useless.

The Three Classes—For the purpose of determining the source from which the funds for the construction of Government works are provided, they are divided into three classes, productive, protective and minor works. The main criterion to be satisfied before a work can be classed as productive is that it shall, within ten years of the completion of construction, produce sufficient revenue to cover its working expenses and the interest charges on its capital cost. Most of the largest irrigation systems in India belong to the productive class.

Protective works are constructed primarily with a view to the protection of precarious tracts and to guard against the necessity for periodical expenditure on the relief of the population in times of famine. They are financed from the current revenues of India, generally from the annual grant for famine relief and insurance, and are not directly remunerative, the construction of each such work being separately justified by a comparison of the value of each acre protected (based upon such factors as the probable cost of famine relief, the population of the tract the area already protected and the minimum area which must be protected in order to tide over a period of severe drought) with the cost of such protection. A sum of Rs. 1,173 lakhs has, up to date, been expended on works of this nature.

It is difficult to define the class of minor works otherwise than by saying that works not classified either as productive or protective are classed as minor works. Nearly a third of the whole area irrigated in India from Government works is effected by these minor works.

Growth of Irrigation—There has, during the last forty years, been a steady growth in the area irrigated by Government irrigation works. From 10½ million acres in 1878-79 the area annually irrigated rose to 19½ million acres at the beginning of the century and to 28 million acres in 1919-20, the record year up to that date. This record was, however, again surpassed in the year 1922-23 when the total area irrigated by all classes of works in India, excluding the Indian States, amounted to 28½ million acres. The main increase has been in the class of productive works which irrigated 4½ million acres in 1878-79, 10½ million acres in 1920-01 and over 18½ million acres in 1922-23. The area irrigated by protective works has increased, in the same period, from nil to over three-quarters of a million acres, that by minor works from 6 million to 8½ million acres.

Some idea of the probable future development of irrigation can be obtained from the forecasts appended to the project estimates of the works now under construction and awaiting sanction. The irrigated area in 1922-23 was over

28 million acres Schemes completed but which have not yet reached their full development are expected to add about 100,000 acres to this total while works under construction will further enhance it by 2½ million acres. Projects have also been submitted to the Secretary of State for sanction which, if constructed, will add another 4½ million acres, a total eventual area in British India of about 86 million acres is thus at present contemplated from works sanctioned or awaiting sanction, irrespective of the natural extension of existing areas and of new projects, of which several are under consideration, which may be put forward in future.

The figures given are exclusive of the areas irrigated from the Punjab canals by branches constructed for Indian States, which amounted in 1919-20 to 650,000 acres. The Sutlej Valley scheme will add nearly 3½ million acres to this area, so that a gross total of some 40 million acres from Government works is confidently looked for.

Capital and Revenue.—The total capital invested in the works has risen from Rs 4 236 lakhs in 1900-01 to Rs 8,457 lakhs in 1922-23, an average increase of Rs 180 lakhs a year. As regards revenue, the Government irrigation works of India, taken as a whole, yield a return of from 7 to 8 per cent on the capital invested in them, this is a satisfactory result as Rs 1,173 lakhs of the total have been spent on protective works, which return less than 1 per cent, and Rs 7.03 lakh on minor works, the yield from which varies between 4 and 6 per cent. The capital outlay also includes expenditure on a number of large works under construction, which have not yet commenced to earn revenue.

Charges for Water.—The charges for water are levied in different ways in the various provinces. In some, notably in Sind, the ordinary land revenue assessment includes also the charge for water, 9/10ths of this assessment being regarded as due to the canals. In others as in parts of Madras and Bombay, different rates of land revenue are assessed according to whether the land is irrigated or not, and the assessment upon irrigated land includes also the charge for water. These methods may however be regarded as exceptional. Over the greater part of India water is paid for separately, the area actually irrigated is measured and a rate is charged per acre according to the crop grown. Lower rates are often levied in cases where irrigation is by lift, that is to say where the land is too high for the water to

The results obtained in each province are given in

flow on to it by gravity and consequently the cultivator has to lift it on to his field.

Various other methods of assessment have been tried, such as by renting outlets for an annual sum, or by charging according to the volume of the water used, but these have never been successful. The cultivator fully understands the principle of "No crops, no charge," which is now followed as far as possible in canal administration, but has no confidence in a system under which his liability for water rate is independent of the area and quality of his crop.

The rates charged vary considerably with the crop grown, and are different in each province and often upon the several canals in a single province. Thus in the Punjab, they vary from Rs 7-8-0 to Rs 12 per acre for sugar-cane, from Rs 4 to Rs 7 8-0 per acre for rice, from Rs 1-4-0 to Rs 5-4-0 per acre for wheat, from Rs 3 to Rs 4-4-0 per acre for cotton and from Rs 2 to Rs 3-4-0 per acre for millets and pulses. No extra charge is made for additional waterings. Practically speaking Government guarantees sufficient water for the crop and gives it as available. If the crop fails to mature or if its yield is much below normal either the whole or part of the irrigation assessment is remitted.

A somewhat different system, the long lease system is in force in parts of Bengal and the Central Provinces under which the cultivators pay a small rate for a term of years whether they take water or not. In these provinces where the normal rainfall is fairly high it is always a question whether irrigation will be necessary at all and if the cultivators have to pay the full rate, they are apt to hold off until water becomes absolutely essential, and the sudden and universal demand then usually exceeds the supply. By paying a reduced rate every year for a term of years they become entitled to water when required, consequently there is no temptation to wait till the last possible moment and the demand is much more evenly distributed throughout the season.

Taken as a whole, irrigation is offered on extremely easy terms and the water rates represent only a very small proportion of the extra profit which the cultivator secures owing to the water he receives.

Irrigated Areas.—The average area irrigated in British India by Government works of all classes was 28½ million acres in 1922-23 as compared with 27½ million acres the average of the previous triennium. The area of 1922-23 is the record area irrigated in any one year up to date.

The table below—

Provinces	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1919-22	Area irrigated in 1922-23
Madras	7 40 80½	7 43 50½
Bombay (Deccan)	418 130	440 388
Sind	3,249,503	3,631 069
Bengal	109,907	104,580
United Provinces	3,166,910	2,618,641
Punjab	9,954,877	10,727,073
Burma	1,187,746	1,628 106
Bihar and Orissa	991,660	924 018
Central Provinces	368 150	417,751
North-West Frontier Province	389,068	423 426
Rajputana	24 907	18 503
Baluchistan	19 644	24,008
Total	27,584,343	28,329,049

Province.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1915-18	Average area irrigated in triennium 1919-21
Madras	3,733,100	3,591,394
Bombay Deccan	180,321	203,550
Sind	2,160,566	1,900,391
Bengal	26,878	21,449
United Provinces	152,480	158,223
Punjab	1,013,959	792,211
Burma	1,002,691	1,147,984
Bihar and Orissa	1,377	2,414
Central Provinces	16,444	28,942
Rajputana	22,992	20,947
Baluchistan	9,489	19,776
Total	8,410,297	7,887,261

Province	Net area cropped	Area irrigated by Government irrigation works	Percentage of area irrigated to total cropped area	Capital cost of Government irrigation works to end of 1920-21 in lakhs of rupees	Estimated value of crops raised on areas receiving State irrigation in lakhs of rupees
Madras	37,762,000	7,336,000	19.4	1,190	1,802*
Bombay Deccan	24,032,000	416,000	1.9	831	465
Sind	4,198,000	3,611,000	86.7	391	1,202
Bengal	23,642,000	101,000	0.4	399	72
United Provinces	35,207,000	2,619,000	7.5	1,465	1,676
Punjab	31,789,000	10,728,000	33.7	2,169	4,911
Burma	14,392,000	1,628,000	11.3	3.6	719
Bihar and Orissa	2,058,000	924,000	4.6	627	884
Central Provinces	17,107,000	418,000	2.4	460	279
North-West Frontier Province	2,720,000	423,000	15.5	284	291
Rajputana	250,000	19,000	7.6	35	7
Baluchistan	210,000	21,000	10.0	44	8
Total	217,497,000	28,330,000	13.0	8,457	14,336

Projects.—At the close of the triennium three projects, for the Sukkur Barrage and Canals in Sind, for the Sutlej Valley Canals in the Punjab and for the Damodar Canal in Bengal, were open. The Sukkur Barrage when completed, will be the greatest work of its kind in the world, measuring 4,725 feet between the faces of the regulators on either side. The total cost of the scheme is estimated at Rs. 1,885 lakhs, of which the barrage accounts for about Rs. 550 lakhs and the canals for Rs. 1,285 lakhs. A gross area of 7½ million acres is commanded, of which 6½ million acres is culturable and an annual area of irrigation of 5½ million acres is anticipated, of which 2 million acres represents existing inundation irrigation which will be given an assured supply by the new canals. The ultimate annual net revenue forecasted as obtainable from the project, after paying working expenses, is Rs. 194 lakhs, which represents a return of 10½ per cent on capital. This is the return from water rates alone, but a further large increase in general revenues may safely be reckoned upon from the area of 3 million acres of waste which will be brought under cultivation. There will be increases on this account under practically every head of revenue, such as railways, customs, stamps, excise and the like, not to mention the addition to the country's wealth owing to the production, on land at present barren, of crops to the value of Rs. 2,500 lakhs per annum.

The Sutlej Valley Project consists of four weirs, three on the Sutlej and one on the Panjnad, as the Chenab is called below its junction with the Sutlej, with twelve canals taking off from above them. The total area to be irrigated from the project is 5,108,000 acres, or nearly 8,000 square miles. Of this, 2,075,000 acres will be perennial and 3,033,000 acres non perennial irrigation. 1,042,000 acres will be in British territory, 2,825,000 acres in Bahawalpur and 341,000 acres in Bikaner.

The total cost of the project is estimated at Rs. 1,460 lakhs. Upon this a return of 12½ per cent is anticipated from water rates alone. But the scheme has another, and even more important source of revenue. On the introduction of irrigation, no less than 3½ million acres of desert waste, the property of the three parties concerned, at present valueless, will become available for colonisation and sale. It is customary, in the *pro-forma* accounts of irrigation projects to credit a scheme with the interest on the sale proceeds of Crown waste lands rendered culturable by its construction. If this is included, the annual return on the project will amount to nearly 38 per cent. It bids fair, indeed, to rival the Lower Chenab Canal, the return from which during the past seven years has averaged over 41 per cent.

WELLS AND TANKS.

So far we have dealt only with the great irrigation schemes. They are essentially exotic, the products of British rule, the real eastern instrument is the well. The most recent figures give thirty per cent of the irrigated area in India as being under wells. Moreover the well is an extremely efficient instrument of irrigation. When the cultivator has to raise every drop of water which he uses from a varying depth, he is more careful in the use of it, well water exerts at least three times as much duty as canal water. Again, owing to the cost of lifting, it is generally used for high grade crops. It is estimated that well-irrigated lands produce at least one-third more than canal watered lands. Although the huge areas brought under cultivation by a single canal scheme tend to reduce the disproportion between the two systems it must be remembered that the spread of canals increases the possibilities of well irrigation by adding, through seepage, to the store of subsoil water and raising the level.

Varieties of Wells.—Wells in India are of every description. They may be just holes in the ground, sunk to subsoil level, used to a year or two and then allowed to fall into decay. These are temporary or kacha wells. Or they may be lined with timber, or with brick or stone. They vary from the kaucha well costing a few rupees to the masonry well, which will run into thousands, or in the sandy wastes of Bikanir, where the water level is three hundred feet below the surface, to still more. The means of raising the water vary in equal degree. There is the *piezometer*, or weighted lever, raising a bucket at the end of a pivoted pole, just as it is done on the banks of the Nile. This is rarely

used for lifts beyond fifteen feet. For greater lifts bullock power is invariably used. This is generally harnessed to the *mot*, or leather bag, which is passed over a pulley overhanging the well, then raised by bullocks who walk down a ramp of a length approximating to the depth of the well. Sometimes the *mot* is just a leather bag, more often it is a self acting arrangement, which discharges the water into a sump automatically on reaching the surface. By this means from thirty to forty gallons of water are raised at a time, and in its simplicity, and the ease with which the apparatus can be constructed and repaired by village labour, the *mot* is unsurpassed in efficiency. There is also the Persian wheel, an endless chain of earthenware pots running round a wheel. Recently attempts have been made, particularly in Madras, to substitute mechanical power, furnished by oil engines, for the bullock. This has been found economical where the water supply is sufficiently large, especially where two or three wells can be linked. Government have systematically encouraged well irrigation by advancing funds for the purpose and exempting well watered lands from extra assessment due to improvement. These advances, termed *takari*, are freely made to approved applicants, the general rate of interest being 6½ per cent. In Madras and Bombay ryots who construct wells, or other works of agricultural improvement, are exempt from enhanced assessment on that account. In other provinces the exemption lasts for specific periods, the term generally being long enough to recoup the owner the capital sunk.

Tanks.—Next to the well, the indigenous instrument of irrigation is the tank. The village

or the roadside tank is one of the most conspicuous features in the Indian scene. The Indian tank may be any size. It may vary from a great work like Lakes Fife and Whiting in the Bombay Presidency or the Periyar Lake in Travancore, holding up from four to seven billion cubic feet of water, and spreading their waters through great chains of canal, to the little village tank irrigating ten acres. They date back to a very early stage in Indian civilisation. Some of these works in Madras are of great size, holding from three to four billion cubic feet, with water spreads of nine miles. The inscriptions of two large tanks in the Chingleput district of Madras, which still irrigate from two to four thousand acres are said to be over 1,100 years old. Tank irrigation is practically unknown in the Punjab and in Sind, but it is found in some form or other in all other provinces, including Burma, and finds its highest development in Madras. In the ryotwari tracts of Bombay and Madras all but the smallest tanks are controlled by Government. In the zamindari tracts only the large tanks are

State works. According to the latest figures the area irrigated from tanks is about eight million acres, but in many cases the supply is extremely precarious. So far from tanks being a refuge in famine they are often quite useless inasmuch as the rainfall does not suffice to fill them and they remain dry throughout the season.

Bibliography.—Triennial Review of Irrigation in India, 1918-1921. Calcutta, Superintendent of Government Printing. Price Five Rupees. The annual irrigation reports in India used to be as arid as the Sahara consisting of a dull statistical record. They have been greatly improved of recent years and have now assumed a quite satisfactory form. The major review appears once every three years, and consists not only of an admirable summary of the work of the triennium, but of a well illustrated history of the progress of irrigation in India from the earliest times. The first of these triennial reviews was issued in 1922. Between the triennial reviews there is issued a briefer statement recording the progress of each particular year.

Meteorology.

The meteorology of India like that of other countries is largely a result of its geographical position. The great land area of Asia to the northward and the enormous sea expanse of the Indian Ocean to the southward are determining factors in settling its principal meteorological features. When the Northern Hemisphere is turned away from the sun, in the northern winter, Central Asia becomes an area of intense cold. The meteorological conditions of the temperate zone are pushed southward and we have over the northern provinces of India the westerly winds and eastward moving cyclonic storms of temperate regions, while, when the Northern Hemisphere is turned towards the sun, Southern Asia becomes a super-heated region drawing towards it an immense current of air which carries with it the enormous volume of water vapour which it has picked up in the course of its long passage over the wide expanse of the Indian Ocean, so that at one season of the year parts of India are deluged with rain and at another persistent dry weather prevails.

Monsoons.—The all important fact in the meteorology of India is the alternation of the seasons known as the summer and winter monsoons. During the winter monsoon the winds are of continental origin and hence, dry, fine weather, clear skies, low humidity and little air movement are the characteristic features of this season. The summer rains cease in the provinces of the North-West Frontier Province and the Punjab about the middle of September after which cool westerly and northerly winds set in over that area and the weather becomes fresh and pleasant. These fine weather conditions extend slowly eastward and southward so that by the middle of October, they embrace all parts of the country except the southern half of the Peninsula, and by the end of the year have extended to the whole of the Indian land and sea area, the rains withdrawing to the Equatorial Belt. Thus the characteristics of the cold weather from October to February

over India are—Westerly winds of the temperate zone over the extreme north of India, to the south of these the north-east winds of the winter monsoon or perhaps more properly the north-east Trades and a gradually extending area of fine weather which, as the season progresses, finally embraces the whole Indian land and sea area. Two exceptions to these fine weather conditions exist during this period, viz., the Madras coast and the north-west of India. In the former region the north-east winds which set in over the Bay of Bengal in October coalesce with the damp winds of the retreating summer monsoon, which current curves round over the Bay of Bengal, and, blowing directly on to the Madras coast gives to that region the wettest and most disturbed weather of the whole year, for while the total rainfall for the four months June to September, i.e., the summer monsoon, at the Madras Observatory amounts to 15.80 inches the total rainfall for the three months October to December amounts to 29.48 inches. The other region in which the weather is unsettled, during this period of generally settled conditions, is North-west India. This region during January, February and part of March is traversed by a succession of shallow storms from the westward. The number and character of these storms vary very largely from year to year and in some years no storms at all are recorded. In normal years, however, in Northern India periods of fine weather alternate with periods of disturbed weather (occurring during the passage of these storms) and light to moderate and even heavy rain occurs. In the case of Peshawar the total rainfall for the four months, December to March, amounts to 5.2 inches while the total fall for the four months, June to September, is 4.78 inches, showing that the rainfall of the winter is, absolutely, greater in this region than that of the summer monsoon. These two periods of subsidiary 'rains' are of the greatest economic importance. The fall in Madras is, as shown above, of considerable

actual amount, while that of North-west India though small in absolute amount is of the greatest consequence as on it largely depend the grain and wheat crops of Northern India.

Spring Months—March to May and part of June form a period of rapid continuous increase of temperature and decrease of barometric pressure throughout India. During this period there occurs a steady transference northward of the area of greatest heat. In March the maximum temperatures, slightly exceeding 100° , occur in the Deccan, in April the area of maximum temperature, between 100° and 105° , lies over the south of the Central Provinces and Gujarat, in May maximum temperatures varying between 105° and 110° prevail over the greater part of the interior of the country while in June the highest mean maximum temperatures exceeding 110° occur in the Indus Valley near Jacobabad. Temperatures exceeding 120° have been recorded over a wide area including Sind, Rajputana, the West and South Punjab and the west of the United Provinces, but the highest temperature hitherto recorded is 126° registered at Jacobabad on June 12th, 1897. During this period of rising temperature and diminishing barometric pressure, great alterations take place in the air movements over India, including the disappearance of the north-east winds of the winter monsoon, and the air circulation over India and its adjacent seas, becomes a local circulation, characterised by strong hot winds down the river valleys of Northern India and increasing land and sea winds in the coast regions. These land and sea winds, as they become stronger and more extensive, initiate large contrasts of temperature and humidity which result in the production of violent local storms. These take the forms of dust storms in the dry plains of Northern India and of thunder and hailstorms in regions where there is interaction between damp sea winds and dry winds from the interior. These storms are frequently accompanied with winds of excessive force, heavy hail and torrential rain and are on that account very destructive.

By the time the area of greatest heat has been established over North west India, in the last week of May or first of June, India has become the seat of low barometric pressures relatively to the adjacent seas and the whole character of the weather changes. During the hot weather period, discussed above, the winds and weather are mainly determined by local conditions. Between the Equator and Lat. 30° or 35° south the wind circulation is that of the south-east trades, that is to say from about Lat. 20° - 35° south a wind from south-east blows over the surface of the sea up to about the equator. Here the air rises into the upper strata to flow back again at a considerable elevation to the Southern Tropic or beyond. To the north of this circulation, i.e., between the Equator and Lat. 20° to 25° North, there exists a light unsteady circulation, the remains of the north-east trades, that is to say about Lat. 20° North there is a north-east wind which blows southward till it reaches the thermal equator where side by side with the south-east Trades mentioned above, the air rises into the upper strata of the atmosphere. Still further to the northward and in the im-

mediate neighbourhood of land there are the circulations due to the land and sea breezes which are attributable to the difference in the heating effect of the sun's rays over land and sea. It is now necessary to trace the changes which occur and lead up to the establishment of the south west monsoon period. The sun at this time is progressing slowly northward towards the northern Tropic. Hence the thermal equator is also progressing northward and with it the area of ascent of the south-east trades circulation. Thus the south-east trade winds cross the equator and advance further and further northward, as the thermal equator and area of ascent follows the sun in its northern progress. At the same time the temperature over India increases rapidly and barometric pressure diminishes, owing to the air rising and being transferred to neighbouring cooler regions—more especially the sea areas. Thus we have the southern Trades circulation extending northward and the local land and sea circulation extending southward until about the beginning of June the light unsteady interfering circulation over the Arabian Sea finally breaks up, the immense circulation of the south east trades, with its cool, moisture laden winds rushes forward, becomes linked on to the local circulation proceeding between the Indian land area and the adjacent seas and India is invaded by oceanic conditions—the south west monsoon proper. This is the most important season of the year as upon it depends the prosperity of at least five-sixths of the people of India.

When this current is fully established a continuous air movement extends over the Indian Ocean, the Indian seas and the Indian land area from Lat. 30° S to Lat. 30° N, the southern half being the south east trades and the northern half the south-west monsoon. The most important fact about it is that it is a continuous horizontal air movement passing over an extensive oceanic area where steady evaporation is constantly in progress so that where the current enters the Indian seas and flows over the Indian land it is highly charged with aqueous vapour.

The Current enters the Indian seas quite at the commencement of June and in the course of the succeeding two weeks spreads over the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal up to their extreme northern limits. It advances over India from these two seas. The Arabian Sea current blows on to the west coast and sweeping over the Western Ghats prevails more or less exclusively over the Peninsula, Central India, Rajputana and north Bombay. The Bay of Bengal current blows directly up the Bay. One portion is directed towards Burma, East Bengal and Assam while another portion curves to south at the head of the Bay and over Bengal, and then meeting with the barrier of the Himalayas curves still further and blows as a south-easterly and easterly wind right up the Gangetic plain. The south west monsoon continues for three and a half to four months, viz., from the beginning of June to the middle or end of September. During its prevalence more or less general though far from continuous rain prevails throughout India, the principal features of the rainfall distribution being as follows. The greater

portion of the Arabian Sea current, the total volume of which is probably three times as great as that of the Bengal current, blows directly on to the west coast districts. Here it meets an almost continuous hill range, is forced into ascent and gives heavy rain alike to the coast districts and to the hilly range, the total averaging about 100 inches most of which falls in four months. The current after parting with most of its moisture advances across the Peninsula giving occasional uncertain rain to the Deccan and passes out into the Bay where it coalesces with the local current. The northern portion of the current blowing across the Gujarat, Kathiawar and Sind coasts gives a certain amount of rain to the coast districts and frequent showers to the Aravalli Hill range but very little to Western Rajputana, and passing onward gives moderate to heavy rain in the Eastern Punjab, Eastern Rajputana and the North west Himalayas. In this region the current meets and mixes with the monsoon current from the Bay.

The monsoon current over the southern half of the Bay of Bengal blows from south west and is thus directed towards the Tenasserim hills and up the valley of the Irrawaddy to which it gives very heavy to heavy rain. That portion of this current which advances sufficiently far northward to blow over Bengal and Assam gives very heavy rain to the low-lying districts of East Bengal and immediately thereafter coming under the influence of the Assam Hills is forced upwards and gives excessive rain (perhaps the heaviest in the world) to the southern face of these hills. The remaining portion of the Bay current advances from the southward over Bengal, is then deflected westward by the barrier of the Himalayas and gives general rain over the Gangetic plain and almost daily rain over the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Sikkim to Kashmir.

To the south of this easterly wind of the Bay current and to the north of the westerly wind of the Arabian Sea current there exists a debatable area running roughly from Hissar in the Punjab through Agra, Allahabad and part of Chota Nagpur to Orissa, where neither current of the monsoon prevails. In this area the rainfall is uncertain and would probably be light, but that the storms from the Bay of Bengal exhibit a marked tendency to advance along this track and to give it heavy falls of occasional rain.

The Total Rainfall of the monsoon period (June to September) is 100 inches over part of the west coast, the amount diminishes eastward, is below 20 inches over a large part of the centre and east of the Peninsula and is only 5 inches in South Madras. It is over 100 inches on the Tenasserim and South Burma coast and decreases to 20 inches in Upper Burma, it is over 100 in the north Assam Valley and diminishes steadily westward and is only 5 inches in the Indus Valley.

The month to month distribution for the whole of India is —

May	26	inches.
June	83	"
July	119	"
August	105	"
September	72	"
October	83	"

Cyclonic storms and cyclones are an almost invariable feature of the monsoon period. In the Arabian Sea they ordinarily form at the commencement and end of the season, viz., May and November, but in the Bay they form a constantly recurring feature of the monsoon season. The following gives the total number of storms recorded during the period 1877 to 1901 and shows the monthly distribution —

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June
Bay of Bengal				1	4	13
	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Bay of Bengal	41	36	45	34	22	8
Arabian Sea	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June
				2	15	
Arabian Sea	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
	3		1	1	5	

The preceding paragraphs give an account of the normal procession of the seasons throughout India during the year, but it must be remembered, that every year produces variations from the normal, and that in some years these variations are very large. This is more particularly the case with the discontinuous element rainfall. The most important variations in this element which may occur are —

- (1) Delay in the commencement of the rains over a large part of the country, this being most frequent in North Bombay and North west India.
- (2) A prolonged break in July or August or both.
- (3) Early termination of the rains, which may occur in any part of the country.
- (4) The determination throughout the monsoon period of more rain than usual to one part and less than usual to another part of the country. Examples of this occur every year.

About the middle of September fine and fresh weather begins to appear in the extreme north west of India. This area of fine weather and dry winds extends eastward and southward, the area of rainy weather at the same time contracting till by the end of October the rainy area has retreated to Madras and the south of the Peninsula and by the end of December has disappeared from the Indian region, fine clear weather prevailing throughout. This procession with the numerous variations and modifications which are inseparable from meteorological conditions repeats itself year after year.

Average Monthly and Annual Means of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India.

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual Mean.
HILL STATIONS.														
Shillong	4,920	49.5	51.8	50.4	45.2	66.6	63.8	70.0	69.2	63.4	63.1	56.5	50.7	61.7
Darjeeling	7,376	40.1	41.6	49.7	56.2	58.3	59.9	61.5	60.9	59.4	65.2	47.8	41.8	52.7
Srinia	7,324	38.6	40.6	51.5	59.3	66.0	66.9	64.3	62.8	60.9	56.7	50.1	43.4	55.1
Mussoorie	6,335	40.5	41.1	51.1	61.2	68.3	72.3	69.4	67.2	65.9	61.3	52.8	45.0	68.0
Dehra Dun	5,204	30.7	33.0	45.1	55.7	63.9	69.9	73.0	70.8	64.0	53.2	44.0	36.3	53.3
Mount Abu	3,945	58.2	61.0	69.9	78.0	79.8	74.9	69.8	67.6	69.6	71.6	65.2	59.9	68.8
Ootacamund	7,327	54.0	55.5	68.8	61.5	61.3	68.2	56.9	57.4	67.3	57.2	65.4	54.3	57.3
Kodakanal	7,688	55.0	56.7	59.6	61.5	61.9	59.4	57.6	57.8	57.6	56.9	54.9	55.0	57.8
COAST STATIONS.														
Karachi	49	85.3	68.4	75.0	80.6	84.7	86.8	84.3	82.4	82.0	80.0	74.0	67.4	77.6
Veraval	18	69.4	70.2	74.0	79.1	81.5	82.5	80.0	79.1	79.0	79.5	77.2	72.3	77.0
Bombay	37	74.5	74.8	78.0	82.1	84.6	82.4	79.5	79.4	79.4	80.7	79.3	76.4	79.3
Rangoon	110	76.2	76.0	78.5	82.8	84.3	80.7	78.3	78.4	78.2	79.8	79.5	77.6	79.3
Madras	65	78.2	79.8	81.1	83.9	83.5	78.8	77.1	77.3	77.6	78.9	79.8	70.0	79.6
Calcutta	27	77.6	79.8	81.6	83.6	83.1	78.5	76.7	77.4	78.3	78.1	79.5	78.3	78.9
Kolkata	31	75.6	77.4	80.5	84.8	87.7	87.0	85.6	84.4	83.4	80.9	78.3	76.0	81.8
Madras	22	75.8	76.6	79.5	84.1	88.7	88.4	85.7	84.5	83.9	80.8	77.9	75.7	81.8
Madras	15	73.6	76.7	80.3	85.2	89.8	87.8	83.9	83.4	83.0	81.2	77.4	74.0	81.4
Madras	21	70.0	74.8	78.8	81.6	84.1	83.7	81.8	82.0	82.2	79.6	74.8	69.8	78.6
Madras	67	74.7	77.3	81.2	85.0	82.2	79.5	78.8	78.7	73.1	80.0	78.3	75.6	79.3

* As the average mean figures for Shillong, Ootacamund and Kodakanal are not available means of normal maximum and minimum temperatures uncorrected for diurnal variation are given

Average Monthly and Annual Means of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Mean.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.														
Tanjore	183	70.0	74.7	81.9	86.7	85.3	81.3	80.1	80.1	81.3	81.4	77.4	71.6	79.3
Madurai	260	68.8	73.8	82.1	89.2	88.5	85.4	84.7	84.7	83.5	82.5	75.9	69.5	80.6
Mysore	104	63.8	67.0	73.0	78.0	80.1	81.4	82.6	82.4	82.6	80.0	72.4	65.3	77.9
Chennai	21	65.2	70.3	79.3	85.0	85.7	84.5	83.0	82.4	82.6	80.0	72.4	65.3	77.9
Bombay	99	65.7	70.0	80.4	86.7	86.5	84.9	83.6	82.8	83.1	80.7	73.0	66.3	78.6
Poona	183	60.8	65.3	76.9	86.2	86.0	86.4	83.5	83.1	83.3	79.5	70.1	62.2	77.1
Bombay	207	60.0	65.3	76.8	86.8	86.8	84.1	83.1	83.0	83.0	77.9	67.8	60.2	77.2
Almora	303	59.5	64.9	76.8	87.6	92.5	90.8	84.5	83.2	83.0	77.8	67.5	59.8	77.3
Lucknow	368	68.7	63.7	75.2	86.4	90.6	90.2	85.3	83.4	83.2	77.1	66.3	58.9	76.6
Agra	555	60.1	64.8	76.7	88.1	94.0	93.4	86.0	84.2	84.2	79.4	68.7	61.2	78.4
Moradabad	738	56.0	60.1	71.1	82.7	88.4	89.4	85.0	83.2	81.7	74.7	63.6	56.7	74.4
Delhi	718	57.9	62.2	74.1	86.2	91.7	92.2	80.4	84.5	83.9	78.5	67.6	59.6	77.1
Lahore	702	53.0	57.3	69.0	80.9	88.9	93.0	89.1	87.1	84.8	75.7	63.2	54.6	74.7
Multan	420	55.6	59.8	71.6	82.9	91.4	94.9	92.7	90.4	88.0	78.6	67.1	57.7	77.5
Ferozepore	186	57.3	62.4	74.5	86.5	94.4	97.7	95.0	91.6	88.8	79.2	67.5	60.9	79.3
Hyderabad (Sind)	96	63.6	67.1	77.6	86.2	91.6	91.7	83.6	86.0	86.0	82.7	73.4	65.0	79.9
Bikaner	771	59.2	63.6	76.6	89.4	94.1	94.7	90.4	87.3	87.4	82.4	70.5	61.4	79.6
Rajkot	499	66.8	70.0	77.4	85.1	89.2	87.5	81.7	80.6	80.6	80.4	74.1	68.4	78.5
Amritsar	163	70.3	74.0	82.7	91.2	92.9	89.4	83.7	83.0	83.5	80.4	74.3	72.9	82.1
PLATEAU STATIONS.														
Atre	980	68.5	73.7	81.9	90.1	93.3	86.2	80.6	73.9	79.7	77.9	71.7	64.8	79.3
Jaipur	1,827	63.8	66.8	72.2	80.3	85.7	79.0	74.8	78.0	79.0	74.0	66.6	60.8	73.6
Bhopal	1,023	65.8	74.2	82.4	90.6	94.5	86.6	80.4	73.4	78.4	72.2	67.1	67.1	79.8
Bikaner	970	67.7	73.6	81.9	90.3	93.6	86.0	79.6	79.0	80.3	78.1	71.5	66.0	79.0
Almora	2,152	67.1	71.3	77.5	82.5	83.8	79.2	76.2	74.9	71.5	75.1	70.5	67.1	75.0
Poona	1,840	69.8	73.9	80.1	83.9	88.8	78.7	74.9	73.7	74.5	76.2	72.5	68.9	75.9
Shimla	1,590	72.7	77.7	84.2	88.4	88.9	81.8	78.9	77.7	77.3	77.7	74.6	71.3	79.3
Dehra Dun	2,539	69.8	73.0	77.5	79.2	79.0	72.8	70.1	69.7	70.4	72.9	70.9	69.3	72.8
Hyderabad (Deccan)	1,690	70.4	77.1	83.1	88.0	90.1	82.6	77.9	77.1	77.4	76.8	72.3	69.1	78.5
Bombay	3,021	67.5	72.0	76.7	79.9	78.5	74.0	72.0	71.8	71.8	69.6	67.5	67.5	72.8
Bombay	1,475	73.2	79.6	85.6	89.3	89.0	83.4	80.9	80.6	80.2	79.1	75.3	72.5	80.8

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Total.
HILL STATIONS														
Shillong	4,920	0.49	0.81	1.85	4.29	10.06	16.46	13.48	12.79	14.75	6.22	0.98	0.25	82.44
Darjeeling	7,876	0.76	1.08	2.01	4.08	7.83	24.19	31.74	25.98	18.34	5.35	0.34	0.20	131.80
Simla	7,224	3.21	3.07	2.48	2.82	3.71	7.84	18.42	17.87	6.17	1.19	0.41	1.28	67.87
Mussoorie	6,333	3.75	4.14	3.90	3.62	2.99	3.41	12.51	13.40	5.64	1.96	1.27	1.37	57.90
Dehra Dun	5,204	3.36	4.24	3.10	3.30	2.72	1.77	2.78	1.95	1.18	1.14	0.41	1.08	37.03
Mount Abu	2,945	0.27	0.31	0.15	0.08	0.97	5.59	22.05	21.51	9.18	1.46	0.28	0.24	62.49
Ootacamund	7,327	0.35	0.38	1.00	2.46	5.93	6.18	5.94	4.70	4.44	8.57	4.00	1.85	46.80
Kodaikanal	7,086	1.17	1.48	3.59	5.29	6.47	4.01	3.89	5.99	6.79	12.49	8.17	5.57	64.53
COAST STATIONS														
Kanabli	49	0.44	0.30	0.15	0.13	0.03	0.43	3.16	1.77	0.66	0.94	0.16	0.16	7.48
Venray	18	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.02	5.31	8.92	7.27	2.40	0.51	0.69	0.10	25.53
Bombay	37	0.12	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.55	20.56	24.56	14.01	10.93	1.76	0.47	0.05	73.99
Banagiri	110	0.40	0.02	0.05	0.15	1.27	31.32	34.25	20.19	12.53	3.62	0.65	0.08	104.71
Mangalore	65	0.13	0.07	0.11	2.06	7.26	33.47	37.39	23.83	11.09	7.90	1.97	0.50	129.53
Cuttack	27	0.17	0.14	0.79	3.70	9.04	36.46	29.36	14.39	7.36	9.12	3.80	1.32	114.30
Madras	31	1.15	0.72	0.32	1.02	1.81	1.30	1.74	3.29	2.45	10.08	15.02	11.23	51.33
Madras	22	0.83	0.28	0.37	0.65	1.98	2.06	3.80	4.66	4.94	10.93	13.30	5.25	45.94
Madras	15	0.17	0.16	0.26	0.40	1.34	4.33	5.67	6.09	6.56	8.38	4.43	0.53	35.30
Madras	21	0.23	0.43	0.56	0.73	2.01	5.76	6.11	7.20	6.86	9.84	3.50	0.72	43.95
Madras	67	0.11	0.23	0.16	1.74	11.73	18.30	21.37	19.65	15.99	7.12	2.53	0.07	96.99

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Total.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.														
Tongoo	183	0.06	0.12	0.08	1.90	6.48	13.63	17.48	18.53	11.46	6.95	1.25	0.16	78.05
Mandlay	250	0.06	0.08	0.21	1.19	5.28	6.71	3.26	4.16	6.21	4.54	1.87	0.28	32.63
Bachar	104	0.64	2.32	7.93	13.56	15.72	20.39	19.60	13.95	6.40	1.31	1.31	0.54	121.43
Calcutta	21	0.29	1.02	1.14	1.54	5.60	11.04	12.31	12.69	10.40	3.67	0.63	0.31	60.83
Bardwan	99	0.38	0.89	1.24	2.20	5.56	10.17	12.32	11.49	8.59	3.93	0.64	0.13	57.54
Bahra	183	0.72	0.53	0.38	0.30	1.70	7.76	11.41	10.72	7.82	2.89	0.30	0.14	44.54
Bahra	267	0.74	0.51	0.38	0.15	0.56	5.45	12.54	11.19	6.54	2.24	0.17	0.17	40.59
Alibabad	309	0.82	0.49	0.38	0.14	0.29	5.04	12.24	10.93	6.32	2.40	0.25	0.23	39.33
Lucknow	268	0.90	0.45	0.32	0.11	0.91	5.34	11.39	11.32	6.61	1.33	0.08	0.44	39.30
Agia	566	0.56	0.33	0.25	0.16	0.64	2.84	9.67	7.11	4.41	0.39	0.06	0.29	26.70
Merrut	738	1.05	0.83	0.63	0.34	0.70	3.60	9.37	7.64	4.55	0.43	0.08	0.40	29.62
Dehli	718	1.02	0.61	0.67	0.35	0.71	3.18	8.38	7.44	4.42	0.39	0.10	0.43	27.70
Lahore	702	0.87	1.13	0.89	0.51	0.80	1.86	6.65	4.68	2.10	0.43	0.11	0.47	20.70
Multan	420	0.36	0.27	0.20	0.17	0.39	0.43	2.19	1.66	0.60	0.07	0.06	0.27	7.11
Jacobabad	186	0.38	0.37	0.23	0.17	0.19	0.10	1.18	1.23	0.19	0.01	0.10	0.16	4.10
Hydrabad (Shud)	96	0.24	0.52	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.41	2.61	2.77	0.54	0.00	0.10	0.05	7.23
Bikaner	771	0.38	0.24	0.18	0.14	0.84	1.65	3.39	3.14	1.08	0.09	0.06	0.18	11.27
Baskote	429	0.05	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.41	5.21	15.39	8.51	3.75	0.67	0.33	0.00	27.80
Ahmedabad	163	0.02	0.10	0.01	0.03	0.46	3.94	11.43	3.66	4.42	0.53	0.19	0.05	29.62
PLATEAU STATIONS.														
Abolia	930	0.45	0.18	0.43	0.16	0.31	5.12	8.74	6.48	6.24	2.14	0.44	0.58	31.37
Jubbulpore	1,327	0.72	0.52	0.48	0.22	0.47	8.53	18.32	15.13	8.53	2.55	0.51	0.19	36.46
Nagpore	1,025	0.59	0.42	0.57	0.46	0.68	8.44	13.49	9.79	8.11	2.14	0.51	0.23	36.46
Balpur	970	0.30	0.33	0.59	0.59	0.76	9.38	14.94	12.72	7.75	2.09	0.62	0.20	50.27
Ahmednagar	2,132	0.27	0.12	0.15	0.40	1.16	4.73	3.03	3.60	6.75	3.12	0.98	0.44	24.66
Poona	1,840	0.18	0.05	0.13	0.58	1.45	5.35	6.90	4.03	4.43	4.11	0.86	0.20	28.28
Ghatspur	1,590	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.63	1.09	4.41	4.19	5.42	7.77	3.63	0.83	0.30	23.74
Begunur	2,538	0.06	0.03	0.29	2.05	2.73	9.32	15.37	9.16	4.05	5.09	1.37	0.24	49.91
Hydrabad (Deccan)	1,900	0.05	0.12	0.67	0.73	0.78	4.44	6.22	6.76	7.10	2.93	1.53	0.17	31.55
Bombay	5,021	0.06	0.32	1.19	4.53	3.18	4.18	6.74	4.18	6.74	2.61	1.53	0.39	56.83
Bombay	1,475	0.10	0.03	0.42	0.83	1.94	1.41	2.18	2.00	4.12	4.04	1.20	0.20	19.30

MONSOON OF 1924.

The S W Monsoon as in the previous year not only arrived late in the season but its incidence was feeble on both sides of the current. Throughout the month of June "lost of the inland divisions continued to indicate drier and hotter conditions than usual. On the Arabian Sea side the monsoon appeared on the Malabar coast on the 2nd June but the onset was feeble and the vigour of the unsustained pulses lasted only for a few days. The progress northwards was thus laboured, and weak monsoonish conditions were established on the Bombay coast on the 14th June, a week later than the normal date. Though the onset was feeble during the next few days it gave fairly good rains in the Deccan, Gujarat and the Central Provinces. The thick incidence of a small depression off the Kathiwar coast on the 16th was helpful and the falling pulse was enabled to carry the monsoon pulse into Rajasthan, S. E. Punjab and Kathiwar. Thereafter a complete break supervened which practically lasted to the end of the month. The Bay monsoon which was initially restricted to Burma till the 6th June strengthened later and extended into North East India reaching the United Provinces by the end of the month. In the field controlled by this branch also with the exception of Burma and North East India pronounced deficiencies were returned from all divisions.

Conditions in July soon assumed a threatening aspect and not until the 11th several divisions had grown quite critical did the longer or rains at last reach them. Most of the divisions however late, were well served by the end of the month while exceptionally heavy rains were gathered in Malabar and the adjacent Ghats which inundated vast expanses of the country causing heavy loss of property and rendering thousands of people homeless. Averaged over the whole of India the rainfall was not only 21 per cent in excess, but all divisions individually returned excesses. Hyderabad and Sind alone showing deficits of 13 and 13 per cent respectively.

During August the monsoon, which had again relapsed into weakness, was in the main controlled by two depressions from the Bay with the result that the current on both sides became extremely erratic and irregular giving heavy precipitation for a few days interspersed with long dry breaks. The distribution over the various divisions was thus rendered patchy and uneven for while large tracts suffered from marked deficiencies certain parts of the country were inundated causing severe damage both to life and property by floods in the Indus, on the Malabar coast again, and on the upper Ganges (canal).

The rains gathered during September on the Arabian Sea side were again in the main controlled by two depressions from the Bay securing abundant precipitation in the Peninsula and central parts of the country. The Bay monsoon also was similarly influenced specially by the second of these storms causing heavy falls in the Simla Kumaon Hills and the adjacent plains. The mean for India for September was 27 per cent in excess and all divisions showed marked excesses except Burma.

The monsoon conditions were sustained during the month of October longer than usual chiefly under the influence of two Bay storms in the first half of the month. This delayed the recession and incidentally affected also the establishment of N. E. monsoon on the Coromandel coast causing a corresponding defect in the rainfall of Madras and Mysore for the month. The distribution was thus severely affected for while the average over India was normal, excesses of as much as 106 and 180 per cent were returned by Central Provinces and Rajputana respectively and heavy deficits of 67, 47, 53, 100 and 100 were showed by Mysore, Madras, Bombay, Sind and N. W. Province respectively.

Seven disturbances in all—one in June, two in August, two in September and two in October—were noted which in the main as explained above controlled the rains of the season.

The following table gives detailed information of the rainfall of the period June to September —

DIVISION	RAINFALL JUNE TO SEPTEMBER 1924			
	Actual	Normal	Departure from normal	Percentage departure from normal
	Inches	Inches	Inches	
Burma	85.4	81.4	+ 2.0	+ 2
Assam	71.1	61.1	+ 10.0	+ 16
Bengal	60.6	60.9	+ 5.7	+ 9
Bihar and Orissa	42.6	45.5	- 2.9	- 6
United Provinces	41.6	46.1	+ 7.5	+ 21
Punjab	16.4	17.7	+ 0.7	+ 4
North West Frontier Province	7.0	9.0	+ 2.6	+ 52
Sind	4.8	4.7	+ 0.1	+ 2
Rajputana	30.1	18.1	+ 12.0	+ 66
Bombay	57.8	57.9	- 0.6	- 2
Central India	47.6	31.8	+ 9.4	+ 11
Central Provinces	90.7	40.5	- 4.4	- 9
Hyderabad	23.6	26.7	- 3.1	- 12
Mysore	15.9	15.5	+ 0.4	+ 3
Madras	35.0	26.3	+ 8.7	+ 33
Mean of India	42.7	39.7	+ 3.0	+ 8

Famine.

To the student of Indian administration nothing is more remarkable than the manner in which great problems arise, produce a corresponding outburst of official activity to meet them and then fall into the background. This general truth is illustrated by a study of the history of famine in India. For nearly forty years it was the bogey of the Indian administration. The forecasts of the rains were studied with acute anxiety. The actual progress of the rains was followed with no less anxiety and at the first signs of a bad or poor season the famine relief machinery was furbished up and prepared for any emergency. The reason for this is clear if we examine for a brief space the economic condition of the Indian peasantry. Nearly three-quarters of the people are directly dependent on agriculture for their daily bread. Very much of this agriculture is dependent on the seasonal rains for its existence. Immense areas in the Bombay Presidency, Madras, the United Provinces and Central India are in a region of erratic and uncertain rainfall. The rainy season is short and if for any natural reason there is a weakness, or absence, of the rain bearing currents, then there is either a poor harvest or no harvest at all. In Western lands everyone is acquainted with the difference between a good and a poor season, but western countries offer no parallel to India, where in an exceptionally bad year wide tracts of thickly populated land may not produce even a blade of grass. In the old days there were no rail ways to distribute the surplus of one part of India to the districts where the crop had failed. There were often no roads. The irrigation works were few and were themselves generally dependent on the rainfall for their reserves. The people lived from hand to mouth and had no store of food to fall back upon. Nor had they any credit. In the old days then they died. Commencing with the Orissa famine in 1866-67 the Government of India assumed responsibility for the saving of human life in such crises. After the famine of 1899-1900 this responsibility was also shouldered by the Indian States. Stage by stage this responsibility was expressed in the evolution of a remarkable system of famine relief covering the whole field. But now that machinery has reached a remarkable degree of perfection, it is striking in the official annuaries because the conditions have changed. The whole of India is covered with a network of railways, which distributes the produce of the soil to the centres where food is required. The extension of irrigation has enormously increased the product of the soil and rendered large areas much less dependent on the monsoon rainfall. At the same time the scientific study of the problems of Indian agriculture has raised the capacity of even the "dry" zones. The peasantry has accumulated a certain reserve against the rainless days from the prosperity which accompanied the period of high prices. The rapid spread of the co-operative credit movement has mobilised and strengthened rural credit. The spread of manufacturing enterprise has lightened the pressure on the soil. The relation of famine to the question of Indian administration has therefore changed. In an exceptionally

bad year it may create administrative difficulties, it has ceased to be an administrative and social problem.

Famine under Native Rule.

Famines were frequent under Native rule, and frightful when they came. "In 1690" says Sir William Hunter, in the History of British India, "a calamity fell upon Gujarat which enables us to realise the terrible meaning of the word famine in India under Native rule. Whole cities and districts were left bare of inhabitants." In 1681 a Dutch merchant reported that only eleven of the 260 families at Bally survived. He found the road thence to Surat covered with bodies decaying on the highway where they died, there being none to bury them. In Surat, that great and crowded city, he could hardly see any living persons, but the corpses at the corner of the streets lie twenty together, nobody burying them. Thirty thousand had perished in the town alone. Pestilence followed famine." Further historical evidence was adduced by Sir Theodore Morrison in his volume on the Economic Transition of India. It has come to be seen that whilst railways have checked the old-fashioned practice of storing grain in the villages they have made the reserves, where they exist, available for the whole of India. In India there is now no such a thing as a food famine, the country always produces enough food for the whole of the population, famine when it comes is a money famine and the task of the State is confined to providing the means for those affected by drought to earn enough to buy food. The machinery whereby this is done will be examined after we have seen the experiences through which it was evolved.

History of Recent Famines.

The Orissa famine of 1866-67 may be taken as the starting point because that induced to first great and organised effort to combat distress through State agency. It affected 180,000 square miles and 47,500,000 people. The Bengal Government was a little slow in appreciating the need for action but late food was poured into the district in prodigious quantities. Thirty-five million units were relieved (a unit is one person supported for one day) at a cost of 96 lakhs. The mortality was very heavy, and it is estimated that a million people or one-third of the population, died in Orissa alone. This was followed by the Madras famine of 1866, and the famine in Western India of 1868-70. The latter famine introduced India to the great migration from Marwar which was such a distinguishing feature of the famine of 1899-1900, it is estimated that out of a total population of a million and a half in Marwar, one million emigrated. There was famine in Behar in 1873-74, then came the great South Indian Famine of 1876-78. This affected Madras, Mysore, Hyderabad and Bombay for two years and in the second year extended to parts of the Central and United Provinces and to a small tract in the Punjab. The total area affected was 257,000 square miles and the population 88,500,000. Warned by the excessive expenditure in Behar and actuated by the desire

to secure economy the Government relief programme was not entirely successful. The famine mortality in this famine is said to have been 8,500,000 in British territory alone. Through out British India 700,000,000 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 8½ crores. Charitable contributions from Great Britain and the Colonies aggregated Rs. 84 lakhs.

The Famine Codes.

The experiences of this famine showed the necessity of placing relief on an organised basis. The first great Famine Commission which sat under the presidency of Sir Richard Strachey, elaborated the Famine Codes, which amended to meet later experience, form the basis of the famine relief system to-day. They recommended (1) that employment should be given on the relief works to the able-bodied, at a wage sufficient for support, on the condition of performing a suitable task, and (2) that gratuitous relief should be given in their villages or in poor houses to those who are unable to work. They recommended that the food supply should be left to private agency, except where that was unequal to the demands upon it. They advised that the land-owning classes should be assisted by loans, and by general suspensions of revenue in proportion to the crop failure. In sending a Famine Code to the provincial governments, the Government of India laid down as the cardinal feature of their policy that the famine wage "is the lowest amount sufficient to maintain health under given circumstances. Whilst the duty of Government is to save life, it is not bound to maintain the labouring population at its normal level of comfort." Provincial codes were drawn up, and were tested by the famine of 1896-97. In that 807,000 square miles were affected, with a population of 69,500,000. The numbers relieved exceeded 4,000,000 at the time of greatest distress. The cost of famine relief was Rs. 7½ crores, revenue was remitted to the extent of Rs. 1½ crore, and loans given aggregating Rs. 1½ crore. The charitable relief fund amounted to about Rs. 1½ crore, of which Rs. 1½ crore was subscribed in the United Kingdom. The actual famine mortality in British India was estimated at 750,000. The experiences of this famine were examined by a Commission under Sir James Lyall, which reported that the success attained in saving life and the relief of distresses was greater than had ever been recorded in famines, comparable with it in severity, and that the expense was moderate. But before the Local Governments had been given time to digest the proposals of this Commission or the people to recover from the shock, the great famine of 1899-1900 supervened.

The Famine of 1899-1900

This famine affected 475,000 square miles with a population of 59,500,000. In the Central Provinces, Berar, Bombay, Ajmer, and the Hissar district of the Punjab famine was acute. It was intense in Rajputana, Baroda, Central India, Hyderabad and Kathiawar. It was marked by several distinctive features. The rainfall over the whole of India was in extreme deficit, being eleven inches below the mean. In several localities there was practically no rain. There was in consequence a great fodder

famine, with a terrible mortality amongst the cattle. The water supply was deficient, and brought a crop of difficulties in its train. Then districts like Gujerat, where famine had been unknown for so many years that the locality was thought to be famine immune, were affected, the people here being softened by prosperity, clinging to their villages, in the hope of saving their cattle, and came within the scope of the relief works when it was too late to save life. A very large area in the Indian States was affected, and the Marwaris swept from their impoverished land right through Central India like a horde of locusts, leaving desolation in their train. For these reasons relief had to be given on an unprecedented scale. At the end of July 4,500,000 persons were supported by the State, Rs. 10 crores were spent on relief, and the total cost was estimated at Rs. 15 crores. The famine was also marked by a widespread acceptance by Indian States of the duty hitherto shouldered by the Government of India alone—the supreme responsibility of saving human life. Aided by loans to the extent of Rs. 2½ crores, the Indian States did a great deal to bring their administration into line with that in British India. Although actual deaths from starvation were insignificant, the extensive outbreaks of cholera, and the devastating epidemic of malaria which followed the advent of the rains induced a famine mortality of approximately a million. The experiences of this famine were collated by the Commission presided over by Sir Antony MacDonnell. This Commission reported that taking the famine period as a whole the relief given was excessive, and laid down certain modified lines. The cardinal feature of their policy was moral strategy. Pointing out that if the people were assisted at the start they would help themselves, whilst if their condition were allowed to deteriorate it proceeded on a declining scale, they placed in the forefront of their programme the necessity of putting heart into the people. The machinery suggested for this purpose was the prompt and liberal distribution of treasury loans, the early suspension of revenue, and a policy of prudent boldness, starting from the preparation of a large and expensive plan of relief and secured by liberal preparations, constant vigilance and a full enlistment of non-official help. The wage scale was revised, the minimum wage was abolished in the case of able-bodied workers, payments by results were recommended, and proposals were made for saving cattle.

The Government of India is now in possession of complete machinery to combat the effects of drought. In ordinary times Government is kept informed of the meteorological conditions and the state of the crops, programmes of suitable relief works are kept up to date, the country is mapped into relief circles, reserves of tools and plant are stocked. If the rains fail, policy is at once declared, non-officials are enlisted, revenue suspended and loans for agricultural purposes made. Test works are then opened, and if labour in considerable quantities is attracted, they are converted into relief works on Code principles. Poor houses are opened and gratuitous relief given to the indium. On the advent of the

rares the people are moved from the large works to small works near their villages, liberal advances are made to agriculturists for the purchase of plough, cattle and seed. When the principal autumn crop is ripe, the few remaining works are gradually closed and gratuitous relief ceases. All this time the medical staff is kept in readiness to deal with cholera, which so often accompanies famine, and malaria, which generally supervenes when the rains break.

Famine Protection

Side by side with the perfection of the machinery for the relief of famine has gone the development of famine protection. The Famine Commission of 1880 stated that the best, and often the only means of securing protection from the extreme effects of famine and drought, are railways and irrigation. These are of two classes, productive and protective. Productive works being estimated to yield profits which will pay interest and sinking fund charges are met from loans, protective works, which do not pay directly from revenue. In order to guarantee that there should be continuous progress with protective works, the Famine Insurance Grant was instituted in 1878. It was decided to set apart from the general revenues Rs 14 crores annually or one million sterling. The first charge on this grant is famine relief, the second protective works, the third the avoidance of debt. The chain of protective railways is now practically complete. Great progress is being made with protective irrigation. Acting on the advice of the Irrigation Commission an elaborate programme of protective irrigation works has been constructed, particularly in the Bombay Deccan—the most famine susceptible district in India—and in the Central Provinces.

The Outlook

Such in brief is the official programme and organisation which has been built up out of the experience and practice of the past. Yet everything goes to show that Government activity to save human life will never be wanted in the future on the colossal scale of former times, even so recently as 1899-1900. Each succeeding failure of the rains indicates that there has been in silent progress an economic revolution in India. In the year 1918 the rains failed more seriously and over a wider area than during any monsoon in the recent history of India. The deficiency in the rainfall was more marked than in the great famine of 1899. Yet such was the increased resisting power of the people that instead of a demand for State relief from over five millions, the maximum number at any time in receipt of public assistance was never so large as six hundred thousand. The shock to the social life of the community was insignificant, the effects of the drought completely disappeared with the good rains of the following year.

Increased Resisting Power

The causes of this economic change in the conditions of India, whose influence is widespread are many. We can only briefly indicate them here. There is a much greater mobility in Indian labour. Formerly when the rains failed the ryot

clung to his village until State relief in one form or another was brought almost to his doors. Now at the first sign of the failure of the rains he girds up his loins and goes in search of employment in one of the industrial centres, where the supply of labour is rarely equal to the demand, or on the constructional works which are always in progress either through State or private agency in the country. Then the ryot generally commands some store of value, often misnamed a hoard. The balance of exports in favour of India in normal times is approximately £ 50 millions a year. The gold and silver bullion in which this is largely liquidated is distributed all over the country, in small sums or in ornaments, which can be drawn upon in an emergency. The prodigious coining of rupees during the last two years of the war, and the continuous absorption of gold by India, represent small diffused savings, which take this form owing to the absence of banking institutions and lack of confidence in the banking system. There has been a large extension of irrigation. More than one-third of the land in the Punjab is now under irrigation, and in other Provinces, particularly in the famine-susceptible tracts of the Bombay Deccan, irrigation works have been constructed, which break the shock of a failure of the rains. Then the natural growth of the population has been reduced by plague and famine diseases followed by the great influenza pandemic of 1918-19, which swept off five millions of people. This has not only prevented the increase of congestion, but has brought some areas particularly in the Indian States, below their former population-supporting capacity. The increase of railways distributes the resources of the country with ease, the spread of the co-operative credit movement has improved rural credit. Finally, there is the considerable development of manufacturing industry, which is generally short of labour and helps to absorb the surplus of a famine year. Whilst the Government is completely equipped with a famine code, there is no reason to suppose that there will ever recur such an emergency as that of 1899. Famine can now be efficiently met by the liberal distribution of tagavi, the suspension and remission of the land revenue demand, the relief of the aged and others who cannot work, the provision of cheap fodder for the cattle, with possibly some assistance in transporting the affected population of the famine-affected tract to the industrial centres.

The increased resisting power of the people was effectively demonstrated during the famine of 1920-21 which was due to the failure of the monsoon towards the end of the year 1920. The distress which appeared in the end of 1920 persisted during the early months of 1921 and regular famine was declared in parts of Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces and Baluchistan. Local distress prevailed also in Bengal, Punjab and Central India. The largest number of persons on relief of all kinds did not exceed 0.45 million which was considerably less than 8% of the total population of the area affected by the failure of the monsoon.

The Indian Famine Trust.

Outside the Government programme there is always scope for private philanthropy, especially in the provision of clothes, help for

the superior class poor who cannot accept Government aid, and in assisting in the rehabilitation of the cultivators when the rains break. At every great famine large sums have been subscribed, particularly in the United Kingdom, for this purpose, and in 1899-1900 the people of the United States gave generous help. With the idea of providing a permanent famine fund, the Maharaja of Jaipur gave in 1900 a

sum of Rs. 15 lakhs, in Government securities, to be held in trust for the relief of the needy in time of famine. This Trust has now swollen to over Rs. 35½ lakhs.

The report of the Board of Management states that during the year 1922 grants for relief of distress were made in the case of Madras amounting to Rs 25,000.

BOY SCOUTS.

The Boy Scouts movement, initiated in England by Lt Gen Sir Robert Baden Powell (the Chief Scout), has spread widely in India, both among Europeans and Indians. The Viceroy is Chief Scout of India and the heads of Provinces are Chief Scouts in their own areas. The aim of the Association is to develop good citizenship among boys by forming their character—training them in habits of observation, obedience and self reliance—inculcating loyalty and thoughtfulness for others—and teaching them services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves.

It is confidently anticipated that in the Boy Scout Movement will be found a natural mean of bridging the gulf between the different races existing in India. The movement is non-official, non-military, non-political and non-sectarian. Its attitude towards religion is to encourage every boy to follow the faith he professes. Every boy admitted as a Scout makes a three fold promise to do his best (1) to be loyal to God and the King, (2) to help others at all times, and (3) to obey the Scout law. The law referred to lays down—

1. That a Scout's honour is to be trusted,
2. That he is loyal to God and the King, his parents, teachers, employers, his comrades, his country and those under him,
3. That he is to be useful and to help others.
4. That he is a friend to all and a brother to every other scout, no matter to what social class the other belongs,
5. That he is courteous,
6. That he is a friend to animals,
7. That he obeys orders,
8. That he smiles and whistles under all difficulties,
9. That he is thrifty,
10. That he is clean in thought, word, and deed.

INDIAN HEAD-QUARTERS.

Patron.—H R. H The Prince of Wales, K G

Chief Scout for India.—His Excellency the Earl of Reading.

Chief Commissioner—(Vacant)

General Secretary—Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, K O V O, &c.

General Council for India—

Ex-officio—The Chief Commissioner for India
The Provincial Commissioners

The Presidents of Provincial Councils

Filed—(Not completed)

Nominated—(Not completed)

Scout Strength

PROVINCE	SCOUTS	CUBS	TOTAL
Assam	542	121	663
Baluchistan	80	31	111
Bangalore	184	21	205
Bengal	1,704	428	2,132
Behar and Orissa	1,232	187	1,419
Bombay	4,518	670	5,188
Central India	38	6	44
Central Provinces	2,662	169	2,831
Delhi	222	53	275
Madras	3,209	633	3,842
Punjab	2,107	114	2,221
Rajputana	179	71	250
United Provinces	1,949	158	2,107
Burma	2,063	366	2,429
Affiliated Associations—			
Cochin State Boy Scouts Association	381		381
Marwar State Boy Scouts Association.			
Total	21,068	2,975	24,043

Hydro-Electric Development.

India promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in regard to the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. India not only specially lends itself to projects of the kind, but peremptorily demands them. Cheap motive power is one of the secrets of successful industrial development and the favourable initial conditions caused by the war, the enthusiasm for industrial development which has seized nearly all classes of educated Indians, and the special attention which the circumstances of the war have compelled Government to direct towards the scientific utilisation of Indian natural resources all point to a rapid growth of industrial enterprise in all parts of India within the next few years. Indeed, the process, for which sound foundations had been laid before the war, is now rapidly under way. India is severely handicapped compared with other lands as regards the generation of power by the consumption of fuel, coal or oil. These commodities are all difficult to obtain, and costly in India except in a few favoured areas. Coal supplies, for example, are chiefly centred in Bengal and Chota Nagpur and the cost of transport is heavy. Water power and its transmission by electricity offer, on the other hand, immense possibilities, both as regards the quantity available and the cheapness at which the power can be rendered, in all parts of India.

Water power schemes, pure and simple, are generally difficult in India, because the power needs to be continuous, while the rainfall is only during a small portion of the year. Perennial rivers with sufficient water throughout the year are practically non-existent in India. Water, therefore, must be stored for use during the dry season. Favourable sites for this exist in many parts in the mountainous and hilly regions where the heaviest rainfalls occur and the progress already made in utilising such opportunities by the electrical transmission of power affords high encouragement for the future. Further, hydro-electric schemes can frequently be associated with important irrigation projects, the water being first used to drive the turbines at the generating stations and then distributed over the fields. Water, as was pointed out in an interesting paper on the subject presented to the Indian Industrial Commission of 1916-18 by Mr R. B. Joyner, O.L.E., M. Inst. C.E., lately in the Irrigation Branch of the Bombay Public Works Department and engaged in the Tata's Hydro-Electric Works in Western India up to the time of his death, "can be stored in this country at a third or a quarter of the cost which there would be in other countries. This is not merely on account of the cheaper labour, which would be the chief reason in an earthen dam, but in masonry or concrete dams. It is also because we do not use cement, which, for some reason not well-known to me, is generally deemed essential elsewhere, though it cannot really be so suitable."

The Industrial Commission emphasised the necessity for a Hydrographic Survey of India. On this recommendation the Government of India in 1918 appointed the late Mr G. T. Barlow, C.I.E., then Chief Engineer, Irrigation Branch, United Provinces, to undertake the work, associating with him Mr J. W. Meares, M.I.O.E., Electrical Adviser to the Government of India. Mr Barlow died, but Mr Meares issued a preliminary report in September, 1919, summarising the present state of knowledge of the problem in India and outlining a programme of investigation to be undertaken in the course of the inquiry. Mr Meares showed that industries in India now absorb over a million horse power, of which only some 285,000 h.p. is supplied by electricity from steam, oil or water. The water power so far actually in sight amounts to 1½ million horse-power, but this excludes practically all the great rivers, which are at present uninvestigated. Thus the minimum flow of the seven great rivers eastward from the Indus is stated to be capable of giving not less than three million horse-power for every thousand feet of fall from the Himalayas, while similar considerations apply to rivers in other parts. Some doubt is expressed as to the estimate of seven million horse-power in the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers, given in the report of the London Conjoint Board of Scientific Studies.

The Report points out that the Bombay Presidency holds a unique position owing to its great existing and projected schemes at Lonavla, the Andhra Valley the Nila Mula and the Koyna Valley and has the still greater advantage of possessing a firm ready to develop its resources.

Bombay Hydro Electric Works

The greatest water-power undertakings in India—and in some respects the greatest in the world—are the Tata hydro-electric schemes recently brought to fruition, and constantly undergoing expansion, for the supply of power in the city of Bombay. Bombay is after London the most populous city in the British Empire and it is the largest manufacturing town in Asia. Its cotton mills and other factories use over 100,000 horse power of mechanical energy and until a year or two ago this was almost entirely provided by steam, generated by coal coming from a distance—mostly Bengal. The Tata Hydro-Electric Power Scheme, now an accomplished fact, marked one of the big steps forward made by India in the history of its industrial development. It was the product of the fertile brain of Mr David Gostling, one of the well known characters of Bombay, a little over a decade ago. The exceptional position of the Western Ghats, which rise 2,000 feet from sea-level within a very short distance of the Arabian Sea, and force the monsoon as it sweeps to land, to break into torrential rain at the mountain passes was taken full advantage of, and the table lands behind the Ghats form a magnificent catchment area to conserve this

heavy rainfall in Mr Gostling pressed the scheme on the attention of Mr Jamsetji Tata for years, and with perseverance collected data which he laid before that pioneer of the larger industries in India. He summoned the aid of experts from England to investigate the plan. The scheme was fully considered for six long years. Meanwhile both Mr J N Tata and Mr David Gostling passed away, but the sons of the former continued the work of their father and on Mr Gostling's death, Mr R. B. Joyner, aid was sought to work out the Hydraulic side of the undertaking.

The scheme completed, a syndicate secured the license from Government and an endeavour was made to enlist the support of financiers of England who tried to impose terms which were not acceptable. Meanwhile, the attention of Sir George Clarke (now Lord Sydenham), then Governor of Bombay, and an engineer of distinction himself, was drawn to the scheme. The interest shown by him drew the attention of Indian Chiefs in the Presidency of Bombay and outside it to its possibilities, funds flowed in and a company with an initial capital of 1,75,00,000 Rupees was started.

The hydro-electric engineering works in connection with the project are situated at and about Lonavla above the Bhori Ghat. The rainfall is stored in three lakes at Lonavla, Walwan and Shiravti, whence it is conveyed in masonry canals to the forebay or receiving reservoir. The power-house is at Khopoli, at the foot of the Ghats, whither the stored water is conveyed through pipes, the fall being one of 1,725 feet. In falling from this height the water develops a pressure of 750 lbs per square inch and with this force drives the turbines or water wheels. The scheme was originally restricted to 30,000 electrical horse power, but the Company, in view of the increasing demand for power from the Bombay mills decided to extend the works by building the Shiravti Dam and issued further shares bringing the capital to Rs 3,00,00,000, the capacity of the scheme being increased to more than 40,000 electrical horse power. Issued Capital 7 per cent Preference 8,750 shares fully paid and Ordinary 18,000, out of which 10,000 Rs 400 have been called up. There is also a Debenture Loan of Rs 85 lakhs. The works were formally opened by H. E. the Governor of Bombay on the 8th February 1915. At present there are altogether 44 mills with motors of the aggregate B H P of 58,000 H P in service. In addition to the cotton and four mills which have contracted to take supply from the Company for a period of ten years, an agreement has been completed whereby the Tata Hydro Electric Company, the Andhra Valley Power Supply Company and the Tata Power Company will between them supply the whole of the electric power required by the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company, Limited and also the power for the electrification of the Harbour Branch and Bombay Kalyan section of the G I P Railway. There remain many prospective buyers of electrical energy and the completion of the Company's full scheme will not suffice for all such demands. Besides the Bombay cotton mills, which alone would require about 100,000 horse power,

there are, for instance, tramways with possibilities of suburban extensions. The probable future demand is roughly estimated at about 160,000 H P. During the past year the Company has embarked upon a considerable scheme of extensions these involving the impounding of a fourth lake at Lonavla, the duplication of the pipe line and the installation of additional machinery at the power house at Khopoli.

Investigations undertaken by Mr H P Gibbs with a view to further developing the electrical supply led to the discovery of a highly promising water storage site in the valley of the Andhra River, situated near the present lakes previously overlooked, as altogether different treatment and design were required. In this instance the draw off point is 11 miles upstream from the dam and at a level 112 ft above the lowest river bed level at the dam. The water is taken through a tunnel 8,700 ft long driven in solid trap rock through the scarp of the ghats of which the pressure pipes are an extension. Seventy feet of the upper water in the lake can be drawn off comprising 75 per cent of the total amount of water stored both above and below draw off level. A scheme was prepared to be carried out by a separate company and providing for holding up the Andhra River by a Dam, about a third of a mile long and 192 feet high, at Tokerwadi. This dam holds up a lake nearly twelve miles long the further end of which approaches the brink of the Ghats at Khand. Here, a tunnel, a mile and a quarter long, carries the water to the surge chamber whence it enters the pipes for a vertical drop of about 1,750 feet to the generating station at Bhivpuri about 17 miles from the generating station at Khopoli. The scheme is designed to yield 100,000 horse power in its full development. A new company to operate the scheme was formed on the 31st August, 1916, with an initial capital of Rs 2,10,00,000, divided into 160,000 Ordinary shares of Rs 1,000 each and 5,000 Preference shares of Rs 1,000 each this being the Andhra Valley Power Supply Company, Limited. This Company will pay annually to the Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Company 15 per cent upon the profits (after making certain deductions), or a sum of Rs 50,000, whichever shall be the larger sum, the intention being that the new company shall pay annually to the Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Company a minimum sum of Rs 50,000. The areas intended to be supplied by this Company are the town and island of Bombay and the Suburban Municipalities of Bandra and Kurla. The supply of power commenced in 1922 and the whole project was completed in the following year.

Just as the Andhra project has been developed as a northward extension of the original scheme, so a southward development also originated by Mr Gibbs and developable on lines similar to those of the Andhra project, is now being carried out under the name of the Nila-Mula scheme the name arising from the fact that the valleys of the Nila and Mula rivers are being dammed for the conservation of water for it. A company entitled The Tata Power Co., Ltd., was floated in the autumn of 1919 for the purpose, having a capital of Rs. 2 crores, divided into 20,000 7½% cumulative preference

shares of Rs 1,000 each and 80,000 shares of Rs 1,000 each, the first and present issue being of 10,000 preference shares and 35,000 ordinary shares. One lake will be formed and from it water will be conducted direct through a short tunnel to a pipe descent to a turbine power house 1,750 feet below the forebay. The head of water will suffice to generate 150,000 horse power and the length of the transmission line to Bombay will be 70 miles. Half of the scheme, i.e., for the supply of 75,000 h. p. will first be completed and is expected to come into operation in about three years. The construction works at present are in progress and lands have been acquired for the Dam and the lake sites.

Nearly 100 miles southward of this Messrs Tata propose to erect two dams in the huge valley of the Koyna river, proposed by Mr A. T. Arnall and developable on lines similar to the two projects by Mr Gibbs above mentioned partly to supply power to Bombay and partly to develop a great assembly of electro-chemical industries near the power installation. The preliminary investigations for this scheme are still proceeding. The catchment area for the lake will be 346 square miles and there will be a total storage after the rains of 112,600 million cubic feet, which will be sufficient to supply a normal load of 350,000 horse power for 8,000 hours per year. The preliminary estimates provided for a capital of Rs 810 lakhs to carry out the scheme.

Mysore Installation

The first hydro-electric scheme undertaken in India or indeed in the East was that on the River Cauvery, in Mysore State, which was inaugurated, with generating works at Sivasa mudram, in 1902. The Cauvery rises in the British district of Coorg, and flows right across Mysore. The first object with which the installation was undertaken was the supply of power to the goldfields at Kolar. These are 92 miles distant from Sivasa mudram and for a long time this was the longest electrical power transmission line in the world. Current is also sent to Bangalore, 59 miles away, where it is used for both industrial and lighting purposes.

The initial undertaking has constantly been expanded since its inauguration, so that its total capacity, which was at first 6,000 horse power, is now approximately 25,000 h. p. This is the maximum obtainable with the water which the Cauvery affords and, therefore, with the number of consumers, large and small, rapidly increasing, the necessity of a completely new installation elsewhere to be operated in parallel with or separately from that at Sivasa mudram, has been recognised. Two projects offer themselves. The first would involve the use of the River Shimsha, a tributary of the Cauvery which has natural falls, and the second, known as the Mekadatu project, would have its power house on the Cauvery, 25 miles down river from Sivasa mudram and just within the borders of Mysore State, adjacent to the Madras Presidency. The head of water available at Sivasa mudram is 400 feet, that on the Shimsha 618 feet net, which would generate 33,500 h. p. At Mekadatu the Cauvery runs in rapids and a dam and

a channel 20,000 feet long with a 22½ feet bed would be necessary. There would be three generating units, each giving an output of 4,000 h. p. Future extensions yielding an additional 8,000 h. p. could be made. The progressive spirit which has marked the management of the works since their inception now characterises the manner in which the problem of further extensions are being considered.

Works in Kashmir

A scheme of much importance from its size, but more interesting because of the developments that may be expected from it than for the part which its current supply already plays in the life of the countryside, is one installed a few years ago by the Kashmir Durbar, utilising the River Jhelum, near Baramulla, which lies thirty-four miles north west of Srinagar. The head works of the Jhelum power installation are situated six and a half miles from the power house and the main connection between the two is a great timber flume. These works and the forebay at the delivery end of the flume have a capacity for carrying water sufficient for the generation of 20,000 electrical horse power. Four pipes 600 feet long lead from the forebay to the power house, and from forebay to water-wheel there is an effective head of 395 feet. There are four vertical waterwheels, each coupled on the same shaft to a 1,000 k. w., 3 phase 2,300 volt, 25 period generator running at 500 r. p. m., and each unit is capable of taking a 25 per cent. overload, which the generator and is guaranteed to maintain with safety for two hours. The power house is of sufficient capacity to allow of 15,000 k. w. generating plant being installed within it. Two transmission lines run side by side as far as Baramulla, 21 miles distant at which point one terminates. The other continues to Srinagar, a further 34 miles. The installation at Baramulla was originally utilised for three floating dredgers and two floating derricks, for dredging the river and draining the swampy countryside and rendering it available for cultivation, but these operations have temporarily been curtailed, so that only one dredger is now in operation. The lighting of Baramulla has been taken in hand with satisfactory results and it is expected that the lighting demand will rapidly increase and that a small demand for power will soon spring up. At Srinagar, the line terminates at the State silk factory, where current is supplied not only for driving machinery and for lighting but for heating. The greater part of Srinagar city is now electrically lighted and during the past year a motor load of over 100 k. w. has been connected with the mains, motors being hired out to consumers by the Electrical Department. This step was taken with a view to educating the people in the use of electric power and it has been entirely successful.

Recent Progress

Apart from the development of the three projects in the Bombay Presidency the past two years have witnessed comparatively little progress in hydro-electric works. A small plant was completed and put into operation at Naini Tal during 1923, and the erection of another small plant was commenced at Shillong, but otherwise there is nothing to

record. It is interesting to note, however, that preliminary investigations are proceeding with a view to the erection of hydro-electric plants in various parts of India. In the tea districts of Kalimpong and Kurseong, for example, it is proposed to harness a promising water-power site and to supply current to an important area in which are situated more than two hundred tea factories, whilst the Mandi (Punjab) project has advanced a stage and may be commenced in due course. Another Punjab scheme, the Sutlej Hydro Electric Project, at one time appeared to be one of the most promising propositions in the country, but owing to financial considerations it has now been indefinitely shelved. In Southern India a large number of sites have been investigated, and of these one on the Pykara river in the Nilgiris and another on the Kallar river on the borders of Travancore have been selected for development if and when the financial considerations can be satisfactorily settled. The Pykara river scheme is of some magnitude, and it is estimated that upwards of 50,000 horse power will be available for electro-chemical industries which it is proposed to establish at Calicut on the West Coast. The Kallar river project is very much smaller but it is interesting in being a scheme in which the Government of Madras and the Travancore Darbar will be jointly responsible, for the power house will be located on the British side of the river and the current transmitted to and distributed in Travancore.

State. Finally, there is a big combined project of hydro-electricity and irrigation in Hyderabad State. This scheme is still very much in the air, but the fact that it is under consideration is worthy of being placed on record in view of the somewhat unusual circumstance in India, that the tail water from the turbines will be made available for agricultural purposes and not allowed to run to waste.

The fact that the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company has definitely decided to shut down its steam driven generating plant and to take supply in bulk from the various Tata companies has been recorded above, and it is of more than passing interest to note that the Poona Electric Supply Company has put forward a similar proposition with effect from the time when power is available from the Tata Power Company's installation at Nila-Mula. This is a phase of hydro electric distribution which is quite in its infancy in India, but it is possible to foresee the time when every village within a couple of hundred miles of a hydro-electric power station will receive its supply of electric current in bulk, thus greatly reducing capital and administrative charges and minimising the price of current to the consumer. It is a system which has become something of a fine art in California, where current is transmitted by overhead wires for many hundreds of miles at a pressure of 200,000 volts, or double the pressure commonly employed in India for overhead long-distance transmission.

TIDAL CONSTANTS.

The approximate standard time of High Water may be found by adding to, or subtracting from, the time of High Water at London Bridge, given in the calendar, the correction given as below —

	H	M		H	M
Gibraltar	sub.	0 32	Rangoon River Entrance	.	add 1 35
Malta	add	1 34	Penang	.	sub 1 39
Karschi	.	sub 2 33	Singapore 3 25
Bombay 1 44	Hongkong	.	.. 4 27
Goa	..	2 44	Shanghai 0 34
Point de Galle	add	0 12	Yokohama	.	.. add 3 6
Madras	sub. 5 6	Valparaiso sub. 4 40
Calcutta 0 19	Buenos Ayres add 4 9

Local Self-Government.

No field of the administration of India is likely to be more profoundly affected by the Reforms of 1919 than local government. This is one of the subjects transferred to Indian ministers, and there are many signs that the power will be freely used for the purpose of experiments in the direction of building up stronger and more vigorous local bodies. On the whole, the progress of local government in India for the past quarter of a century has been disappointing. The greatest successes have been won in the Presidency towns and particularly by the Municipality of Bombay. The difficulties in the way of progress were manifest. Local government had to be a creation—the devolution of authority from the Government to the local body, and that to a people who for centuries had been accustomed to autocratic administration. Again, the powers entrusted to local bodies were insignificant and the financial support was small. There are however many indications that the dry bones of the moribund are stirring, inasmuch as this being a transferred subject it is entirely provincial there will be the widest variation between province and province according to the special needs of each. We can indicate here only the broad tendencies, with the expression of opinion that this field will be one of the most important in the growth of nation-building forces in British India.

Throughout the greater part of India, the village constitutes the primary territorial unit of Government organisation, and from the villages are built up the larger administrative entities—tahsils, sub-divisions, and districts.

"The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. Stretching around this nucleus lie the village lands, consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood-cutting. The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings, welded together in a little community with its own organisation and government, which differ in character in the various types of villages, its body of detailed customary rules and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. It should be noted, however, that in certain portions of India, e.g., in the greater part of Assam, in Eastern Bengal, and on the west coast of the Madras Presidency, the village as here described does not exist, the people living in small collections of houses or in separate homesteads."—(*Quarter of India*)

The villages above described fall under two main classes, viz.—

Types of Villages.—“(1) The ‘severalty’ or *raiyatwari* village, which is the prevalent form outside Northern India. Here the revenue is assessed on individual cultivators. There is no joint responsibility among the villagers, though some of the non-cultivated lands may be set apart for a common purpose, such as grazing, and waste land may be brought under the plough only with the permission of the Revenue authorities, and on payment of assessment. The village government vests in a hereditary headman, known by an old vernacular name, such as *patel* or *reddi*, who is responsible for law and order, and for the collection of the Government revenue. He represents the primitive headship of the tribe or clan by which the village was originally settled.

“(2) The joint or landlord village, the type prevalent in the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Frontier Province. Here the revenue was formerly assessed on the village as a whole, its incidence being distributed by the body of superior proprietors, and a certain amount of collective responsibility still, as a rule, remains. The village site is owned by the proprietary body who allow residences to the tenantry, artisans, traders and others. The waste land is allotted to the village, and, if wanted for cultivation, is partitioned among the shareholders. The village government was originally by the *panchayat* or group of heads of superior families. In later times one or more headmen have been added to the organisation to represent the village in its dealings with the local authorities, but the artificial character of this appointment, as compared with that which obtains in a *raiyatwari* village is evidenced by the title of its holder, which is generally *lambaridar*, a vernacular derivative from the English word ‘number’. It is this type of village to which the well-known description in Sir H. Maine’s *Village Communities* is alone applicable, and here the co-proprietors are in general a local oligarchy with the bulk of the village population as tenants of labourers under them.”

Village Autonomy.—The Indian villages formerly possessed a large degree of local autonomy, since the native dynasties and their local representatives did not, as a rule, concern themselves with the individual cultivators, but regarded the village as a whole, or some large landholder as responsible for the payment of the Government revenues, and the maintenance of local order. This autonomy has now disappeared owing to the establishment of local, civil and criminal courts, the present revenue and police organisation, the increase of communications, the growth of individualism, and the operation of the individual *raiyatwari* system, which is extending even in the north of India. Nevertheless, the village remains the first unit of administration, the principal village functionaries—the headman, the accountant, and the village watchman—are largely utilised and paid by Government, and there is still a certain amount of common village feeling and interests.

Panchayats.—For some years there was an active propaganda in favour of reviving the village council-tribunal, or *Panchayat* and the Decentralisation Commission of 1908 made the following special recommendations—

“While, therefore, we desire the development of a *panchayat* system, and consider that the objections urged thereto are far from insurmountable, we recognise that such a system can only be gradually and tentatively applied, and that it is impossible to suggest any uniform and definite method of procedure. We think that a commencement should be made by giving certain limited powers to *Panchayats* in those villages in which circumstances are most favourable by reason of homogeneity, natural intelligence, and freedom from internal feuds. These powers might be increased gradually as results warrant, and with success here, it will become easier to apply the system in other villages. Such a policy, which must be the work of many

much patience, and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages, and there is a considerable consensus of opinion that this new departure should be made under the special guidance of sympathetic officers."

This is, however, still mainly a question of future possibilities, and for present purposes it is unnecessary to refer at greater length to the subject of village self-government. Various measures have been passed, but it is too early to say what life they have. The Punjab Government has passed a Village Panchayat Act, which enables Government to establish in a village, a system of councillors to whom certain local matters, including judicial power, both civil and criminal of a minor character may be assigned. In Bihar a Village Administration Act has been passed for the administration of village affairs by villagers themselves, including minor civil and criminal cases. Other Governments are taking steps in the same direction.

Municipalities.—The Presidency towns had some form of Municipal administration first under Royal Charters and later under statute, from comparatively early times, but outside of them there was practically no attempt at municipal legislation before 1842. An Act passed in that year for Bengal, which was practically inoperative, was followed in 1850 by an Act applying to the whole of India. Under this Act and subsequent Provincial Acts a large number of municipalities was formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners to manage municipal affairs, and authorised the levy of various taxes, but in most Provinces the commissioners were all nominated, and from the point of view of self-government, these Acts did not proceed far. It was not until after 1870 that much progress was made. Lord Mayo's Government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical charity, and local public works. New Municipal Acts were passed for the various Provinces between 1871 and 1874, which among other things, extended the elective principle, but only in the Central Provinces was popular representation generally and successfully introduced. In 1881-2 Lord Ripon's Government issued orders which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of local self-government. Acts were passed in 1883-4 that greatly altered the constitution, powers, and functions of municipal bodies, a wide extension being given to the elective system, while independence and responsibility were conferred on the committees of many towns by permitting them to elect a private citizen as chairman. Arrangements were made also to increase municipal resources and financial responsibility, some items of provincial revenue suited to and capable of development under local management being transferred, with a proportionate amount of provincial expenditure, for local objects. The general principles thus laid down have continued to govern the administration of municipalities down to the present day.

The Present Position.—There are some 751 municipalities in British India, with something

over 18 million people resident within their limits. Of these municipalities roughly 683 have a population of less than 50,000 persons and the remainder a population of 50,000 and over. As compared with the total population of particular provinces, the proportion resident within municipal limits is largest in Bombay, where it amounts to 20 per cent., and is smallest in Assam where it amounts to only 2 per cent. In other provinces it varies from 4 to 9 per cent. of the total population. Turning to the composition of the municipalities, considerably more than half of the total members are elected and there is a steady tendency to increase this proportion. Ex-officio members are roughly 8 per cent. and nominated 27 per cent. Elected members are almost everywhere in a majority. Taking all municipalities together, the non-officials outnumber the officials by nearly six to one. The functions of municipalities are classed under the heads of Public Safety, Health, Convenience and Instruction. For the discharge of these responsibilities, there is a municipal income of Rs. 12.95 crores derived principally from taxation just over one-third coming from municipal property, contributions from provincial revenues and miscellaneous sources. Generally speaking, the income of municipalities is small, the four cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Rangoon together providing nearly 40 per cent. of the total. The heaviest items of this expenditure come under the heads of 'Conservancy' and 'Public Works' which amount to 16 per cent. and 14 per cent. respectively. Water-supply comes to 13 per cent., 'Drainage' to 7 per cent. and

Education to no more than 8.1 per cent. In some localities the expenditure on education is considerably in excess of the average. In the Bombay Presidency, excluding Bombay City, for example, the expenditure on education amounts to more than 21 per cent. of the total funds, while in the Central Provinces and Berar it is over 15 per cent.

District Boards.—The duties and functions assigned to the municipalities in urban areas are in rural areas entrusted to district and local Boards. In almost every district of British India save in the province of Assam, there is a board subordinate to which are two or more sub-district boards, while in Bengal, Madras and Bihar and Orissa, there are also Union Committees. Throughout India at large there are some 219 district boards with 543 sub-district boards and more than 800 Union Committees. This machinery has jurisdiction over a population which was some 213 millions in 1919-20. Leaving aside the Union Committees the members of the Boards numbered a little over 13,000 in 1921-22, of whom 59 per cent. were elected. As in the case of municipalities the tendency has been throughout India to increase the elected members at the expense of the nominated and the official members. The Boards are practically manned by Indians, who constitute 96 per cent. of the whole membership. Only 18 per cent. of the total members of all boards are officials of any kind. The total income of the Boards in 1921 amounted to Rs. 10.93 crores the average income of each district board being Rs. 5,00,000. The most important item of revenue is provincial rates, which represent a proportion of the total

income varying from 18 per cent. in the N W F Province to 61 per cent in Bihar and Orissa. The principal objects of expenditure are education which has come remarkably to the front within the last three years and civil works such as roads and bridges. Medical relief is also sharing with education though in a less degree the lion's share of the available revenue.

Improvement Trusts—A notable feature in the recent sanitary history of India is the activity played by the great cities in the direction of social improvements. In Bombay and Calcutta the Improvement Trusts are continuing their activities which are described in a separate chapter (q.v.). In Bombay the work of the Improvement Trust is being developed by the Bombay Development Directorate. Other cities are beginning to follow the examples of these great cities and Improvement Trusts have been constituted in Cawnpore, Lucknow and Allahabad in the United Provinces and in several of the larger cities of the Provinces of India. Their activities have, however, been severely curtailed by the financial stress.

Provincial Progress—There was passed in Bengal in 1916 a Village Self Government Act embodying the policy of constituting Union Boards at the earliest possible date for groups of villages throughout the province. The number of these boards continues to increase rising from 1,500 to more than 2,000. Though they are in their infancy as yet, many of them show a remarkable aptitude for managing their own affairs.

In Bombay the development of village self government is also proceeding, as the result of an Act for constituting, or increasing the power of village committees, which was passed in 1920 by the Legislative Council. In this presidency, some 75 out of 157 municipalities had a two-thirds elected majority of councillors in the year 1920, and a distinct step forward has been projected by the administration in the direction of liberalizing the constitution of all municipal bodies. The policy of appointing a non-official president has been extended both to district and sub-district boards, and a large number of non-officials have also been appointed presidents of sub districts (taluka) boards. In Madras also the institutions of local self-government continued to progress in an encouraging manner. The number of district boards in the Presidency was 24, with 882 members. The number of sub-district boards rose from 119 to 121. The total number of Municipal Councils rose from 73 to 80 and the proportion of Indian to European and Anglo-Indian members further increased. In 1920 21 there were 64 municipal councils, consisting entirely of Indian members, as against 41 in the previous year. The average imposition of taxation per head of population is still very low, being only about Rs 2. None the less, 28 towns in the presidency possess a protected water supply and water works schemes are either under execution or in contemplation in a number of others. The number of educational institutions maintained by municipal councils rose to 1,016 which was 99 more than in the previous year while the net educational charges amounted to Rs 12 61 lakhs.

In the United Provinces, there has been a considerable, if unostentatious, progress during the

year. Unfortunately, not much progress has been made towards solving the main difficulties which confront municipalities in improving their system of taxation. Efforts have been made to introduce terminal taxes, and with certain boards this source of income is working well. It has also been proposed in some towns to extend the pilgrim tax by a surcharge on the tickets of railway passengers. As in the past the expenditure and income in connection with water supply are far from balancing. In fact, finance is still a greater obstacle which lies in the path of nearly all the boards. So far as district boards are concerned little improvement can be expected while they are financially dependent on Government. It is recognised that their emancipation from official leading strings is the central item in the programme of reform. The U. P. District Boards Act of 1922 aims at making them as independent as is possible and desirable.

In the Punjab municipal administration continued to show improvement, the general attitude of the members in regard to their responsibilities being promising for progress in the future. But the financial position is not quite satisfactory. The total Municipal expenditure exceeded the total income by Rs 777,944. The receipts under the head of Octroi have fallen off considerably. The prevailing tendency towards the substitution of terminal taxes for octroi continued and several important towns, including Lahore are preparing for the change. The expenditure of District Boards also exceeded their revenue during 1921-22 by Rs 14,39,163. The position is grave, but considering the results achieved it is not without hope.

Three Acts of considerable importance, providing for the creation of improvement trusts for the more effective administration of smaller towns and for the establishment of village panchayats have been passed. Further, Municipalities and District Boards have been reconstituted in a more democratic form.

In the Central Provinces, the year 1920 witnessed the passing of a Local Self Government Act which will guide into proper channels the undoubtedly growing interest in public matters. The continued reduction of official members and chairman, and the wider powers of control given to local bodies will be an incentive to the development of local self government, leading to an increased sense of public duty and responsibility. Another very important measure regulating municipalities was passed into law in 1922. Its chief feature, are the extension of the Municipal franchise, the reduction of official and nominated members, the extension of the powers of Municipal Committees and the relaxation of official control.

In the North West Frontier Province, the institution of local self government is somewhat of a foreign growth. Certain of the municipal committees are still lax in the discharge of the responsibilities, and meetings are reported to be infrequent, but the attendance of non-official members is gradually increasing. Except where factional and personal considerations were involved, the members of the municipalities still remained apathetic. The same statement is unfortunately true of district boards, whose members, it is said, evince little real interest in their work.

Local Government Statistics.

Municipalities.—With this general introduction we can now turn to the statistical results of the working of Local Self-Government. The following table gives information as to the constitution of municipal committees, taxation, &c., in the chief provinces in 1920-21 —

	Population within Municipal Limits	Number of Municipalities	Total Number of Members	By Qualification			By Employment		By Race		Incidence of Municipal Taxation per head.	
				Ex-Officio	Nominat- ed.	Elected.	Officials.	Non-Officials.	Euro- peans	Indians.		
Presidency Towns												
Calcutta	903,173	1	50		25	25	3	47		16	34	12 7 6
Bombay	979,445	1	72		16	56	6	66		15	57	14 8 6
Madras	518,660	1	47		9	38	2	45		8	39	6 10 4
Bangoon	284,935	1	25	1	6	18	2	23		12	13	13 7 6
District Municipalities												
Bengal	2,041,511	115	1,596	76	511	60	180	1,436		126	1,470	2 11 7
Bihar and Orissa	1,204,698	58	817	134	204	479	130	667		88	729	1 9 4
Assam	167,877	25	252	40	82	130	43	204		27	225	2 5 0
Bombay and Sind	2,580,854	157	2,380	297	789	1,294	356	1,974		185	2,195	3 13 4
Madras	2,438,077	81	1,217	45	411	761	95	1,122		52	1,165	2 0 3
United Provinces	2,984,773	84	1,054	51	105	898	76	978		72	982	2 5 9
Punjab	1,624,506	101	1,197	211	354	632	225	971		75	1,122	4 2 6
N. W. Frontier Province	141,928	6	117	34	83		34	83		16	101	6 2 9
Central Provinces and Berar	927,104	60	(a) 841	28	242	576	143	699		47	795	2 15 1
Burma	740,972	47	597	172	306	119	187	410		105	492	2 13 7

(a) One seat vacant

Calcutta Improvement Trust.

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The Calcutta Improvement Trust was instituted by Government in January, 1912, with a view to making provision for the improvement and expansion of Calcutta by opening up congested areas, laying out or altering streets, providing open spaces for purposes of ventilation or recreation, demolishing or constructing buildings and rehousing the poorer and working classes displaced by the execution of improvement schemes.

The origin of the Calcutta Improvement Trust must, as in the case of the corresponding Bombay body, upon which the Calcutta Trust was to a large extent modelled, be looked for in a medical enquiry which was instituted into the sanitary condition of the town in 1894, owing to the outbreak of plague. It was estimated that the Trust might in the ensuing 80 years have to provide for the housing of 225,000 persons. The population of Calcutta proper, which includes all the most crowded areas, was 649,995 in 1891, and increased to 801,251, or by 25 per cent., by 1901. The corresponding figure according to the 1911 Census was 894,067 and this had increased by 1921 to 993,508.

The problem of expansion was difficult, because of the peculiar situation of Calcutta, which is shut in on one side by the Hooghly and on the other by the Salt Lake.

Preliminary investigations continued for several years, so that it was only in 1910 that legislation was eventually introduced in the provincial legislature and the Trust instituted by it. The Bill provided for a scheme involving the expenditure of Rs. 5,22,00,000, and for special local taxation to this end. It also provided for the appointment of a whole time chairman of the board of trustees and the membership of the Trust was fixed at eleven.

The following formed the Board of Trustees in 1923-24. Mr. T. Emerson, C.I.E., I.C.S., M.L.C. Chairman, Rai Bahadur Dr. Haridhan Dutta, Chairman of the Corporation of Calcutta (*ex-officio*), Raja Reshee Cassa Law, C.I.E., M.L.C. elected by the Corporation of Calcutta, Rai Nalini Nath Sett Bahadur, elected by the Ward Commissioners, Mr. W. H. Phelps, elected by the Commissioners appointed under Section 8 (2) of the Calcutta Municipal Act, 1899, Mr. A. H. Johnstone, B.A., B.E., A.M.I.C.E., elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, Babu Woomesh Chandra Banerjee, elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, and Mr. H. Sudlow, F.R.I.B.A., Rai Annoda Prosad Sarkar Bahadur, Rai Sahib Bam Deo Chokhanv, and Mr. J. H. Lindsay, I.C.S., appointed by the Local Government.

During the 12 years that it has now been at work, the Trust have decided, and partly or entirely carried through, several improvement schemes for opening up congested areas, laying out or widening streets and providing open spaces. It has spent over 66 crores of rupees on Capital Account, of which 124 crores has gone in Engineering Works and 556 crores on Land Acquisition. It has sold land to the value of 223 crores.

In Central Calcutta many highly insanitary *bustees* have been done away with and several roads of an improved type laid out, the most important of which is the Central Avenue, 100 ft wide, which at present extends from Beadon Street to Bow Bazar Street, a distance of 1½

miles and which will shortly be extended towards the south to link up with Chowringhee, and to Shambazar on the north.

In the north of the City, a park and play ground have been completed and several wide roads driven through that highly congested area. The approaches to the City have also been adequately widened.

The Suburban Areas to the South and South-East of Calcutta required greater attention and extensive development schemes were undertaken. Several open spaces and squares have been made in various parts. Insanitary tanks requiring approximately 2 crores C.ft. of earth have been filled up. Russa Road which forms the southern approach to the town has been widened to 150 ft for a length of one mile and 100 ft for a length of another mile. It now gives a most pleasant drive from Chowringhee to Tollygunge. To improve the drainage of this area a 100 ft wide East to West road, from Ballygunge Railway Station to Chetla Bridge, and for recreation an artificial lake of 167 bighas with adequate grounds are being made.

Lastly, for the housing of the displaced population the Trust has undertaken on a large scale the following schemes—

In the early stages three blocks of chawls were built in Ward Institution Street for persons of the poorer classes. It was found, however, that the persons displaced preferred to take their compensation and migrate to some place where they could erect *busties* of their own, the class of structures they were accustomed to live in. These chawls were then filled with persons of limited means, e.g., School Masters, poor Students, Clerks and persons of the artisan class. As many as 1,200 people are housed in these chawls, these buildings, including land, cost Rs. 2,44,868 and are let at at very low rents—ground floor rooms at Rs. 5 per mensem and top floor rooms at Rs. 6 per mensem each room measuring 12'x12' with a 4 ft verandah in front opening on to a central passage 7 ft wide.

As these chawls failed to attract the people for whom they were meant, the Board next tried an experiment in providing sites for *busties*. Two sites with a lettable area of 16 bighas were acquired within the area of Manikola Municipality, but they failed to attract because they were out of the way and were expensive. A scheme is now being carried out at Paikpara, in Cossipore-Chitpore Municipality. Here 36 bighas of land have been acquired and are being laid out in building sites for sale to middle class people who will build their own houses. A large park is also under construction in this area.

The Trust has also built a cluster of houses in Korbala Tank Lane, off Beadon Street, to house temporarily persons whose residences have been acquired, while they are building new houses.

Finally, the Trust has under construction in Bow Street a number of blocks of one, two and three roomed tenements capable of accommodating 500 people. These are intended for Anglo-Indians, who have been displaced in the area to the East of Bentinck Street.

The single roomed tenements are just ready and have been greatly in demand by the people for whom they are intended.

BOMBAY IMPROVEMENT TRUST.

Bombay is an island twelve miles long, but very narrow and containing only 22 square miles altogether, but in the city, occupying little more than half the island, there lives a population enumerated at 1,175,914 at the Census in 1931, and actually totalling at the present time, according to conservative estimates, over a million and a quarter. Bombay is, in point of population, the second city of the British Empire. Seventy six per cent of its people live in one-roomed tenements. A terrible visitation of plague in 1896 harshly directed attention to the insanitary conditions arising from overcrowding and as it was recognised that the task of affecting the required improvements was too great for the Municipality, a special body, termed the Trustees for the Improvement of the City of Bombay, was appointed. It consists of 14 members, of whom four are elected by the Municipality and one each by the Chamber of Commerce, the Millowners' Association and the Port Trust, and the balance nominated by Government, or sit *ex officio* as officers of Government. The Board is presided over by a whole time chairman appointed by Government and he is also head of the executive. The present chairman and members of the Trust are as follows —

Chairman—

Mr R H A Delves, F.S.I.

Ex-officio Trustees—Major-General H A V Cummins, C.B., C.M.G.
Officer Commanding Bombay District

Mr J P Brander, I.C.S., Collector of Bombay

Mr H B Clayton, M.A., J.P. Municipal Commissioner for the City of Bombay

Elected by the Corporation—

Dr K E Dadachanj, J.P.

Mr V A Dabholkar, C.B.E., J.P.

Mr Naoroji M Dumasla, J.P.

The Hon Mr P O Sethna, C.B.E., J.P.

Elected by the Chamber of Commerce—

Mr. Harry T Gorrie, J.P.

Elected by the Port Trustees—

Mr P R Cadell, C.S.I., C.L.E., I.C.S.

Elected by the Millowners' Association—

Mr S D Saklatvala.

Nominated by Government—

Sir Lawless Hepper, Kt. J.P.

Mr Mirza AH Mahomedkhan, M.A., LL.B., J.P.

Dr S. B. Batilwala

The specific duties of the Trust are to construct new and widen old streets, open out squatted localities, reclaim lands from the sea to provide room for expansion, and construct sanitary dwellings for the poor (including the Franchisee Police) and also at the cost of employment of labour for the labourers employed.

Bombay city grew on haphazard lines houses being added as population poured in with the growth of trade and without any regard to town planning or the sanitary requirements of a great town. The price of land was always comparatively high, owing to the small area of the island, and while the builder had only one object in view, namely, to collect as many rent paying tenants as possible on the smallest possible piece of land, there were no proper restraints to compel him to observe the most ordinary rules of hygiene. The result was the erection of great houses, sometimes five and six storeys high, constituting mere nests of rooms. There was no adequate restriction as to the height of these chawls or the provision of surrounding open space, so that the elementary rules as to the admission of light and air went unobserved and the house builder invariably erected a building extending right up to the margins of his site. Consequently, great houses accommodating from a few hundred to as many as four thousand tenants were built with no more than two or three feet between any two of them and with hundreds of rooms having no opening at all into the outer air.

The Trust has practically reconstructed large areas on modern sanitary lines, but the old municipal by laws having until within the past year remained quite inadequate for the due control of private building operations by the Municipality, the Trust have spent millions sterling of public money in sweeping away abuses, while unscrupulous landlords, still unchecked, added in the same old manner to the insanitary conditions of the place. It is hoped that the amendment of the by-laws, as recently settled, will overcome this evil of bad building.

Certain Government and Municipal lands were vested in the Trust, the usufruct of which it enjoys, and the Trust receives a contribution from municipal revenues amounting to a definite share in the general tax receipts, approximating to 2 per cent on assessments and subject to no maximum. Works were financed out of 4 per cent loans, until the war stopped borrowing by the Trust, the loans being guaranteed by the Municipality and Government, and the revenue of the Trust being used to meet interest and sinking fund charges. Short term loans were raised in 1919 and 1920 at 6 per cent interest and for the last three years loans are borrowed from Government (at rates of interest varying between 6 per cent and 7 per cent).

The salient features of the Trust's programme of 69 schemes as completed or sanctioned up to 1923-24 may be summarised as follows.

The total capital expenditure up to 31st March 1924 was Rs. 1,526 lakhs. The margin for expansion is about Rs. 161 lakhs. The total borrowings stand at Rs. 1,854 lakhs, involving interest and sinking fund charges of Rs. 81 lakhs per annum.

Plan of Operations.

The work of the Trust, as epitomised by these figures, can be divided into two parts. The first concerned the immediate alleviation of

the worst burdens of insanitation and the second consisted of opening up new residential areas. The Trust began by attacking the most insanitary areas, cutting broad roads through them. Meanwhile, large areas of good building land, lying idle for want of development works, were developed and brought on the market, sold at remunerative rates and largely built upon. Instances of this development are the Chaurpati and Gamdevi estates, the land overhung by Malabar Hill, between it and the native city. These were cut up with fine new roads and are now nearly covered with modern suburban dwellings. Two of the most insanitary quarters in the midst of the city have been levelled to the ground and rebuilt in accordance with hygienic principles. Sanitary chawls have been built for over 21,000 persons.

The death-rate in the Trust's permanent chawls has always been considerably below the general death-rate in the vicinity. The smallest one room tenement on the Trust Estate is large enough for a family of five.

The second phase of the Trust's work, arising gradually out of the first and advancing along with its later stages, consists of the development of a new suburban area in the north of the island, beyond the present city, and the construction of great arterial thoroughfares traversing the island from north to south.

During the past few years there has been an important movement towards the establishment of co-partnership housing societies on the Board's Estate. The Board regard the new departure as one deserving every encouragement at their hands, especially in connection with the disposal of land in their suburbs in the north of the island and sites have been given to societies on specially favourable terms, and have granted valuable concessions to the Society which approached them for plots on the latter agreeing to limit their dividends.

The Board have prevented, as far as possible, profiteering on their estates, by preventing the transfer of plots before completion of buildings.

Enormous schemes for the expansion of housing in the city are now passing through the final stages before being put into execution. Government, the Improvement Trust and the great employers of labour will all be concerned in the work and the Improvement Trust have floated a huge new programme, their new schemes sanctioned representing a greater undertaking than all their former schemes put together.

The new schemes of the Trust concern the northern part of Bombay Island, where large opportunities for suburban development offer themselves. At Worli on the north-west of the island, at Dharavi on the north, and at Sewri and Wadala on the north-east, the Trust have undertaken development schemes involving the acquisition and development of 1,558 acres, or 2 43 square miles, that is, between 1/9th and 1/10th of the whole area of the Bombay Island. A considerable amount of filling of low-lying land is involved and for this purpose material from the hills on the north-east and north-west of the island will be utilised, the hills being lowered in such a manner as to level them into desirable building sites. Room will be provided for more than a quarter of a million new population, equal to nearly 1/3th of the present total population of the city, in the three new estates when they are fully developed and the recoupment which the Trust will derive from the disposal of building sites upon them will repay almost the whole of the enormous capital outlay.

Government have decided to transfer the functions of the Trust to the Municipality and the necessary formalities and legislation to effect the transfer are receiving attention at their hands.

Bombay Development Scheme.

The Bombay Development Scheme in its widest sense represents concerted attempts by the three local bodies, the Municipality, the City Improvement Trust and the Port Trust, each working in its own sphere, and by the Government to secure the rapid and adequate development of the city.

The Municipality is developing various areas in the city which will result in providing increased residential and business accommodation. The Mahim scheme will provide two main avenues running north to south, in addition to the 60 feet road from Worli to Mahim Bazar, now practically completed, and a large number of cross roads. It aims at the development of an area in which it may be possible to house approximately a population of 250,000. Provision has been made for a central park with a frontage on the bay and for a smaller park near the southern end of the area. The main contribution of the Municipality, however, towards the general development scheme lies in the great water and drainage projects which it is undertaking and which are essential for the health and well-being of the city.

Improvement Trust.—The Improvement Trust are developing the north of the island on a large scale and at a rapid pace, completing their old schemes, Dadar-Matunga and Slon Matunga, and pressing on with the new schemes, adopted in 1919, the total area of which amounts to about one-ninth of the area of the whole island. Of the latter, the Worli scheme will provide for three classes of people, the richer class on the sea face, the middle class on the main road, and very large areas for the working classes on the land which is now being reclaimed in the neighbourhood of the mills. At Dharavi the land now occupied by the tanneries and the swamps to the south will be converted into a magnificent garden suburb, including a large amount of accommodation for the working classes. The Sewri Wadala scheme is intended entirely for the working and lower middle classes, and the area included in it will, when the contemplated railway connections are made, be within easy access by rail from Victoria Terminus.

Port Trust.—The Port Trust is completing the preparation of a scheme for a great expansion of

the docks, the new docks to be located on the south-west corner of Trombay. The construction of the new cotton depot on the Margao-Bewri reclamation has been completed and has released for other purposes the ground now occupied by the Cotton Green.

Programme—The works which Government propose to carry out themselves are as follows—

(a) The provision of one room tenements for the working classes, to meet an actual existing shortage of accommodation as reported by the Municipal Commissioner in 1919

(b) The Back Bay and East Colaba Reclamation, to reduce congestion in the business area and provide residential accommodation and open spaces in the south of the City

(c) The development of South Salsette, including Trombay, partly for residential and partly for industrial purposes

(d) The provision of other industrial areas at greater distances

(e) The improvement of communications to the suburban areas

(f) The improvement of the supply and transport of building materials

The question of special measures for the development of Bombay was under the consideration of Government for many years. The results of the last general survey of the subject are contained in the report of the Bombay Development Committee submitted in May 1914. The war made it impossible then to carry out any large schemes as to formulate a definite policy. And when the war had come to an end, it was found that owing to the large increase in the City's population during the war, and the high prices of materials, conditions were much worse than before, and that more rapid and more drastic action was necessary.

Scope of Work—In a speech to the Legislative Council in August 1920, His Excellency the Governor explained that the industrial housing scheme, which Government consider essential, would be carried out by them direct, instead of being entrusted to the Municipality or the Improvement Trust, because of the very heavy liabilities which already rested on those bodies. He introduced a Bill for the levy of a cess of one rupee per bale on cotton imported into Bombay, the proceeds of which would be used partly to provide additional revenue for the Municipality in view of its large programme of expenditure, partly to meet the loss anticipated on the housing scheme, and partly to assist development schemes in Salsette.

He announced Government's decision to establish a new Development Department, and Directorate, which would be at once a department of Government, detached as far as possible from the ordinary Secretariat, and an executive organisation, and defined its duties as under:—

(a) To carry out the Back Bay Reclamation Scheme and any other reclamation schemes which may be found necessary in or near Bombay City.

(b) To undertake the industrial housing scheme of 50,000 one-roomed tenements for the working classes in Bombay

(c) To organise systematically the supply of building materials for its own work and for the works with which it is connected.

(d) To take over all questions relating to the acquisition of land in Bombay City and all questions regarding the utilisation of Government land.

(e) To carry out large schemes for the systematic development of Salsette—

(i) by town planning schemes to be carried out by local authorities, and

(ii) by the purchase of areas outright with a view to resale after development.

(f) To secure an adequate water supply for the whole of Salsette when it is developed as an urban area.

(g) To deal with the supply and distribution of electrical energy, both for domestic and industrial purposes in the area outside Bombay

(h) To take up the question of the improvement of communications to link up Bombay City with the areas to be developed in Salsette and Trombay

He stated also that, in view of the magnitude of the schemes to be undertaken simultaneously by Government and the local bodies, Government had decided that the finance of the whole scheme should be pooled, that they should lend their credit to the local bodies, and appeal to the public for the money required by them as well as by Government themselves. The result of this decision was the Bombay Development Loan of 1920, the subscriptions to which amounted to Rs. 939 lakhs in round figures. Of this amount, Rs. 695 lakhs were lent to the local bodies, the balance being retained by Government. Further loans aggregating Rs. 115½ lakhs (including a temporary loan of Rs. 12 lakhs to the Municipality for the Mahim Scheme) have been made to the local bodies up to the end of 1923-24 from advances made by the Government of India for development purposes.

Personnel—The whole Development Department, including the Directorate, is in charge of the Hon'ble Mr. Cowasjee Jahangir, C.I.E., O.S.E., as General Member of Council. The Director of Development is in charge of the executive organisation and staff, subject to the orders of Government. The Deputy Director, in addition to assisting the Director in executive matters, is Secretary to Government in the Development Department, and also Commissioner for the Bombay Suburban Division, which includes the areas in Salsette and the Ambarnath taluka, in which development schemes are being carried out.

The Back Bay Reclamation works and the East Colaba Reclamation Project are in charge of a Chief Engineer (under the Director), assisted by three Deputy Chief Engineers, one in combined charge of the Marine Lines Section and of the Quarry near Kandivle Station from which materials for the wall are being obtained, one at Colaba and one for the Dredging Section. This branch is detached from the remainder of the engineering staff.

For development works other than the reclamation, the Director is Chief Engineer and is assisted by two Superintending Engineers. One is in charge of industrial housing and the materials division and one of development works in Salsette

The appointment of Salsette Development Officer, created many years ago, has been absorbed in the Directorate, and the holder of it is also Collector of the Suburban District, and in charge of the staff employed on the acquisition of land in the suburban area. There is a Land Manager, who is employed on valuations, the preparation of details of schemes, negotiations with land owners, management of chawls in Bombay City, etc. As the existing land revenue survey is not nearly accurate enough for land to be developed as an Urban area, a Superintendent of Suburban survey was appointed to make a survey on the general lines of the Bombay City survey. A detailed survey on a scale of 40 feet to an inch, of the whole area, extending from Bandra to just north of Andheri and comprising all the town planning and suburban schemes situated on both sides of the B B and C I Railway has been completed.

The Government of India have appointed a special Audit and Accounts Officer for the Bombay Development Scheme, and have authorised his appointment as Deputy Financial Adviser, and the appointment of the Deputy Controller of Currency as Financial Adviser to the Development Department.

SIR LAWRENCE HEPPEL, Kt, J.P., Director of Development.

R D BALL, CIE, ICS, Deputy Director of Development, Secretary to Government, Development Department, and Commissioner Bombay Suburban Division

H St C SMITH, J.P., Deputy Secretary to Government, Development Department Secretary to the Development Directorate and Assistant Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division

H A ELDER, MICE, Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch

G M O BORKE CIE, MBE B.A.L.A.M. I.C.E., Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch

C B BRIMS, Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch

P BILLINGTON, Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch

W H THOMAS, A.C.G.I., A.M.I.C.E., Executive Engineer, Projects

W F ANDERSON, Executive Engineer, Reclamation Branch

C G CROUDACE, Executive Engineer in-charge, Quarry Section

T HARVEY, M.B.C., M.I.C.E., Superintending Engineer, No 1, Housing and Materials Division

J R. COLABAWALLA, M.S.E. (Lond.), M.I.E. (India), Assoc. M. Am Soc. I.E., Assoc. A.I.E.E., Executive Engineer, Bombay Housing District No. 1.

A. HAMID, F.S.C., Executive Engineer, Bombay Housing District No. II.

RAO SAHEB P. S. KRISHNASWAMI AYYAR, Executive Engineer, Bombay Housing Sanitary District.

W K CALDWELL, Executive Engineer, Mechanical District

A F MACDONALD CLARK, M.A., B.Sc., M.I.C.E., J.P., Superintending Engineer, No 2, Suburban Division

T S SOORMA, B.E., Executive Engineer, Suburban Sanitary and Andheri Districts.

G W T SQUIRES, Executive Engineer, Kurla-Trombay District

A. LENNOX STANTON, M.I.E. (India), M.A.M.S.E., A.M.I.E.E., Electrical and Mechanical Engineer.

T A PEREIRA, Executive Engineer, Central Salsette Railway

W J NEWLAND, Superintendent, Bombay Suburban Survey

CAPTAIN E M GILBERT LODGE, F.S.I., F.I.A., F.A.I., Land Manager, Development Directorate.

E W PERRY, I.C.S., J.P., Collector, Bombay Suburban District and Salsette Development Officer

Audit and Finance

J C NIXON, I.C.S., Financial Adviser to Government

S M L BRAN, Deputy Financial Adviser to Government and Audit and Accounts Officer, Bombay Development Scheme

Military Lands Scheme

Colonel R St J GILLESPIE CIE, O.B.E., Secretary, Board of Control and Chief Engineer

Major A H C Trench, CIE, R.E., M.I.E.E., Deputy Chief Engineer.

Industrial Housing—In Bombay City, apart from some minor schemes affecting Government properties, the work of the Directorate consists of Industrial Housing and the Back Bay Reclamation. There are four housing schemes in progress and Government have decided that till these are complete additional land is not to be taken up for industrial housing and further new schemes are not to be embarked on without Government approval. The progress in each scheme in September 1924 was as under—

- 1 *Nauvaum*—42 chawls, of which 19 have been completed
- 2 *DeLisle Road*—32 chawls, of which 27 have been completed and the rest are near completion
- 3 *Worli*—121 chawls, of which 20 chawls have been completed and 60 require only drainage and water supply connections.
- 4 *Securi*—16 chawls for the workmen at the Cotton Depot, of which 2 have been completed.

Out of the 5,120 tenements completely ready for occupation, about 3,900 are already occupied. Provision has been made for shops in the chawls at Worli, Naigaum and Sewri.

The average economic rent of the chawls works out at Rs 14-8-0 per month per tenement without a *nakani*; and at Rs 15-8-0 per month per tenement with a *nakani*.

The average minimum rent fixed for the present per month for each tenement with and without a *nakani* is Rs 11 and Rs 10 respectively. On this basis there is a loss of Rs 54 per tenement which is being met from the cotton cess.

All the four housing schemes referred to are expected to be complete before the end of 1925.

Reclamation—As regards Back Bay the quarry has been equipped for a continuous output of 2,000 tons a day, the product varying from crushed stone and ordinary rubble to blocks weighing up to 10 tons. There is through rail way communication to the Marine Lines section, and this has been extended to the Colaba section. At Marine Lines 6,180 feet of the wall, mass concrete on a rubble bank, have been completed, and the first section of the wall at Colaba, 2,000 feet of mass concrete built directly on the reef is completed. The remainder of the wall at the Colaba end will consist of mass concrete built on a rubble mound, as at Marine Lines 6,710 feet of this rubble mound has been completed and the extension of the concrete wall has been completed up to 3,736 feet. A cross wall to form the first compartment for filling has been completed at Colaba and the filling was commenced at Colaba and about 5,28,000 cubic yards of material has been deposited.

Salsette—In Salsette the widening and far macadamizing of the surface has been completed in the greater portion of the Bandra Andheri Road. The Malad-Marve Road, including the construction of a bridge, has been completed, while the first section of the Kolwada-Borla Road, which will afford direct road communication between Bombay and Trombay has also been finished. Quarrying and reclamation works have been carried out at Gilbert Hill, Andheri, and progress has been made in town planning schemes. The development scheme at Khar, between the Khar station and the sea, known as Khar Model Suburb, and a small scheme at Chapel Road Bandra, have been worked out. These provide for about 863 and 140 building plots, respectively. The Khar railway station has now been opened to traffic and most of the roads in the developed portion of the Khar scheme have been constructed. A considerable area in the Chapel Road Scheme, in which all roads have been constructed, has been sold, while at Khar also a large area has been disposed of. A small development scheme for an area of about 20 acres in Danda village has also been worked out and the construction of roads in the scheme is in progress. Five roads have been completed in the residential scheme in Kiroli-North. An industrial area at Kurla-Kiroli, for smaller industries, has been provided. One plot was

sold therein for a small match factory which has been erected and brought into use. Considerable progress has been made in the provision of water-supply, especially in Santa Cruz and Juhu, while arrangements for additions to the Andheri water-supply are nearing completion.

In Trombay there are three large schemes. Trombay North East is intended to provide for (a) a new municipal slaughter house, tanneries, dye works and other noxious trades which ought to be removed from the City (b) a separate area for milch cattle stables, (c) residential areas for the people employed in the tanneries, etc. Trombay North West is intended to provide a residential area for the lower middle class on good land surrounding on three sides the existing Chembur village and extending to the south and east. The development of Trombay West will depend on the detailed proposals of the Port Trust as regards the new docks.

In Trombay North West, which is intended to be a residential area, the development of a gross area of 570 acres, to provide over 3,100 building plots, has been worked out in detail. The Chembur sector of this scheme which has been designated Chembur Garden Suburb, has now a road system completed and has been provided with a pipe water supply. A passenger service between Kurla and Chembur has been started by the G.I.P. Railway and it is well patronised especially in the mornings and evenings. The earth work for the extension of the line from Chembur to Trombay was taken in hand and completed as far as Mandala station which will serve the new tannery area. The filling in of the tannery area has been completed and pending settlement of the question of the removal of this trade from the Island of Bombay, the work of constructing roads, drainage, water supply, etc., in the area has been postponed.

The Salsette-Trombay Railway runs from Anik to Kurla and then through the Shahar area, lying between the G.I.P. and B.B. & C.I. Railways to Andheri. This railway is now practically complete as a single line, except for the bridge over the G.I.P. Ry at Kurla, the construction of which is in progress through the agency of the G.I.P. Railway Company. The main objects of the railway are to bring stone for road making in Salsette from the quarries in Trombay and to provide a tramway service to open up the areas, through which it passes, which are at present without any means of communication. As road making in Salsette is in abeyance owing to the prevailing stagnation in the land market, the line is not required for stone traffic at present, but proposals are under consideration for running a tramway service between Andheri and Kurla and eventually to Anik when the bridge at Kurla is completed.

With the view to help people of moderate means to become owners of their homes, Government have sanctioned a scheme of financial assistance to intending purchasers of plots in the residential schemes of the Development Directorate. The essential feature of this scheme is that Government will advance, at

6 per cent interest, a sum equal to 4th is of the cost of land and $\frac{1}{2}$ the cost of the building which it is intended to erect, the advance being repayable in instalments spread over a period not exceeding fifteen years

Industrial Town—The Ambernath Development Scheme aims at creating a new township to establish industries with all modern facilities. During the year, a site was sold at Ambernath to the Western India Match Company and an up-to-date factory established on it. Owing to the increase in the population and industries of the area the temporary water supply became inadequate but the permanent supply is now almost ready for distribution. The approach roads to all existing factories were completed, together with a road connecting Ambernath Station with the Kalyan Badlapur Road. Roads for staff bungalows and workmen's quarters have practically been finished. The existing sewage arrangements are by means of septic tanks, but a small activated sludge plant is being installed as an experiment and if successful will probably be extended to deal with the sewage of the area. A market to serve the residents of the area has also been provided. The G. I. P. Railway are running a shuttle service between Kalyan and Badlapur with a good number of passengers and are considering the question of remodelling Ambernath station to deal with the traffic of the factories. An arterial siding for the factories is also being arranged by the Railway Company.

The main water scheme is located at Badlapur, 5 miles from Ambernath Station. The works comprise: (a) A barrage across the Ulhas River about 14 miles from the railway station, which has been completed. (b) A set of Paterson rapid filters to filter three million gallons of water daily. (c) Protection wall for the Ulhas left bank. The filtration plant, with the exception of a few minor items, is finished and will be in working order shortly. Owing to delay in arrival of the permanent motor driven pumping plant from England a temporary engine and pump were erected to fill the reservoir during the hot weather.

The provision of a small power station has also been undertaken. It will supply electric energy for running the permanent pumping plant at Badlapur and will meet the demands of the present factories in the area. The plant has been so laid out that it can easily be supplemented, should further demands arise in the future. The power house has been practically completed and the plant is under erection.

Supplies.—As regards materials, arrangements have been made with a group of Indian Companies for the supply of all the cement likely to be required by the Development Directorate for 10 years, the local bodies in Bombay having an option of participating, if they wish to do so. Additional sidings have been constructed at Mumbai, the principal source of supply of sand and shingle. A suitable dredging plant for getting shingle and sand from the river bed has been obtained and is now working at Mumbai. A contract has been made for the handling of the material ex-

changed into wagons on the siding at Mumbai. Owing to the successful working of the dredger the source of supply of sand will now be confined to Mumbai and no further sidings will be laid down at other points. Railway sidings from Mahalaxmi to the Worli Housing site and from Lower Parel to the DeLisle Road site, for the transport of materials, have been constructed. A depot has been established and sidings are completed at Matunga. These sidings will be used for materials required on development schemes in Bombay not accessible by rail, and facilities can be given to the public engaged in building in the north of the Island. A small fleet of steam wagons and trailers has been provided for the transport of materials, and in connection with the proposed development of Balsette and Trombay, small workshops capable of expansion as required have been erected near Kolkalyan and Wadavi near Chembur.

Military Lands—Arrangements have been made with the Government of India involving the relinquishment by the military authorities of practically all the land they hold in the Fort area. The services displaced are to be reinstated partly at Deolali and partly at Colaba, where the military area is to be increased by about 265 acres at the southern end of the Back Bay Reclamation. The Government of India have to pay the Government of Bombay for this land, and this payment and the cost of new buildings, etc., due to the removal of the military from the Fort are to be covered by the sale of the land to be vacated. A large area of land on the Palton Road Estate (formerly the old Palton Road Lines) has been sold to the Bombay Municipality. A few plots on the estate and another in Carnac Road have also been sold. The plots available for sale in the Mazagon Defence Yard site have all been sold, while the small site known as the Old Saluting Battery site, situated at Strand Street on the Harbour Face, south of the Apollo Bunder, was sold to the Port Trust for road widening. The old town barracks in the Fort have been sold to the Bombay Municipality in connection with its Hornby Road Ballard Pier Scheme. New Indian Infantry Lines at Carney Lines near Marine Lines and New Indian Infantry Lines at Deolali have been completed, while the temporary Mechanical Transport Depot at Colaba and the officers' quarters at Colaba are nearing completion. The Pilot Bunder flats at Colaba have also been completed and the quarters for the General Officer Commanding, Bombay District, at Colaba, are under construction. The Bombay Military Lands Scheme is in charge of a Board of Control, consisting of the Director of Development and the General Officer Commanding, Bombay District. The Audit and Accounts Officer, Bombay Development Scheme, is also Financial Adviser and Audit Officer for the Military Scheme. The Staff employed on this scheme do not form part of the Development Directorate, but work in the same building, and in conjunction with the Directorate. As military land becomes ready for disposal, it is handed over by the military authorities to the Bombay Government, and action in regard to its disposal is taken by the Development Directorate under the orders of Government.

The Indian Ports.

The administration of the affairs of the larger ports (*Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, Rangoon and Chittagong*) is vested by law in bodies specially constituted for the purpose. They have wide powers, but their proceedings are subject in a greater degree than those of municipal bodies to the control of Government. Except in Calcutta, the elected members are fewer in number than the nominated members. At all the ports the European members constitute the majority and the Board for Rangoon consists mainly of European members.

The income, expenditure and capital debt, according to the latest figures obtainable from the Department of Statistics (India) of the five principal ports managed by Trusts (Aden is excluded from the tables) are shown in the following table —

—	Income	Expenditure	Capital Debt.
	£	£	£
Calcutta	1,270,568	1,227,628	6,852,080
Bombay	1,811,202	1,242,194	10,817,716
Karachi	871,412	831,348	1,717,408
Madras	131,463	134,529	907,510
Rangoon	848,481	288,727	1,990,800

In the Department of Statistics, India, the following returns have been compiled, showing the ratios borne by the income and the expenditure of each port to the total income and the

total expenditure, respectively, of all the chief Indian ports during the year 1918-19, the latest period for which the compilation is obtainable —

—	Income per cent.	Expenditure per cent.
Calcutta	36.7	37.8
Bombay	37.8	38.2
Madras	8.8	4.1
Karachi	10.7	10.2
Rangoon	10.0	8.7
Chittagong	1.0	1.0

The latest return of the Department of Statistics shows that in the ten years ending 1918-19, the income and expenditure of each port have increased as shown in the following table. The total income of all the ports has increased in the decade by 91.0 per cent. and the total expenditure by 79.9 per cent. —

—	Increase per cent.	
	Income.	Expenditure
Calcutta	61.0	53.5
Bombay	158.7	158.7
Madras	45.7	40.3
Karachi	65.7	70.3
Rangoon	78.3	27.2
Chittagong	280.3	133.2

The war has affected the trade of all the ports in a manner which makes it useless to continue comparisons up to date on the lines of the foregoing figures.

CALCUTTA.

The Commissioners for the Port of Calcutta are as follows —

Appointed by Government —

Mr S C Stuart-Williams, M.L.C. Chairman

Mr T H Elderton Deputy Chairman

Elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce —
 Mr B E G Eddis, M.L.C. (Messrs. Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co.), Mr W F Reynolds (Messrs. Macneil & Co.), Sir Willoughby Carey, M.L.C. (Messrs. Bird & Co.), Mr H C Edmondson (Messrs. Turner Morrison & Co.) Mr William O Currie, M.L.C. (Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.), Mr J A Tassie (Messrs. James, Finlay & Co.)

Elected by the Calcutta Trades Association. —
 Mr W H. Phelps (William, Heath & Co.)

Elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce. — Mr J C Banerjee.

Elected by the Municipal Corporation of Calcutta. — Raja Bashee Cass Law, C.I.E., M.L.C.

Nominated by Government — Sir George Godfrey (Agent, Bengal Nagpur Railway), Mr G L Colvin, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O. (Agent, East Indian Rly.), Col G E Hearn, C.I.E. (Agent Eastern Bengal Rly.), Mr W W Nind (Collector of Customs) and Captain O Goldsmith, R.N.

The principal officers of the Trust are —
Secretary — Mr N G Park, C.A. (Offg.)

Traffic Manager — W A Burns

Chief Accountant — Mr E J Robertson.

Chief Engineer — Mr J McQuishan, M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator — Commander E A Constable, R.N.

Medical Officer — Lt.-Col E P Wilson, F.R.C.S., F.M.S.

Consulting Engineer and London Agent. — Mr J Angus, M. Inst. C.E.

The traffic figures and the income of the Trust for the last eleven years are as follows —

Year	Docks.			Jetties.	Nett tonnage of shipping entering the Port.	Income.
	General Export	Coal Export	Imports	Imports		
	Tons	Tons				Ra.
1913-14	1,231,589	3,017,180	613,876	1,186,797	4,256,987	1,51,23,485
1914-15	920,659	2,633,805	700,133	917,978	3,714,844	1,44,50,349
1915-16	1,064,985	1,610,645	570,997	788,481	2,967,798	1,69,35,456
1916-17	1,185,159	1,994,528	444,210	686,010	2,804,680	1,57,23,432
1917-18	995,112	1,014,993	363,383	633,693	2,094,011	1,58,39,175
1918-19	1,097,562	1,333,285	482,403	575,833	2,292,462	1,90,53,513
1919-20	1,146,479	2,264,976	653,066	713,746	2,941,646	2,23,55,614
1920-21	1,133,719	3,046,400	413,357	685,080	4,017,514	2,66,08,032
1921-22	974,783	1,687,222	697,861	622,411	3,446,021	2,19,17,042
1922-23	1,414,166	1,174,041	304,109	680,053	3,336,722	2,64,75,522
1923-24	1,722,305	1,325,801	221,035	761,920	3,621,243	2,60,89,027

BOMBAY.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES—Appointed by Government.—P R Cadell, O.B.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Chairman) Sir Lawrence Hepper, Kt., H. B. Clayton, C.I.E., I.C.S., Major General Sir Henry Freeland, K.C.I.E., O.B., D.S.O., M.V.O., Captain E J Headlam, O.B.I., O.M.G., D.S.O., R.I.M., The General Officer Commanding Bombay District, Major General H.A.V. Cummins, O.B., O.M.G., R. McLean and A M Green, I.C.S.

Elected by the Chamber of Commerce—H T Gorrie, F O Annesley, A K Graham, L S Hudson, and T E Cunningham

Elected by the Indian Merchants' Chamber—Sir Purnhotandas Thakurdas, Kt., O.B., M.B.E., Devidas Madhavlji Thakersey, Lalji Naranji Unotlaji Kishchand, Ishwardas Lakhmides

Elected by the Municipality—Hon'ble Phiroze C Sethna, O.B.E., and Fazul Ibrahim Bahimulla.

Elected by the Millowners' Association—N B Saklatvala, C.I.E.

The following are the principal officers of the Trust —

SECRETARY'S DEPARTMENT

Ballard Road, Fort.

Secretary, W B S Sharpe, Deputy Secretary, N M Morris and C M Henson, B.A.,

Probdr. A S Bakre, B.A. (Hon.), (Cantab) Head Clerks, Sokerjee Bapuji and J D Mhatre

CHIEF ACCOUNTANTS'S DEPARTMENT

49 Chief Acctt, C P Gay, Deputy Acctt, J F Pereira, B.A. Asst Acctts, W E McDonnell, and B S Turkhad, J.P. (junr), Jr Asst Acctts, R O Collier and Ramrao Nanabhooy Vagal, Expenditure Auditor, H W Scott, Cashier, N R Gidh, Audit Land Inspector, Trimabak Shrivam, Ry Audit Inspectors, A N Moos W Caelling and R C Palais, Supdt, Stores Accounts Branch, O Hyde, Supdt, Establishment Branch, V D Jog

CHIEF ENGINEER'S DEPARTMENT

Chief Engineer, W H Neilson, O.B.E., M.A., M.A.I., M.I.N.E.R., M.I. Mech. E Deputy Chief Engineer, J McClure, M.I.O.E. Executive Engineers, C W Wales M.I.C.E., B C Bowlandson, A Hale-White, M.A., A.M.I.O.E., and F G Carron, M.I.O.E. Senior Assistant Engineers, G E Terry, F J Green, B.S.O. (Hon.), A.M.I.O.E., and A G Milne Engineering Assistants, E L Everett & J A Rolfe Architects J A Macdonald M.S.A., Personal Assistant to the Chief Engineer T B Hawkins Coasting Supdt, W D Road Mechanical Supdt, R McMurray, M.I.M.E. Asst. Mechanical Supdt, E F Elton, A.M.I.E.E., A.M.I.M.E., B B McGregor, E G Bowers, A.M.I.E.E., B C Sharpe and B J Watt, Chief Foreman, A. C. Stradley, M.I.M.A.E.E.

DOCKS MANAGER'S DEPARTMENT.

Docks Manager, C N RICH, B.A., *Deputy Docks Managers*, F A Borrislow and W G H Templeton, *Deputy Managers* (Office), P A Davies; *Asst. Docks Managers* 1st and 2nd grade E C Jolley, E H P Bow A Mathow, I E Walsh Nusserwanjee Jejeebhoy F J Warder, Eustomjee Shapurjee, D L Lynn and C W Bond, *Probationer*, F Seymour Williams (*Cash*) *Superintendent* Frank Cordeiro *Office Assistant* P B Fenner, (*Cash*) C Ramchandra Raghoba

RAILWAY MANAGER'S DEPARTMENT

Railway Manager J R Revynolds, C.I.E. V.D. *Deputy Ry Managers* D G Mearns E G Lilley, B.A. and A F Watts *Assistant Railway Managers*, M G N Elbow, H A Gaydon, and M S Ratnapur B.A. (Hon.) L.B. *Probationer* E W Patrick Nadir *Asst Traffic Supdt* C F Chard, *Office Supdt* W H Brady

PORT DEPARTMENT

Port Officer Capt. H Morland, R.I.M., I.P. *Asst Port Officer* (Land) E V Whish, O.B. *R.I.M. Harbour Master* (S) J Mackenzie *Alexander Dock Senior Dock Master* H E Johnson, *Dock Master* G J Chamberlain, *Senior Asst Dock Master* C Halle *Asst Dock Master* H Birch, *Berthing Masters* W J Barter H F Eddows, Douglas Broadly, Loy dail and J Morton, *Prince's and Victoria Docks Locks Masters* W S Houskinson (Victoria Dock), and B G Butchart (Prince's Dock) *Asst Dock Masters* J A Puddington and W E Rivers *Berthing Masters* W P K Bigg, G J Kedge and W D Gordon

LAND AND PUNDERS DEPARTMENT

Manager, F H Taylor, P.A.S.I. M.B.S.I. *Deputy Manager*, B C Durant *Office Supdt* W O'Brien, *Asst Managers*, S J Plunkett W H Cummings and C P Watson *Chief Inspector* G C Battenberg *Head Clerk* D A Pereira

CONTROLLER OF STORES DEPARTMENT

Controller of Stores, H F Ives *1st Assistant* W J Wilson *2nd Assistant* G P Dooley *Office Supdt.* B F Davidson

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

Administrative Medical Officer, Dr W Nunan B.A., M.D., B.Och. *Medical Officers*, Dr F D Bana, M.B., M.R.C.S., Port Trust Dispensary Prince's Dock, Dr A D Karkhanawalla, M.B.B.S., Wadala Dispensary

The revenue of the Trust in 1923-24 amounted to Rs 2,56,42,273. The expenditure amounted to Rs 2,57,70,093. The net deficit on the year's working was Rs 1,27,820, which has been met from the Revenue Reserve Fund, the balance of which at the close of the year amounted to Rs 57,89,141. The aggregate capital expenditure during the year was Rs 1,28,07,107. The total debt of the Trust at the end of the year amounted to Rs 22,24,53,004.

The trade of the Port of Bombay during the last official year aggregated 329 crores in value.

The following statement shows the number of steam and square-rigged vessels which during recent years have entered the docks or been berthed at the harbour walls and paid dues excluding those which have remained for unloading and loading in the harbour stream

Year	Number	Tonnage
1907-08	1,477	2,678,345
1908-09	1,474	2,683,303
1909-10	1,611	2,747,779
1910-11	1,589	2,866,623
1911-12	1,519	2,767,913
1912-13	1,566	2,924,506
1913-14	1,579	3,135,597
1914-15	1,880	4,417,035
1915-16	1,794	3,939,721
1916-17	2,112	5,031,572
1917-18	2,069	4,746,578
1918-19	2,059	4,526,846
1919-20	2,164	4,874,820
1920-21	2,029	4,589,627
1921-22	2,123	4,895,968
1922-23	1,907	4,429,263
1923-24	2,014	4,661,904

The two dry docks were occupied during the year 1923-24 by 189 vessels, the total tonnage amounting to 625,287 tons which was less than the previous year by 113,301 tons.

KARACHI.

The members of the Board of Trustees of the Port of Karachi are as follows:—

Chairman—J B S Thubron, C.I.E.

Appointed by Government—H H Hood (Collector of Customs, Karachi), F B Hawkes, O.B.E. (District Traffic Superintendent, North Western Railway, Karachi Port); Major G M Buckland, D.S.O. (D. A. Q. M. G., Sind Rajputana District), E A Pearson (Forbes Forbes Campbell & Co., Ltd.); Gidulal Lekhras (Representative Indian Merchant) and Khan Bahadur K H Katrak (Katrak & Co.) (on leave), Rao Sahab Shewaram Dewannal (acting)

Elected by the Karachi Chamber of Commerce—C C Demetriadi (Ralli Brothers) (Vice-Chairman elected by the Board), J R Baxter (Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.), F Clayton, C.I.E., M.L.C. (Fleming Shaw & Co.)

Elected by the Municipality—Goolam Hussein Kassim.

The Principal Officers of the Trust are —

Port Officer — Captain H. M. Salmund, C.I.E., R.I.M. (on leave), Captain N. Woodsmith, R.I.M. (acting)

Secretary and Traffic Manager — T. S. Downie, O.B.E.

Chief Accountant — B. A. Inglet, B.A. C.A.

Chief Engineer — T. H. E. Coad, M.I.N.S.T. C.E.

Deputy Chief Engineer — H. A. J. French

Chief Storekeeper — T. S. Thadani

The Revenue receipts and expenditure of the Port of Karachi for the year 1923-24 were as under —

Revenue receipts (excluding the Port Fund Account) Rs. 64,15,927 Expenditure, Rs. 56,70,963 Surplus Rs. 7,44,964 Reserve Fund Rs. 27,17,633

The number of vessels which entered the Port during the year 1923-24, exclusive of vessels put back and fishing boats, was 3,647 with a tonnage of 2,186,175, against 2,869 with a tonnage of 2,212,229 in 1922-23. 945 steamers of all kinds entered the Port with a tonnage of 2,337,536 against 865 and 2,097,518 respectively in the previous year. Of the above 806 were of British nationality.

Imports including coal landed at the ship wharves during the year totalled 362,243 tons against 692,140 in the previous year. Total shipments from the ship wharves were 1,412,934 tons in 1923-24 against 800,685 tons in 1922-23.

MADRAS.

The following gentlemen are the Trustees of the Port of Madras —

Officials — Bradford Leslie, O.B.E., M.I.N.S.T. C.E., M.I.M. Chairman, C. R. Watkins, B.A., C.I.F., (Collector of Customs), and Capt. C. R. Campbell, D.S.O., M.V.O., R.I.M. (Presidency Port Officer)

Non Officials — (1) Nominated by Government — A. A. Biggs, M.I.N.S.T. C.E. M.I.E. (Ind), B. C. Scott, (2) Representing Chamber of Commerce, Madras — T. M. Ross, Sir James Simpson, H. F. P. Hearson, G. W. Chambers, (3) Representing Southern India Chamber of Commerce, Madras — M. R. By Diwan Bahadur Govindas Chatterbhoojadas Garu, M.L.C., Sir M. Ct. Muthia Chettiar, Kt., M.L.A., (4) Representing Madras Trades Association — A. M. MacDougall, M.L.C., and L. C. Nicholson, (5) Representing Southern India Skin and Hide Merchants Association — M. R. By M. Balasundaram Nayadu Garu Representing Madras Piece-goods Merchants Association — M. R. By Rao Sahib Batchu Papalpya Chettiar Garu

The receipts during the year of the Port Trust on Revenue account from all sources were Rs. 29,84,235 as against 23,04,251 in 1922-23 and the gross expenditure out of revenue was Rs. 25,68,816. During the year 606 vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 1,988,734 tons, called at the port against last year's figure of 692 vessels of 1,989,179 tons.

RANGOON.

The personnel of the Commissioners for the Port of Rangoon is comprised of the following thirteen members —

Appointed by Government — J. A. Cherry, C.I.E. (Chairman), G. Scott, C.I.E., I.O.B. (Commissioner Rangoon Corporation), G. S. Hardy, I.O.B. (Collector of Customs Rangoon), J. E. Houldey, M.L.C., I.O.B. (Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust), Captain J. F. Vibart, C.B.E., R.I.M. (Principal Port Officer), J. B. D. Glascott, M.L.C., G. B. Campbell and Maung Thwin

Elected by the Burma Chamber of Commerce — Sir Alexander J. Anderson, Kt., C.B.I., M.L.C. (Vice-Chairman), R. Sinclair, M.L.C., A. McKeand and J. K. Michie

Elected by the Rangoon Trades Association — M. Oppenheimer

Principal Officers are —

Secretary — H. Leonard

Chief Accountant — D. H. James, A.C.A.

Chief Engineer — E. C. Niven, M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator — H. G. G. Ashton, D.S.O.

Traffic Manager — H. Cooper

Superintendent of Stores — Mr. A. L. Stewart

Administrative Medical Officer — Dr. C. G. Crow, K.I.H., I.M.D.

The receipts and expenditure on revenue account of the Port of Rangoon in 1923-24 were as follows —

	Rs.
Receipts	73,35,295
Expenditure	69,83,489

The capital debt of the Port at the end of the year was Rs. 3,46,78,081. Against this should be set the total of the balance (including investments at cost) at the credit of the different sinking funds, namely, Rs. 1,15,52,997.

The total sea-borne trade of Rangoon during the year was 4,413,305 tons of which 1,305,939 tons were imports, 3,097,465 tons exports and 10,001 tons transshipment. The tonnage of goods dealt with at the jetties and foreshore for inland vessels during the year amounted to 783,531 tons. The total number of steamers (excluding Government vessels) entering the Port was 1,885, with a total net registered tonnage of 3,510,598, being a decrease of 8 steamers and an increase of 202,511 tons over the previous year.

CHITTAGONG.

Chittagong in Eastern Bengal, lying on the right bank of the river Karnafull at a distance of 12 miles from the sea was already an important port in the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese gave it the name of Porto Grande.

The construction of the Assam Bengal Railway has facilitated the transport of trade with Assam and Eastern Bengal for which the Port of Chittagong is the natural outlet.

The chief exports are tea and jute and imports, piece-goods, salt, oil and machinery.

FOREIGN TRADE 1928-29 Rs (In lakhs)

Imports 94.32

Exports 796.82

COASTING TRADE 1928-29 Rs (In lakhs)

Imports 124.37

Exports 127.05

Port Commissioners—A. W. Cook, C.I.E., I.C.S., Chairman, F. A. Sachse, I.C.S., Vice-Chairman, Mr. T. B. Nolan, S. C. Satyawadi, M.A., A. B. Lefahman, V.D., B. J. Corcoran, M.I.C., A. B. Slater, Rai Upendralal Roy Bahadur, B.L.

Port Officer and Secretary to the Port Commissioners—Commander H. W. B. Livesey O.B.E., R.N.

Port Engineer—W. P. Shepherd-Barron, A.M. Inst. C.E. (on leave), C. P. M. Harrison, M.I.C.E. (acting).

Vessels of 25 feet draught can be accommodated during the greater part of the year at four jetties which are fitted with modern equipment and capable of quick despatch.

VIZAGAPATAM HARBOUR PROJECT

The question of the creation of a harbour at Vizagapatam, to supply an outlet for a large area of fertile country hitherto undeveloped and with out suitable access to the outside world, was lately brought to the fore through a report to the Bengal-Nagpur Railway Company by their consulting engineers, Sir John Wolfe Barry, Lyster and Partners. This report, which was based on personal inspection, upholds the practicability of creating, at no very extravagant cost, an inland harbour to which access would be maintained by two breakwaters projecting into the sea, and by dredging a channel to the depth (in the first instance) of 24 feet. A deep-water quay would be provided, 1,500 feet in length, with a possibility of supplying further accommodation in the future. The proposals made in this report were carefully gone into at site by representatives both of the Consulting Engineer and of the Bengal Nagpur Railway and working plans have been prepared so that there might be no delay in starting work when funds became available for the purpose.

"The Government of India have now under their consideration the scheme for the construction of the harbour and the method of financing and controlling the work. That the creation of such a port would have a beneficial influence on the development of a large area in East Central India seems un-

questioned. It is pointed out that Vizagapatam, lying as it does in front of the only practicable gap in the barrier of the Eastern Ghats, is formed by nature to be the outlet of the Central Provinces, from which a considerable amount of trade has taken this route in the past, even with the imperfect communications hitherto available. A necessary complement of the scheme would be the construction of the proposed railway by Parvatipuram to Raipur, which with the existing coast line of the Bengal Nagpur Railway, would make a large and rich area tributary to the proposed port, and obviate the long and expensive circuit by Calcutta. A link would also be supplied in the most direct route to Rangoon from Europe by way of Bombay, while from an Imperial point of view the possible provision of a fortified port on the long and almost unprotected stretch of coast between Colombo and Calcutta is held to be a consideration of great importance. The lofty projecting headland of the Dolphin's Nose would, it is pointed out, offer facilities for this purpose as well as for protecting the entrance to the Port from the effects of south and south-westerly gales.

The Government of India have under their consideration the Parvatipuram Raipur Railway project and a decision in regard to the project and the Harbour project may be expected shortly.

Education.

Indian education is unintelligible except through its history. Seen thus, it affords the spectacle of a growth which, while to one it will appear as a blunder based on an initial error easily avoided, to another it stands out as a symbol of sincerity and honest endeavour on the part of a far-sighted race of rulers whose aim has been to guide a people alien in sentiments and prejudices into the channels of thought and attitude best calculated to fit them for the needs of modern life and western ideals. There is to-day no subject in the whole area of administrative activity in India which presents greater complexities and differences of opinion than education. Government, local bodies and private persons of learning have in the past devoted their limited funds to meeting the demands of those who perceived the benefits of education, rather than to cultivating a desire for education where it did not exist. The result is that the structure has become top-heavy. The lower classes are largely illiterate, while the middle classes who constitute the bulk of the *intelligentsia* are in point of numbers at least educated to a pitch equal to that of countries whose economic conditions are more highly developed. As might be expected from this abnormal distribution of education, the form which it has eventually assumed contains corresponding defects. There have, however, in recent years been strong movements, leading to the passing of primary Education Acts in several Provinces, in favour of the expansion of primary education among the masses.

The Introduction of Western Learning

In the early days of its dominion in India, the East India Company had little inclination for the doubtful experiment of introducing western learning into India. Warren Hastings, the dominating figure of the time, was a genuine admirer of the laws and literature of the East. His policy was to enable the ancient learning to revive and flourish under the protection of a stable government, and to interfere as little as possible with the habits and customs of the people. Even the Act of 1813 which set apart a lakh of rupees for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences was interpreted as a scheme for the encouragement of Sanskrit and Arabic. In the following year the Court of Directors instructed the Governor General to leave the Hindus "to the practice of usage, long established among them, of giving instruction in their own homes, and to encourage them in the exercise and cultivation of their talents by the stimulus of honorary marks of distinction and in some cases by grants of pecuniary assistance."

It was from sources other than Government that the desire for western knowledge arose in India. In 1816, David Hare, an English watchmaker in Calcutta, joined hands with the enlightened Brahmin, Mohan Roy, to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. The new institution was distrusted both by Christian missionaries and by orthodox Hindus, but its influence grew apace. Fifteen years later, the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal reported

that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that independent schools, conducted by young men reared in the Hindu College, were springing up in every direction. In Bombay, the Elphinstone Institution was founded in memory of the great scholar who left India in 1807. A still more remarkable innovation was made in 1835 by the establishment of the Calcutta Medical College, whose object was to teach "the principles and practice of medical science in strict accordance with the mode adopted in Europe." Many pronounced the failure of the undertaking to be inevitable, for, under the Hindu custom the higher castes were forbidden to touch the dead. This obstacle was surmounted by M. dunsudan Gupta who, with a few courageous pupils, began the dissection of a human body. From that time onward Indians of the highest castes have devoted themselves with enthusiasm and with success to the study of medicine in all its branches.

Another impetus to the introduction of western learning was the devotion of Christian missionaries. The humanitarian spirit, which had been kindled in England by Wesley, Burke and Wilberforce, influenced action also in India. Carey, Marshman and Ward opened the first missionary College at Serampore in 1818; and twelve years later, Alexander Duff reversed the whole trend of missionary policy in India by his insistence on teaching rather than on preaching, and by the foundation of his school and College in Calcutta. In Madras, the missionaries had been still earlier in the field, for as early as in 1787 a small group of missionary schools were being directed by Mr Schwarz. The Madras Christian College was opened in 1837. In Bombay the Wilson School (afterwards College) was founded in 1834.

Lord W Bentinck's minute of 1835 (based upon Macaulay's famous minute) marks the somewhat tardy acceptance by Government of the new policy. Government then determined, while observing a neutrality in religious matters to devote its available funds to the maintenance of secondary schools and colleges of western learning to be taught through the medium of English. But this decision did not entail that Oriental learning should be neglected, still less that the development of the vernaculars should be discouraged. Other changes powerfully contributed to the success of the new system. The freedom of the press was established in 1835. English was substituted for Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837 and in 1841 Sir Henry Hardinge ordained that preference in Government appointments should be given to those who had received a western education. In the following decade the new learning took firm root in India and, though the Muhammadans still held aloof, the demand for English schools outstripped the means of Government for providing them. Fortunately there has been of late a marked appreciation among Muslim leaders of the need of improving the instructional level of their co-religionists, and in many of the provinces of India a great impulse towards educational advance among the Muhammadan community is now noticeable.

Statement of Educational Progress in INDIA.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles						
Population						
{ Male	1,088,807	1,088,807	1,088,807	1,076,991	1,091,329	1,092,81
{ Female	124,747,811	124,747,808	124,747,808	125,493,811	126,017,053	126,017,053
Total Population	110,278,296	110,278,296	110,278,296	110,340,803	120,185,984	120,185,984
Public Institutions for Males	244,091,106	244,091,106	244,091,106	244,884,916	247,097,661	247,097,661
Number of arts colleges	126	126	126	126	126	126
Number of high schools*	1,069	1,069	1,069	1,069	1,069	1,069
Number of primary schools	128,480	128,480	128,480	128,480	128,480	128,480
Male Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	49,527	49,527	49,527	49,527	49,527	49,527
In high schools	583,781	583,781	583,781	583,781	583,781	583,781
In primary schools	5,855,571	5,855,571	5,855,571	5,855,571	5,855,571	5,855,571
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	12	12	12	12	12	12
Number of high schools*	177	177	177	177	177	177
Number of primary schools	19,395	19,395	19,395	19,395	19,395	19,395
Female Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	914	914	914	914	914	914
In high schools	27,222	27,222	27,222	27,222	27,222	27,222
In primary schools	1,077,170	1,077,170	1,077,170	1,077,170	1,077,170	1,077,170
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	99	99	99	99	99	99
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male	6,119,423	6,119,423	6,119,423	6,119,423	6,119,423	6,119,423
{ Female	1,192,319	1,192,319	1,192,319	1,192,319	1,192,319	1,192,319
Total	7,311,742	7,311,742	7,311,742	7,311,742	7,311,742	7,311,742
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	7,943,068	7,943,068	7,943,068	7,943,068	7,943,068	7,943,068
Percentage of total scholars to population { Male	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08
{ Female	3.25	3.25	3.25	3.25	3.25	3.25
Total						
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From provincial revenues	4,90,92	4,90,92	4,90,92	4,90,92	4,90,92	4,90,92
From local funds	1,16,49	1,16,49	1,16,49	1,16,49	1,16,49	1,16,49
From municipal funds	40,61	40,61	40,61	40,61	40,61	40,61
Total Expenditure from public funds	6,48,02	6,48,02	6,48,02	6,48,02	6,48,02	6,48,02
From fees	3,83,50	3,83,50	3,83,50	3,83,50	3,83,50	3,83,50
From other sources	2,60,57	2,60,57	2,60,57	2,60,57	2,60,57	2,60,57
GRADED TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	14,88,97	14,88,97	14,88,97	14,88,97	14,88,97	14,88,97
* High schools include vernacular high schools also, in some provinces						
† N. H. - Owing to the recast position adopted in the Revised Educational Tables, the figure for 1922-23 are not strictly comparable with those of the preceding years						
‡ This excludes expenditure on European Education in the United Provinces, Assam and the North-West Frontier Province						
The total expenditure actually amounted to Rs 19,04,04,036.						

GROWTH AND ORGANISATION OF ENGLISH EDUCATION.

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch in 1854. Perhaps its most notable feature was the emphasis which it laid on the importance of primary education. The old idea that the education imparted to the higher classes of society would filter down to the lower classes was discarded. The new policy was boldly "to combat the ignorance of the people which may be considered the greatest curse of the country." For this purpose Departments of Public Instructions were created on lines which do not differ very materially from the Departments of the present day. The despatch also broke away from the practice followed since 1835 whereby most of the available public funds had been expended upon a few Government schools and colleges, and instituted a policy of grants-in-aid to private institutions. Such a system as this, placed in all its degrees under efficient inspection, beginning from the humblest elementary institution and ending with the university test of a liberal education would impart life and energy to education in India, and lead to a gradual but steady extension of its benefits to all classes of people. Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a university system which resulted in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay three years later. The affiliating type of university then became the pivot of the Indian education system. It has undoubtedly been of value in several ways. It enabled Government to select recruits for its service on an impartial basis, it did much, through the agency of its Colleges, to develop backward places, it accelerated the conversion of Indians to a zeal for western education, and it cost little at a time when money was scarce. On the other hand, the new universities were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators; they did not deal directly with the training of men, but with the examination of candidates, they were not concerned with learning, except in so far as learning can be tested by examination. The colleges were fettered by examination requirements and by uniform courses, their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy, and their students were encouraged not to value training for its own sake but as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications. In certain important respects the recommendations in the despatch were not followed. The Directors did not intend that university tests, as such, should become the sole tests qualifying for public posts; they also recommended the institution of civil service examinations. They did not desire the universities to be deprived of all teaching functions, they recommended the establishment of university chairs for advanced study. They were aware of the dangers of a too literary course of instruction, they hoped that the system of education would rouse the people of India to develop "the vast resources of their country and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce. The encouragement of the grant-in-aid system was

advocated to an even greater extent. The Education Commission of 1882, which reversed the policy of withdrawing higher education from the control of Government within certain limits and of stimulating private effort in theory, the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong. In its fatal desire to save money, Government deliberately accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained on the low fees which the Indian parent could be expected to pay. And, in the course of time, an unworkable system of dual control grew up, whereby the Universities with no funds at their disposal were entrusted with the duty of granting recognition to schools and the Departments of Public Instruction were encouraged to cast a blind eye on the private institutions and to be content with the development of a few favoured Government institutions. There can be little wonder that, under such a system of neglect and short-sightedness, evils crept in which are now being removed gradually by the establishment of Independent Boards of Intermediate Education charged with the administration of the high school and intermediate stages of education.

The Reforms of 1902 4

In 1902, the Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon's Government, and its investigation was followed by the Universities Act of 1904. The main object of the Act was to tighten up control, on the part of Government over the universities, and on the part of the universities over the schools and colleges. The Chancellors of the Universities were empowered to nominate 80 per cent. of the ordinary members of the Senates and to approve the election of the remainder. The Government retained the power of cancelling any appointment, and all university resolutions and proposals for the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges were to be subject to Government sanction. The universities were given the responsibility of granting recognition to schools and of inspecting all schools and colleges, the inspection of schools being ordinarily conducted by the officers of the Department of Public Instruction. Permission was also given to the universities to undertake direct teaching functions and to make appointments, subject to Government sanction, for these objects; but their scope was in practice limited to post-graduate work and research. The territorial limits of each university were defined, so that universities were precluded from any connexion with institutions lying outside those boundaries. Neither the Commission nor the Government discussed the fundamental problems of university organisation, but dealt only with the immediate difficulties of the Indian system. They did not inquire whether the affiliating system could be replaced by any other mode of organisation, nor whether all schools might be placed under some public authority which would be representative of the universities and of the departments. They assumed the permanent validity of the existing system, in its main features, and set themselves only to improve and to strengthen it.

Recent Developments.

Since the passing of the Universities Act of 1904, there has been a considerable expansion of the educational system. The two tables given below afford useful comparisons with previous years and serve to illustrate the growth and expansion of education in India.

(a) STUDENTS

Year.	In Recognized Institutions			In All Institutions (Recognised and Unrecognised)		
	Males	Girls	Total	Males	Girls	Total.
1891-92 ..	3,041,510	307,400	3,348,910	3,517,778	339,043	3,856,821
1896-97	3,428,376	360,006	3,788,382	3,954,712	402,155	4,356,870
1901-02	3,493,325	393,168	3,886,493	4,077,430	444,470	4,521,900
1906-07	4,164,832	579,648	4,744,480	4,748,504	645,028	5,393,532
1911-12	5,253,065	875,660	6,128,725	5,828,182	952,539	6,780,721
1915-16	5,871,184	1,112,024	6,983,208	6,431,215	1,186,281	7,617,496
1916-17	6,050,840	1,156,468	7,207,308	6,621,527	1,230,419	7,851,946
1917-18	6,119,423	1,192,309	7,311,732	6,683,879	1,264,189	7,948,068
1918-19	6,098,129	1,240,534	7,338,663	6,623,149	1,313,428	7,936,577
1919-20	6,306,128	1,306,711	7,612,839	6,829,204	1,777,021	8,606,225
1920-21	6,427,966	1,347,027	7,774,993	6,964,048	1,412,979	8,377,027
1921-22	6,401,434	1,340,842	7,742,276	6,962,979	1,418,422	8,381,401
1922-23	6,507,703	1,371,267	7,878,970	7,341,285	1,449,805	8,791,090

(b) EXPENDITURE

Year	Direct Expenditure		Direct and Indirect	
	Public Funds	Total	Public Funds	Total
	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs.
1891-92 ..	1,07,55,868	2,40,93,149	1,55,18,184	3,05,19,632
1896-97 .	1,19,35,647	2,77,82,787	1,67,65,650	3,52,44,900
1901-02	1,26,28,586	3,06,37,633	1,77,03,968	4,01,21,462
1906-07 .	1,88,31,204	3,88,67,352	2,96,34,674	5,59,03,673
1911-12 .	2,57,57,212	5,39,41,277	4,05,28,072	7,85,92,605
1915-16 ..	3,96,61,135	7,47,43,004	6,21,68,904	11,08,29,249
1916-17 .	4,18,12,109	7,92,86,819	6,14,80,471	11,28,88,068
1917-18 .	4,41,73,343	8,36,68,551	6,46,01,690	11,82,09,137
1918-19	5,02,71,231	9,18,49,130	7,17,26,292	12,98,63,073
1919-20 .	5,91,69,207	10,34,29,768	8,44,63,472	14,68,97,960
1920-21 ..	7,01,58,956	11,69,15,680	10,06,76,871	16,77,23,113
1921-22 .	8,19,60,903	13,03,56,458	11,49,61,178	18,37,52,989
1922-23	8,77,94,687	14,12,23,500	11,88,21,638	18,84,77,181

In 1922-23 the total expenditure on education amounted to Rs. 18,84,77,181, of which Rs. 11,88,21,638 came from public funds. In spite of this marked advance, there is much too-way to make up, as in the last census report the literate population of India was only 72 per thousand (males 122 and females 18 per thousand).

The following table provides an interesting and valuable comment on the state of education

in India. Although the statistical returns show more than 8 millions of pupils at school it will be seen that over 76 per cent. of these are in the lower primary stage, and it may be safely deducted that over 50 per cent. of those at school never become literate. Of course, the total number of pupils at school is not a safe criterion of the state of education, and a rounder standard of comparison would be that number multiplied by the average period spent at school

CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS BY AGES AND STAGES OF INSTRUCTION IN 1921-22

Ages.	SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION										
	Infants		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Ages
	A	B									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	1
Below 5	128,385	20,498	32,226	61	11	5	6				Below 5
5 to 6	554,283	269,377	124,716	4,443	306						5 to 6
6 to 7	481,209	380,025	221,890	33,690	4,442	217	27				6 to 7
7 to 8	312,065	377,747	274,991	97,137	25,029	2,647	218	1			7 to 8
8 to 9	179,104	282,840	294,759	158,585	92,940	16,216	1,280	129			8 to 9
9 to 10	99,068	194,760	231,126	18,458	101,859	40,881	8,868	639	4		9 to 10
10 to 11	53,423	100,607	159,260	161,769	118,686	63,728	25,510	4,583	786		10 to 11
11 to 12	26,920	54,508	97,066	118,716	111,018	75,065	42,614	17,100	3,795	361	11 to 12
12 to 13	12,115	28,463	55,898	76,532	87,414	67,476	50,140	27,379	13,814	3,227	12 to 13
13 to 14	5,879	14,814	28,366	42,612	66,843	50,555	44,568	31,364	21,264	10,531	13 to 14
14 to 15	3,042	8,361	13,806	20,585	32,362	30,219	32,526	28,332	23,228	16,801	14 to 15
15 to 16	2,121	5,332	6,978	9,900	16,971	16,419	20,832	21,378	20,296	16,221	15 to 16
16 to 17	1,631	4,233	3,890	4,832	7,995	7,727	10,509	13,736	14,807	13,605	16 to 17
17 to 18	1,596	3,288	2,671	2,386	3,949	3,222	5,207	7,882	8,543	8,272	17 to 18
18 to 19	1,256	3,068	2,202	1,494	1,562	1,287	2,013	3,566	4,361	4,651	18 to 19
19 to 20	1,176	2,598	2,108	1,233	742	559	765	1,577	1,834	1,906	19 to 20
Over 20	2,822	6,163	3,883	2,500	1,025	502	449	773	1,107	983	Over 20
All Ages	1,616,065	1,726,692	1,555,915	929,693	636,601	376,675	245,612	158,129	115,799	76,684	All Ages

The following figures give the percentage to the population of scholars in British India as a whole and in the Governor's Provinces —

	1922	1923
British India	3.39	3.48
Madras	4.30	4.50
Bombay	5.00	5.00
Bengal	4.05	4.18
United Provinces	2.26	2.38
Punjab	3.03	3.70
Burma	4.26	4.23
Bihar and Orissa	2.38	2.48

Central Provinces	2.39	2.44
Assam	2.84	3.02

Non Co-operation—It is impossible to say how many students were actually withdrawn from schools and colleges in consequence of the attack launched on the educational system of the country as an integral part of the non-co operation campaign, since a variety of other factors chief among which was the high cost of living, also affected attendance in the years following the war. The following statement gives some indication of the losses —

Province	National Schools and Colleges in 1921-22		Approximate effect of "Non Co-operation on certain recognised institutions up to March 1921			Remarks
	Institutions	Scholars	Scholars	Withdrawn from institutions	Returned	
Madras	92*	5,072*	171,111	820	† 239	
Bombay	189	17,100	42,416	2,350		
Bengal	190	14,810	109,107	11,157	No information	
United Provinces	137*	8,476*	40,171	2,026	789	
Punjab	69	8,046	111,078	1,409	481	
Burma	92	16,218	30,875	11,031	747	
Bihar and Orissa	442	17,330	2,190	1,826	†	
Central Provinces	86*	6,338*	71,759	1,824	454	
Assam	38	1,908	12,186†	1,130	306	
North West Frontier Province	4*	120*	41,342	Nil		
Minor Administrations	10	1,255	45,508	571	70	

*Opened till 31st July 1921

†There was a general tendency to return

‡ till January 1921

During the year 1922-23 there was a marked recovery from the effects of the Non-Co operation movement on the attendance at schools and colleges in British India as shown by the statement below —

	Institutions		Scholars	
	1922	1923	1922	1923
Arts colleges	170	174	47,632	52,639
Professional colleges	64	59	13,662	13,497
High schools	2,246	2,312	595,402	632,943
Middle schools	6,731	6,732	643,839	698,462
Primary schools	159,889	162,015	6,304,457	6,600,116
Special schools	4,189	5,720	138,169	181,318
Unrecognised schools	34,820	33,660	639,931	612,115
Total	208,109	210,672	8,383,092	8,791,090

Statement of Educational Progress in MADRAS.

Area in square miles	Population		1917-18						1918-19						1919-20						1920-21						1921-22						1922-23					
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total								
Public Institutions for Males																																						
Number of arts colleges			38			42			44																													
Number of high schools			196			215			237																													
Number of primary schools			29,862			29,952			31,002																													
Male Scholars in Public Institutions																																						
In arts colleges			8,000			8,091			8,906																													
In high schools			107,546			111,053			115,956																													
In primary schools			1,092,619			1,081,881			1,101,196																													
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population			6.1			6.1			6.3																													
Public Institutions for Females																																						
Number of arts colleges			5			8			9																													
Number of high schools			37			41			47																													
Number of primary schools			1,860			2,037			2,378																													
Female Scholars in Public Institutions																																						
In arts colleges			210			225			270																													
In high schools			6,769			7,224			8,687																													
In primary schools			309,165			319,133			332,940																													
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population			1.4			1.6			1.7																													
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions																																						
Male			1,456,364			1,249,312			1,276,588																													
Female			323,880			383,775			349,241																													
Total			1,579,744			1,633,087			1,625,769																													
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions																																						
Male			1,456,364			1,249,312			1,276,588																													
Female			323,880			383,775			349,241																													
Total			1,579,744			1,633,087			1,625,769																													
Percentage of total scholars to { Males																																						
population																																						
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)																																						
From provincial revenues			106.11			111.13			10.36																													
From local funds			16.44			16.43			22.30																													
From municipal funds			4.06			4.59			4.25																													
Total expenditure from public funds			1,16.61			1,32.25			1,45.91																													
From Government			59.57			61.15			64.43																													
From other sources			50.27			54.62			56.45																													
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE			2,26.46			2,43.02			2,66.63																													
(a) Includes Rs. 2,00,149 and Rs. 5,48,883 contributed to District Boards and Municipalities, respectively																																						
(b) Provincial subsidies to District Boards and Municipalities were Rs. 20,59,453 and Rs. 6,32,209 respectively																																						
(c) "																																						

Primary Education.—The primary schools are mainly under the direction of the local boards and municipalities. In 1911 the late Mr G K Gokhale pleaded in the Imperial Legislative Council for a modified system of compulsory primary education but Government was unable to accept the proposal mainly for financial reasons. In recent years, seven provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education by local option. Bombay led the way in this matter by a private Bill which was passed into law in February 1918. The other private Bills which followed were those of Bihar and Orissa passed in February 1919, of Bengal passed in May 1919 and of the United Provinces, passed in June 1919. Of the Government measures, the Punjab Act was passed in April 1919, the Central Provinces Act in May 1920 and the Madras Act in December 1920. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act of 1920 extends generally the provisions of the 1918 Act to the Bombay Corporation also enabling it to introduce free compulsory education ward by ward. Not content with this, the Bombay legislature passed a new Act in 1923 to provide for compulsory elementary education and to make better provision for the management and control of primary education in the Bombay Presidency. The Bombay and the United Provinces Acts apply only to municipalities, the Bengal Primary Education Act applies, in the first instance, to municipalities, but is capable of extension to rural areas. Boys only are included within the scope of the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and Bengal Acts, while the Central Provinces Act is capable of extension to girls and the remaining Acts are applicable to both sexes. All the Acts are drafted on very similar lines. If a local body at a special meeting convened for the purpose decides by a two-thirds majority in favour of the introduction of compulsion in any part of the area under its control, it may then submit to Government for approval, a scheme to give effect to its decision. The scheme must be within the means of the local body to carry out with reasonable financial assistance from Government. Ordinarily the age limits of compulsion are from six to ten years though provision is made for prolonging the period. Provision is also made in all the Acts for the exemption of particular classes and communities and for special exemption from attendance in cases of bodily infirmity. Walking distance to a school is generally defined as one mile from the child's home. The employment of children, who should be at school, is strictly forbidden and a small fine is imposed for non-compliance with an attendance order. The Acts generally provide that, subject to the sanction of the local Government, education where compulsory shall be free. Such in brief are the ordinary provisions of the various provincial Education Acts. Local bodies have not however shewn as yet any great alacrity in availing themselves of the opportunity afforded them by these Acts. The poverty of local bodies is usually the cause assigned to their diffidence to introduce compulsory education to any appreciable extent.

On the 31st March 1913, there were 612,015 primary schools in British India containing 6,606,116 scholars. (The latter figure does

not include scholars reading in the primary classes of secondary schools). The total direct expenditure on primary schools, during the year 1922-23, amounted to Rs 5,86,02,725.

Secondary and High School Education.

—The policy of Government is to maintain a small number of high schools (roughly one for each revenue district) which are to be regarded as models for private enterprise, and to aid private institutions. In 1911-12 there were 1219 high schools for boys in India and in 1922-23 the number had risen to 2,812; the number of scholars in the former year being 390,881, and in the latter year 632,943. Some attempts have been made to give a greater bias towards a more practical form of instruction in these schools. The Commission of 1882 suggested that there should be two sides in secondary schools, 'one leading to the entrance examination of the universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial and other non literary pursuits. Some years later, what were called B and O classes were started in some schools in Bengal, but, as they did not lead to a university course, they have not been successful. In more recent years, the Government of India have advocated the institution of a school final examination in which the more practical subjects may be included. Efforts have also been made to improve the conduct of the matriculation and to emphasise the importance of oral tests and of school records. In Madras, this examination, which was placed under the direction of a Board representative of the University and of Government, proved somewhat cumbersome and certain modifications were made. In the United Provinces, only the better schools were privileged to prepare for the School Final Examination so that better results were achieved. In the Punjab and in Bombay, the school leaving examination is conducted by Boards. But the main difficulty has not yet been touched. The University which recognises the schools has no money where with to improve them and the Department of Public Instruction, which allots the Government grants, has no responsibility for the recognition of schools, and no connexion whatever with the private unaided schools. This dual authority and this division of responsibility have had unhappy effects. The standard of the schools also is very low so that the matriculates are often unable to benefit by the college course. In some provinces the standard of the schools has been raised by withdrawing from the University the intermediate classes and by placing them in a number of the better schools in the State.

There are schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians which are placed under the control of special inspectors for European Schools. The education of the domiciled community has proved to be a perplexing problem, and in 1912 a conference was summoned at Simla to consider the matter. The difficulty is that European Schools are very remote from the general system of education in India.

Medium of instruction in public schools

—The position of English as a foreign language and as a medium of instruction in public schools was discussed by a representative con-

Statement of Educational Progress in BOMBAY

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	123,065	123,065	123,065	123,065	123,065	123,065
Population	10,252,235	10,252,235	10,252,235	10,170,983	10,188,020	10,188,020
	9,430,684	9,430,684	9,430,684	9,177,753	9,176,361	9,176,361
	19,683,249	19,683,249	19,683,249	19,348,738	19,364,371	19,364,371
Public Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	9	10	10	11	10	12
Number of high schools	128	133	140	144	143	145
Number of primary schools	9,951	10,647	11,252	11,513	11,170	10,972
Male Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	4,830	4,985	5,057	4,953	4,550	4,885
In high schools	41,884	46,075	49,189	46,478	47,366	48,957
In primary schools	522,902	557,969	602,157	639,577	637,423	645,960
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	5.9	6.3	6.7	7.1	7.1	7.2
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges						
Number of high schools	35	39	44	43	46	47
Number of primary schools	1,191	1,321	1,462	1,505	1,452	1,430
Female Scholars in Public Institutions						
In high schools	128	194	140	168	179	219
In primary schools	6,347	6,350	7,361	7,472	8,179	7,990
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	1.9	1.9
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male Female	602,405	641,743	691,582	724,899	721,798	737,006
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	138,892	155,663	170,801	180,801	175,079	174,556
Percentage of total scholars to { Male Female Total	741,804	797,406	961,283	905,000	896,877	911,532
Expenditure from public funds	781,874	884,003	892,975	949,827	958,392	973,700
From provincial revenue	62	65	70	75	76	77
From local funds	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.0
From municipal funds	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.9	5.0	5.0
Total Expenditure from public funds	781,874	884,003	892,975	949,827	958,392	973,700
From fees	781,874	884,003	892,975	949,827	958,392	973,700
From other sources	26,15	27,66	30,54	33,64	35,20	38,13
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,64,37	1,95,18	2,34,90	2,63,43	2,93,59	3,11,80

* Includes Rs 12,671 from Imperial Funds

ference which met at Simla in 1917 under the Chairmanship of Sir Bankaran Nair, the then Education Member. Although it was generally conceded that the teaching of school subjects through a medium which was imperfectly understood led to cramming and memorising of text-books, the use of English medium was defended by some on the ground that it improved the knowledge of English. The result of the conference was therefore inconclusive. Some local authorities have since then approved of schemes providing for the recognition of local vernaculars as media of instruction and examination in certain subjects.

Boy Scout Movement.—A happy development in recent years has been the spread of the boy scout movement in public schools.

Medical Inspection.—In most provinces arrangements have been made for medical inspection of scholars.

Intermediate Colleges.—One important part of the Calcutta University Commission's recommendations has been accepted by the Government of the United Provinces and the Government of India and incorporated in the Acts establishing the Lucknow, Dacca and Aligarh Muslim Universities, and reconstituting that of Allahabad, namely, the separation of the intermediate classes from the sphere of university work and of the two top classes of high schools from the rest of the school classes. The separated classes have been combined together and the control over them has been transferred from the University to a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education. Such a Board was constituted for the Dacca University area by a notification of the Government of Bengal in 1921. It contains twenty-two members of whom seven are elected by the University. The United Provinces Board was constituted by an Act passed in the same year. It consists of some forty members of whom approximately one-quarter represent the Universities in the Province. The Intermediate Examination Board of the Aligarh Muslim University was brought into existence by an Ordinance framed in 1922. It is composed of eight members.

Professional and Technical Education.—There are eight Medical Colleges (in addition to a number of medical schools) with 4,224 stu-

dents, eleven Law Colleges with 5,587 students, and five Agriculture Colleges containing 612 scholars. A research institute in agriculture was started by Lord Curzon at Pusa in Bihar, which has done valuable work. Conferences have been held at Pusa, Simla and Poona, with the object of providing a suitable training in agriculture. There are twenty training colleges for secondary teachers in various parts of India with 1,083 scholars and normal schools for the training of vernacular teachers. There are five colleges for commercial instruction with 784 students. The most important among them is the Sydenham College of Commerce in Bombay. Industrial institutions are dotted about India, some maintained by Government, others by municipalities or local boards, and others by private bodies. One of the most important is the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute in Bombay. The tendency in recent years has been to place these institutions under the control of the Departments of Industries. In this connexion should be mentioned the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, the product of generous donations by the Tata family. A committee has recently enquired into its working and the Committee's recommendations are under consideration. In addition to a number of engineering schools, there are Engineering Colleges at Roorkee, Sibpur, Poona, Madras, and Benares each of which except that at Roorkee, is affiliated to a university. They had 1,432 scholars on their rolls on the 31st March 1923. The Government of Bihar and Orissa have decided to open a new Engineering College, while arrangements are also being made to provide for engineering instruction at the Rangoon University. There are schools of art in the larger towns, where not only architecture and the fine arts are studied, but also practical crafts like pottery and iron work. There is also a school of forestry at Dehra Dun. Many inquiries have been made in the matter of technical education, by Colonel (now Major-General) Sir E. H. Devlin Atkinson, and Mr. Dawson, by the Public Works Committee and by the Industrial Commission, but as yet little progress has been made. A Technical Institute has been started at Cawnpore and a Mining school at Dhanbad is projected. There are three colleges for veterinary training containing 328 students.

Universities

There are fifteen universities in India, namely —

No	University	Dates of Acts	Territorial Jurisdiction
1	CALCUTTA	1857, 1904, 1905 & 1921	Bengal and Assam and certain adjacent Indian States
2	MADRAS	1857, 1904, 1905 and 1923	The Presidency of Madras and Coorg and certain Indian States.
3	BOMBAY	1857, 1904 & 1905	The Presidency of Bombay and certain Indian States (Baroda, &c.)
4	PUNJAB	1882, 1904 & 1905	The Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and adjacent Indian States (Kashmir, Patiala, &c.).

UNIVERSITIES—*contd.*

No	University	Dates of Acts	Territorial jurisdiction
5	ALLAHABAD	1887, 1904, 1905 and 1921	The United Provinces, Ajmere, Merwara and adjacent States
6	BENARFS HINDU	Oct 1915	Benares District
7	MYSORE	July 1916	Mysore State
8	PATNA	Sept 1917 and 1923	Bihaar & Orissa and adjacent Indian States.
9	OSMANIA	1918	Hyderabad
10	DACCA	April 1920	Radius of 5 miles
11	ALIGARH MUSLIM	Sept. 1920	Radius of 10 miles.
12	RANGOON	Oct 1920 and 1921	Burma
13	LUCKNOW	Nov 1920	Local
14	DELHI	March 1922	Delhi
15	NAGPUR	June 1923	The Central Provinces and Berar

The foregoing statement mentions the universities incorporated by law for the time being in force. The first University in India, that of Calcutta, was founded in 1857. Between 1857 and 1887 four new Universities, at Bombay, Madras, Lahore and Allahabad were added. These five universities were all of the affiliating type. They consisted of groups of colleges, situated sometimes several hundred miles apart, and bound together by a legally constituted central organisation, which determined the qualifications for admission, prescribed the courses of study, conducted the examinations and exercised a mild form of control over the affiliated colleges. There was nothing under the system to limit the number of institutions affiliated to a University, and for thirty years, i.e., from 1887 to 1917, the growing demand for university education was met, not by the creation of new universities, but by enlarging the size of the constituent colleges and by increasing their number. By 1917 this inflation had been carried on so far that the composition of the original five universities stood as follows—

University	Colleges	Scholars
Calcutta	58	28,618
Bombay	17	8,001
Madras	53	10,216
Punjab	24	6,558
Allahabad	33	7,807

It had become obvious that further expansion on the same lines was no longer possible without a serious loss of efficiency and the Govt of India had recognised in their resolution of 1913 the necessity of creating new local teaching and residential universities in addition to the existing affiliating universities. The development of this policy was accelerated by the strength of communal feeling and the growth of local and provincial patriotism, leading to the establishment of a number of teaching universities. The new type of universities has since been strongly advocated by the Calcutta University Commission which has offered constructive

proposal as to the lines to be followed in university reform. A detailed account of the old and new Universities is given below.

The Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and the Punjab—These three Universities alone still retain their old form, as measures for their reorganisation are still under consideration. On the 27th March 1921 an amending Act was passed by which the Governor General ceased to be the Chancellor of the Calcutta University and now the head of the provincial government is the Chancellor of each of the older universities. The Vice-Chancellor is nominated by the Government concerned. The executive body is the Syndicate which is now organised so as to include a larger educational element. Over this body the Vice-Chancellor presides, all other members being elected by the Faculties, except the Director of Public Instruction who is a member *ex-officio*. The secretarial work is under the direction of the Registrar. The legislative body is the Senate which consists of from 75 to 100 members, 80 per cent of whom are nominated by the Chancellor, the rest being elected by the Senate, or by its Faculties, or by the body of registered graduates. The Senate is divided into Faculties, which are in most cases those of arts, science, law, medicine, and engineering. There is an oriental faculty in the Punjab University alone. There are also Boards of Studies, whose duties are to recommend textbooks or books which represent the standard of knowledge required in the various examinations. The newer universities differ considerably from the older universities in constitution.

Apart from the general tightening up of university control over its colleges, the chief feature of university development since the passing of the Act of 1904 has been participation by the universities in post-graduate teaching and research. In Madras a small number of university professors have been appointed in the Punjab the services of a certain number of temporary professors from overseas have been engaged. In Bombay a certain number of college professors and others have delivered lectures to post-graduate students under the auspices of the University. But the most

notable advance has been made in Calcutta, owing to the energy of the late Sir Asutosh Mukherjee and to the liberality of Sir Tarak Nath Palit and of Sir Raah Behari Ghosh. In 1916, a committee was appointed to investigate the matter. In accordance with its report, new regulations have been passed by the Senate, whereby all post graduate teaching and research in arts and science in Calcutta is now conducted directly by the University, though many of the college teachers have been invited to take part in the work. Post-graduate councils in arts and science have also been constituted, which comprise all the teachers engaged in the work and a very small number of additional members appointed by the Senate.

The University of Madras—This is one of the older universities. It has recently been reconstituted. The reconstituted University while functioning as teaching and residential University in so far as the city of Madras is concerned, continues to exercise its jurisdiction over its numerous colleges which remain affiliated to it. The administration of the University is in the hands of a Senate which has been so constituted as to include both those who are educationists and those who are connected with the actual business and commercial life. A large elective element has been introduced in its composition. Government control over the details of administration has been decentralised. The affairs of the University are managed by the Senate through a body called the Syndicate while the Academic Council, another new body, has charge of the academic matters. The affiliated colleges have been entrusted to the care of a new organisation called the Council of Affiliated Colleges. In accordance with the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission, the Intermediate Examination Certificate has been made the admission test to the courses of the University. The Governor General of India has been associated with the University as its Visitor with certain emergency powers. The Governor of Madras continues as Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor is an elected whole time officer.

The University of Allahabad—This is another old University which has undergone reorganisation. In 1921 an Act was passed with a view to establishing a unitary, teaching and residential University at Allahabad while enabling the University to continue to exercise due control over the quality and character of the teaching given in its name by colleges affiliated to the University at Allahabad. The Governor General is Visitor, and the Governor of the United Provinces Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor is a whole time officer. There is a Court, an Executive Council, an Academic Council, a Committee of Reference dealing with expenditure only, a Council of Associated Colleges, &c.

The Mysore University was constituted under Regulation V of 1916, for the better encouragement and organisation of education in the State. His Highness the Maharaja is the Chancellor. The University is very similar in its constitution to the older Indian universities, having a Senate of not less than fifty and not more than sixty members, but, unlike the older universities, it gives seats on the Senate to the university professors *ex officio*.

It departs from existing practice by centralising university instruction in Mysore and Bangalore, and by conducting the work of the first year of the old college course in a few specially selected high schools. This University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say its examinations and degrees have been accorded the status of the corresponding examinations and degrees of a University incorporated by law in British India.

The Patna University—Much thought has also been given to the evolution of a new type of university which will run abreast of the old Patna university, which was constituted in 1917, is in most of its features a university of the old type, but certain innovations have been made. The Chancellor, who is the Governor of the province, may annul any proceeding of the University which is not in conformity with the Act and the Regulations. In the Senate the application of the elective principle has been extended, by increasing both the proportion of the elected Fellows and the categories of electing bodies; and the Senate includes representatives of the teaching staff and of the graduate teachers of recognised schools. Further all colleges are given statutory representation on the Senate in the persons of their principals. The Syndicate is the ultimate authority in academic matters, subject to the proviso that any six of its members have the power to refer such matters to the Senate for review. The Vice-Chancellor is a paid officer and is appointed by the local Government. In addition to other duties, he has the power to inspect all colleges of the University. The colleges affiliated to the University are of two kinds, colleges of the University whose buildings are situated within a specified area, and external colleges whose buildings are situated in one of the four following towns: Muzaffarpur, Bhagalpur, Cuttack and Bazaribagh.

The Osmania University, Hyderabad—The Osmania University was established under a Charter promulgated with a Firman of His Exalted Highness the Nizam, dated the 22nd September 1918. The fundamental principle underlying the working of the University is that Urdu forms the medium of education, although a knowledge of English as a language is compulsory in the case of all students. There is a Bureau of Translation attached to the University which produces text books required for college classes. The constitution of the University consists of a Council, a Senate, a Syndicate, Faculties and Boards of Studies. There is a Chancellor and a Vice-Chancellor, both *ex officio* officers. The executive government of the University including general supervision and control over colleges is vested in the Council which is the highest authority and which performs the function assigned to Government in the case of British Indian Universities. The University possesses at present only one constituent college, *viz.*, the Osmania University College, which was opened in 1919. The Osmania University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say its examination and degrees have been accorded the status of the corresponding examinations.

Statement of Educational Progress in BENGAL.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	78,699	78,699	78,699	78,699	78,699	78,699
Population	23,365,225 22,117,832 45,483,077	23,365,225 22,117,832 45,483,077	23,365,225 22,117,832 45,483,077	23,365,225 22,117,832 45,483,077	23,365,225 22,117,832 45,483,077	23,365,225 22,117,832 45,483,077
Total Population	45,483,077	45,483,077	45,483,077	45,483,077	45,483,077	45,483,077
<i>Public Institutions for Males</i>						
Number of arts colleges	31	33	83	33	33	33
Number of high schools	741	822	878	883	887	896
Number of primary schools	34,070	34,278	34,564	35,708	35,621	35,375
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	20,313	20,614	21,379	19,372	16,738	21,106
In high schools	225,057	235,533	238,479	210,179	193,751	202,625
In primary schools	1,120,582	1,096,597	1,097,869	1,127,111	1,112,612	1,139,900
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.47
<i>Public Institutions for Females</i>						
Number of arts colleges	3	3	3	3	3	3
Number of high schools	26	25	25	25	25	25
Number of primary schools	1,032	10,947	11,376	12,069	12,162	12,318
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	166	166	178	216	204	243
In high schools	4,070	4,161	4,872	4,376	4,532	6,872
In primary schools	288,734	297,304	312,205	329,754	323,094	326,307
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.51	1.52
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions						
{ Male	1,584,956	1,550,109	1,558,086	1,543,499	1,494,439	1,564,612
{ Female	404,995	312,217	328,513	335,014	388,578	381,618
Total	1,989,951	1,862,326	1,886,599	1,878,513	1,883,017	1,946,230
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.						
Percentage of total scholars to population	7.1	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.38	6.38
	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.54	1.54
	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.705	4.76
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From provincial revenues	Rs 82.47	Rs 86.27	Rs 100.05	Rs 108.79	Rs 135.45	Rs 131.68
From local funds	12.50	11.36	13.09	14.09	14.11	15.06
From municipal funds	1.87	1.65	2.08	2.28	2.43	2.53
Total Expenditure from public funds	96.84	101.28	115.20	125.14	151.99	150.01
From fees	1,13.96	1,26.65	1,31.59	1,34.85	1,28.54	1,28.42
From other sources	44.14	40.85	54.84	49.23	53.54	52.9
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	254.94	277.67	301.63	309.22	333.87	331.42

* In India Intermediate and 2nd grade: Colleges of the new type.

and degrees of a University established by law in British India

The Hindu University Benares—The creation of the Hindu University, Benares, forms a landmark in the history of the Indian university system. The university is not designed to meet the needs of one province alone, but to draw students from all parts of India.

It has no monopoly, no privilege. Its energies are not diffused by the necessity of supervising distant colleges nor is its vitality impaired by the embarrassment of administrative duties other than those of organising its own teaching. It is therefore the first Indian university which is primarily a seat of learning and not an administrative organisation. Its constitution is therefore very different from those of the other Indian universities. A dividing line is made between administrative matters, entrusted to a large body called the Court, with an executive committee called the Council, and academic matters, entrusted primarily to a Senate, with an executive body called the Syndicate. The Court which is the supreme governing body besides its administrative powers, has the right to review the acts of the Senate, except where the Senate has acted in accordance with the Act statutes and regulations. With a solitary exception it is composed entirely of Hindus. The senate has the entire charge of the organisation of instruction in the University and the colleges the courses of study, and the examination and discipline of students and the conferment of ordinary and honorary degrees. This university can recognise schools all over India.

The University of Dacca—With the modification of the Partition of Bengal in 1911, Dacca ceased to be the capital of the separate province of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Shortly afterwards, the Government of India decided to establish a university of Dacca and the Government of Bengal appointed a committee to frame a scheme for the new University. The committee was instructed that the University should be of the teaching and residential and not of the federal type, and that it should be a self contained organism unconnected with any colleges outside the limits of the city of Dacca. The committee which was presided over by the late Mr R. (afterwards Sir Robert) Nathan presented its report later in the year. The report is of great value and in it certain new principles are enunciated. Great emphasis was attached to physical training and education and also to the tutorial guidance of the students. The University was to be very largely a State institution, and practically all its teachers and those of its colleges were to be Government servants. Though the colleges were to be separate units, each with its separate staff and buildings, they were to be linked together and with the University by a close form of co-operation. The executive body, to be called the Council, was to have very considerable powers, subject to the sanction of Government. The Council, which was to be a large and representative body, was to be the legislative authority, subject to the control of Government, and in other respects an advisory authority. The total cost of the full scheme was estimated at 63 lakhs, but deducting certain

sums which were available from other sources the net cost was put down at nearly 40 lakhs, exclusive of recurring charges. These were expected to involve a net total of about 6½ lakhs annually. Before the scheme thus elaborated (which had received the Secretary of State's sanction) could be taken in hand, the war broke out. The Act constituting the University was passed in April 1920 and Mr P. J. Hartog, C.I.E., was appointed the first Vice-Chancellor.

The Aligarh Muslim University—It was the aim of Sir Syed Ahmed Khan years ago to place the benefits of a liberal education within the reach of the Muhammadan community, and in 1875 a school was opened which three years later was converted into the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College, Aligarh. The movement in favour of transforming this college into a teaching and residential university started as early as the end of the last century. In 1911 during the visit of His Majesty the King Emperor to India His Highness the Aga Khan made an appeal which resulted in the collection of large subscriptions. A draft constitution was drawn up and a consultative committee was formed. But the draft constitution was not approved by the Secretary of State and on the question of the right of affiliating colleges outside Aligarh in particular, there was a sharp difference of opinion. Government laid down, as in the case of the Hindu University, that the university should not have the power of affiliating Moslem institutions in other parts of India.

On October 15th, 1915 a meeting of the Moslem University Association was held at Aligarh, under the presidency of the Raja of Mahmudabad, when it was proposed that the meeting recommends the Moslem University Foundation Committee the acceptance of the Moslem University on the lines of the Hindu University. It was evident at the meeting that a large number of Indian Moslems were not prepared to accept a constitution for their university similar to that of the Hindu University.

In April, 1917, at a meeting of the Foundation Committee the following resolution was passed.—

“That this meeting of the Moslem University Foundation Committee hereby resolves with reference to the letter of the Government of India, Education Department, dated D.L.H. 17th February 1917, D.O. No. 66, that the Committee is prepared to accept the best University on the lines of the Hindu University. It further authorises the Regulation Committee appointed at its Lucknow meeting, with the President and Honorary Secretary of the Moslem University Association as its *ex-officio* members, to take necessary steps in consultation with the Hon. the Education Member for the introduction of the Moslem University Bill in the Imperial Legislative Council.”

The bill referred to above was ultimately introduced into the Council and was passed in September 1920. The Act came into force on December 1st, 1920, and the Hon. the Raja Sir Muhammad Ali Muhammad Khan, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Khan Bahadur, of Mahmudabad, was appointed the first Vice-Chancellor of the University.

Statement of Educational Progress in UNITED PROVINCES

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	106,402	106,402	106,402	106,402	106,402	106,402
Population { Male	24,469,373	24,469,373	24,469,373	23,787,745	23,787,745	23,787,745
{ Female	22,365,735	22,365,735	22,365,735	21,588,042	21,588,042	21,588,042
TOTAL POPULATION	46,835,108	46,835,108	46,835,108	45,375,787	45,375,787	45,375,787
<i>Public Institutions for Males</i>						
Number of arts colleges	15	15	10	17	21	23*
Number of high schools	151	155	144	176	184	154†
Number of primary schools	10,862	11,507	13,802	13,090	15,496	15,803
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	5,809	4,903	5,728	7,411	5,449	5,925
In high schools	46,374	45,190	45,336	45,860	46,359	48,867
In primary schools	650,829	661,904	730,049	772,841	754,551	768,683
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.66	3.9
<i>Public Institutions for Females</i>						
Number of arts colleges	4	4	4	3	5	5*
Number of high schools	25	24	27	28	26	13†
Number of primary schools	1,120	1,146	1,228	1,269	1,344	1,348
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	35	53	59	52	73	73
In high schools	2,716	2,704	2,993	2,988	2,879	3,366
In primary schools	57,720	63,538	71,010	75,019	78,089	80,114
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	3.0	3.4	3.8	4.2	4.3	4.5
TOTAL SCHOLARS in { Males	764,401	772,238	845,918	800,783	871,740	920,274
{ Females	67,512	75,881	86,611	80,959	90,309	96,568
TOTAL	831,913	848,119	932,529	881,743	962,050	1,016,842
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male & female) in all institutions	918,238	924,679	1,015,600	1,047,611	1,029,765	1,080,951
Percentage of total scholars to { Males	3.9	3.4	3.7	4.0	3.96	4.1
{ Females	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.4	4.7	4.7
Population	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.27	2.38
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From provincial revenues	1,652	Rs 55,000	Rs 70,855	Rs 1,04,711	Rs 1,56,151	Rs 1,83,288
From local funds	32.08	5.38	4.13	36.98	34.42	38.57
From municipalities	5.24	5.72	6.40	7.23	8.75	9.10
TOTAL Expenditure from public funds	1.64	90,000	1,26,466	1,48,212	1,99,722	2,00,965
From fees	34.40	36.54	8.86	34.71	30.59	29.33
From other sources	24.65	29.93	63.4	57.60	62.82	43.59
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,652.89	1,72,377	2,28,100	2,41,594	2,98,133	2,74,397

* Excludes 'Arts and Science' departments of teaching universities, but includes 'Intermediate' Colleges of the new type

† Excludes 'Intermediate' Colleges of the new type

The University of Rangoon.—Plans for a university in Burma had been under consideration for some years. After his arrival in Burma the then Lieutenant Governor Sir Harcourt Butler thought that, on general grounds and with some reference to the needs of the province, the Rangoon University might usefully be of a more practical type than any yet attempted in India with courses in arts and science, pure and applied, technology, medicine, engineering, agriculture, law, forestry, veterinary, science and training, commerce and architecture. It might perhaps combine with university instruction practical studies at the Chief Court, the Pasteur Institute and the hospitals, and also at the Museum which the local Government was committed to build as soon as funds were available. It is possible in Burma to a greater extent than in any of the older and more advanced provinces in India to concentrate the intellectual energies of the province in one immediate neighbourhood and to develop a really many aided university. An Act to establish a teaching and residential college at Rangoon was passed on the 24th October 1920. This Act however did not find favour with a section of Burmese and was consequently amended in 1923. The amending Act introduced greater popular and representative elements in the composition of the Council and invested the reformed Council with greater discretionary powers in matters affecting public interest, such as the question of admitting affiliation of *mofussil* colleges or of admitting more colleges to the status of constituent colleges. In short, it rendered the University more suited to the needs and aspirations of the province. The University authorities are the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, the Council (with an executive committee) and the Senate. The Council is the supreme administrative body while the Senate is an academic body with entire control of studies, examination and discipline. The Governor General, as Visitor, has the right to cause inspection to be made.

The Lucknow University.—The foundation of this University may primarily be ascribed to the patriotism of the people of Oudh. It is a unitary teaching and residential University incorporated by an Act passed in 1920. The University authorities are (1) the Court, with powers of making statutes, (2) the Executive Council which administers the property of the University and appoints examiners, (3) the Academic Council which controls the teaching and advises the Executive Council on all academic matters, (4) a Committee of Reference (a Sub-committee of the Court) deals with items of new expenditure only. The Governor General as Visitor has the same power as in the case of the Rangoon University and other new, or reorganised, universities.

The following statement mentions the normal admission tests to the various Indian Universities—

Name of University	Tests	Remarks
1. CALCUTTA	The Matriculation Examination of the Calcutta University	
2. MADRAS	The School-leaving Certificate Examination of Madras at present ultimately an Intermediate Examination.	

The Delhi University.—The Delhi University was created by an Act passed in 1922. The University depends for its existence mainly on the generosity of the Government of India who occupy the position of a local Government in relation to it. It is a unitary teaching and residential University, designed on the model recommended by the Calcutta University Commission for the Dacca University, possessing at present three constituent colleges. The Act provides for two schemes—a provincial and a permanent one. Under the provisional scheme, which is in force at present, the constituent colleges remain with their hostels, etc., in their existing buildings. They also retain intermediate classes. But there have been instituted, so far as possible and desirable, common classes for graduate teaching. The matriculation examination of an Indian University or an equivalent examination, is the admission test to the University courses. The permanent scheme contemplates that the existing colleges in Delhi City would become intermediate institutions and that degree classes would be conducted in new buildings to be built in Imperial Delhi. There would be halls and hostels where students would receive tutorial instruction. The intermediate examination of an Indian University or an equivalent examination, would become the admission test to the University. The Governor-General is the *ex-officio* Chancellor. There is a Pro-Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor and a Rector. The principal governing bodies of the University are a Court, an Executive Council and an Academic Council.

The Nagpur University.—This University was created by an Act passed in 1923. Its constitution follows the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission, and the provisions in other University Acts in so far as they are applicable to local conditions. In particular the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission have been adopted in the matter of the appointment of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor and of their powers and duties, the composition and functions of the Court, the Executive and Academic Councils, and the relations of the University with Government. The University Act provides in the first instance for a University of an examining and affiliating type in which the existence of the colleges is preserved as the unit of instruction both in the University centre of Nagpur and in other places which contain colleges admitted to the privileges of the University. The Act is so framed as to permit of a gradual development of the University into a managing and teaching body which may supplement, or entirely replace colleges by University instruction either by taking over the management of existing colleges or by instituting and maintaining its own colleges.

Name of University	Tests	Remarks
3 BOMBAY	The School-leaving Examination of the Bombay Joint Examination Board or the Matriculation Examination of the Bombay University	
4 PUNJAB	The Matriculation Examination of the Punjab University	
5 ALLAHABAD	The Intermediate Examination of the United Provinces Board of High School and Intermediate Education	
6 BENARES HINDU	The Admission Examination of the Benares Hindu University	This is equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University
7 MYSORE	The Entrance Examination of the Mysore University	This is equivalent to the first year examination of an Indian University. Three years are spent for a degree
8 PATNA	The Matriculation Examination of the Patna University	
9 OSMANIA	The Matriculation Examination of the Osmania University	
10 ALIGARH MUSLIM	An Intermediate Examination	
11 RANGOON	The Anglo Vernacular or English or European High School Examination	This is approximately equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University
12 LUCKNOW	The Intermediate Examination of an Indian University	
13 DAODA	Do	
14 DELHI	The Matriculation Examination of an Indian University at present ultimately an Intermediate Examination	
15 NAGPUR	The Final Examination held under the Central Provinces High School Education Act, 1922	Do

Education of Indian Women and Girls—The statement below shows the progress of women's education during the quinquennium ending the 31st March 1922 —

	Year	Aris Colleges	High Schools	Middle Schools	Primary Schools	Special Schools and Colleges	Total
Institutions for Girls	1916-17	8	81	446	18,077	512	19,124
	1921-22	12	120	548	22,579	258	23,517
	Increase or decrease	+4	+39	+102	+4,502	-254	+4,393
Female Scholars in Girls and Boys' Schools	1916-17	403	15,571	60,837	1,033,574	16,535	1,126,010
	1921-22	881	26,239	85,247	1,195,967	10,880	1,319,214
	Increase or decrease	+478	+10,668	+24,410	+162,393	-5,655	+183,204

N.B.—The statistics of European schools and scholars are not included in this table.

There is still a leeway to be made good. All the influences which operate against the spread of education amongst the boys are reinforced in the case of women by the *purdah* system and the custom of early marriage.

Arts colleges, medical colleges, and the like admit students of both sexes, and a few girls attend them. The Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women at Delhi gives a full medical course for medical students. The Shree-mati Nathibai Damodhar Thackersey Indian Women's University was started some nine years ago by Professor Karve. It is a private institution and is doing good pioneer work. So far it has granted only 15 degrees, and there are only 80 ladies prosecuting higher studies at the affiliated institutions, but the number of girls attending its recognised high schools is said to be about 700.

Education in the Army.—The Army in India undertakes the responsibility of the education of certain sections of the community. Its activities are directed into various channels with certain definite objects, which may be summarised as follows. —

(i) The education of the soldier, British and Indian, in order to —

(a) develop his training faculties,

(b) improve him as a subject for military training and as a citizen of the Empire,

(c) enhance the prospects of remunerative employment on his return to civil life

(ii) The fulfilment of the obligations of the State to the children of soldiers, serving and ex service (British and Indian)

(iii) the provision, as far as possible, of training for the children of soldiers, who have died in the service of their country

(iv) The creation of a body of Indian gentlemen educated according to English public school traditions, which should provide suitable candidates for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst

Administration.—The educational services are divided into (a) the Indian Educational Service, (b) the Provincial Educational Service, (c) the Subordinate Educational Service

(a) **The Indian Educational Service** which comprises officers performing inspection and tutorial work, is subdivided into two branches—one for men and the other for women. Appointments to both branches are made by the Secretary of State for India in Council. All officers belonging to this service come under the special leave and pension rules. The future of this service is under consideration as a result of the recommendation made by a Royal Commission on the superior Civil services in India.

(i) **Indian Educational Service (Men's Branch).**—There is a time-scale of pay rising from Rs 400 by annual increments of Rs 50 to Rs 1,250 a month. There are two selection grades—one for 15 per cent of the cadre on Rs 1,250-50-1,500 a month and the other for 5 per cent on Rs 1,550-100-1,750 a month. Officers of non-Indian domicile receive overseas pay in addition ranging from Rs 150 to Rs 250 a month. The principals of first grade colleges receive duty allowances of Rs 150 or Rs 550 a month. Allowances of Rs 150 a month are

also granted to the Assistant Directors of Public Instruction and to other officers holding similar administrative appointments. There is one Director of Public Instruction in each province. The posts of Director are treated as prize posts for the members of the I.E.S. Their pay varies from Rs 1,500-50-1,750 a month in the North-West Frontier Province to Rs 2,500-100-3,000 in the Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal. In some provinces the Directors have been made *ex officio* Secretary, Deputy Secretary or Under Secretary, in the local Education Departments.

In selecting candidates for appointment to the I.E.S. (Men's Branch), experience in teaching is regarded as indispensable, and weight is given to the possession of (a) a university degree in honours, or equivalent distinction, and (b) qualifications in special subjects depending on the nature of the vacancies to be filled.

(ii) **Indian Educational Service (Women's Branch).**—The organisation and conditions of service are similar to those in the Men's Branch. The pay is Rs 400-25-850 a month with a selection grade of Rs 900-25-950-50-1,050 a month for 20 per cent of the cadre. In cases where the provincial cadre is very small, one member of the service is eligible for a selection grade post irrespective of the percentage maximum. Officers of non-Indian domicile are in addition granted a uniform overseas pay of Rs 50 a month. The principals of first grade colleges for women and ladies holding such administrative posts as the Deputy Directresses of Public Instruction are eligible for a duty allowance of Rs 100 a month.

In selecting candidates for appointment to the I.E.S. (Women's Branch), experience in teaching is regarded as indispensable, and weight is given to the possession of (a) high academic qualifications, and (b) qualifications in special subjects depending on the nature of the vacancies to be filled.

(b) **The Provincial Educational Service.**—This service also consists of two branches, one intended for men and the other for women. The service comprises posts more or less similar to those borne on the cadre of the Indian Educational Service, but of secondary importance. Candidates are recruited in India by local Governments. They are invariably graduates of Indian universities and natives of the province concerned.

(i) **Provincial Educational Service (Men's Branch).**—The minimum and maximum pay has been fixed at Rs 250 and Rs 800 a month respectively, and local Governments have been empowered to settle grading within these limits.

(ii) **Provincial Educational Service (Women's Branch).**—The minimum pay is Rs 200 a month and the maximum pay Rs 500 a month. As in the case of the Men's Branch local Governments are competent to fix grading within these figures.

(c) **The Subordinate Educational Service.**—This service is meant for posts of minor importance. Each province has its own rate of pay. For example, in the Punjab the maximum pay of S.E.S. officers is Rs. 250 a month,

Department of Education, Health and Lands of the Government of India—In 1910 a Department of Education was established in the Government of India with an office of its own and a Member to represent it in the Executive Council. The first Member was Sir Harcourt Butler. In 1923, the activities of the Department were widened, in the interests of economy by absorption in it of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture. The enlarged Department has been designated the Department of Education, Health and Lands. Sir B. N. Sarma and Mr. J. W. Bhoje are the present Member and Secretary, respectively. The Department possesses an educational adviser styled Educational Commissioner. The present Educational Commissioner is Mr. J. A. Richey.

Calcutta University Commission—The Report of the Calcutta University Commission was published in August 1919 and in the following January the Government of India issued a Resolution summarising the main features of the Report and the recommendations of the Commissioners.

The Government of India drew special attention to the following points in the Report—

- (i) High schools fail to give that breadth of training which the developments of the country and new avenues of employment demand.
- (ii) The intermediate section of University education should be recognized as part of school education and should be separated from the University organisation.
- (iii) The defects of the present system of affiliated colleges may be mitigated by the establishment of a strong central teaching body, the incorporation of unitary universities (as occasion arises), a modification of the administrative machinery which will admit of fuller representation of local interests, and supervision of different classes of institutions by several appropriately constituted bodies.

The Commission gave detailed suggestions for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University, for the control of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal and for the establishment of a unitary teaching University in Dacca. These measures concerned only Bengal but it was generally recognised that some of the criticisms made by the Commissioners admit of a wider application. Committees were consequently appointed by the Universities of Madras, Bombay, Patna and the Punjab to consider the findings of the Commission. In the United Provinces two committees were appointed, one to prepare a scheme for a unitary teaching University at Lucknow, the second to consider measures for the reorganisation of the Allahabad University and the creation of a Board to control secondary and intermediate education.

In Bengal the first outcome of the Commission's Report was the passing of the Dacca University Act in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920 mentioned in detail else-

where. A scheme for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University is under consideration.

The Reforms Act—The Reforms Act of 1919 has altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education is now a 'transferred' subject in the Governors' provinces and is, in each such Province, under the charge of a Minister. There are, however, some exceptions to this new order of things. The education of Europeans is a 'Provincial reserved' subject, i.e., it is not within the charge of the Minister of Education, and to the Government of India are still reserved matters relating to Universities like Aligarh, Benares and Delhi and all such new universities as may be declared by the Governor-General in Council to be central subjects. The Government of India are also in charge of the Chiefs' Colleges and of all institutions maintained by the Governor-General in Council for the benefit of members of His Majesty's Forces or of other public servants or of the children of such members or servants.

Chiefs' Colleges—For the education of the sons and relatives of the Chiefs and Princes of India, whose families rule over one-third of the Indian continent, five Chiefs' Colleges are maintained, viz.—

- (i) Mayo College, Ajmer, for Rajputana Chiefs,
- (ii) Daly College, Indore, for Central India Chiefs,
- (iii) Alcockson College, Lahore, for Punjab Chiefs,
- (iv) Rajkumar College, Rajkote, for Kathiawar Chiefs, and
- (v) Rajkumar College, Raipur, for Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa Chiefs.

In point of buildings, staffs and organisation these institutions approach English Public Schools. Students are prepared for a diploma examination conducted by the Government of India. The diploma is regarded as equivalent to the matriculation certificate of an Indian University. A further course of University standard called the Higher Diploma is conducted at the Mayo College. The examination for this Diploma is also held by the Government of India. Its standard is roughly equivalent to that of the B.A. diploma of an Indian University.

Indigenous Education—Of the 8,791,090 scholars being educated in India 612,115 are classed as attending 'private' or 'unrecognised' institutions. Some of these institutions are of importance. The Gurukul near Hardwar and Sir Rabindra Nath Tagore's school at Bolpur have attained some fame, Mr. Gandhi's school at Ahmedabad has attracted attention, and the numerous monastery schools of Burma are well known. Connected with every big Mosque in northern India there is some educational organisation and the school attached to the Fathpur and Golden Mosques at Delhi and the Dar ul-Ulm, Deoband are noted.

These institutions generally have a religious or 'national' atmosphere and are possibly destined to play an important part in the future of India.

Statement of Educational Progress in BURMA.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	230,839	230,839	230,839	230,839	230,839	230,839
Population	6,185,494	6,185,494	6,185,494	6,185,494	6,185,494	6,185,494
{ Male	5,931,723	5,931,723	5,931,723	5,931,723	5,931,723	5,931,723
{ Female	12,115,217	12,115,217	12,115,217	12,115,217	12,115,217	12,115,217
Total Population	18,246,941	18,246,941	18,246,941	18,246,941	18,246,941	18,246,941
Public Institutions for males						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
Number of high schools (vernacular included)	76	85	85	84	80	90
Number of primary schools	6,081	6,953	5,602	5,014	4,374	2,977
Male Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	658	708	733	283	459	644
In high schools	18,983	20,401	21,038	15,302	16,774	20,320
In primary schools	168,819	155,999	150,203	139,776	127,193	117,199
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.5	3.9	3.32
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	13	16	17	16	18	30
Number of high schools	932	963	924	738	679	634
Number of primary schools						
Female Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	27	39	48	48	56	67
In high schools	4,238	4,536	5,079	5,092	5,114	5,790
In primary schools	81,060	79,773	76,107	75,461	73,455	72,349
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.81	1.87
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions	266,699	260,677	254,879	239,751	228,951	221,996
{ Male	116,613	116,514	115,682	116,359	116,714	120,504
{ Female	88,312	87,791	87,591	85,080	84,595	84,090
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	584,998	572,008	575,206	557,281	552,625	536,652
Percentage of total scholars to population.	7.4	7.3	7.3	6.5	6.50	6.37
{ Males	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.91	1.99
{ Females	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.59	4.38
Total						
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From provincial revenues	39.60	32.08	32.87	32.87	32.87	32.87
From local funds	(a) 7.00	10.48	10.82	11.25	(c) 15.09	16.11
From Municipal Funds	(b) 2.65	3.50	3.72	4.19	(d) 5.23	5.82
Total Expenditure from public funds	49.25	46.12	47.41	48.31	53.29	54.80
From Government	21.23	25.56	22.37	22.52	21.44	22.15
From other sources	7.02	7.42	11.59	14.32	13.60	17.18
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	77.50	77.10	81.37	85.15	88.33	94.16
(a) Includes Rs. 2,376 from Provincial Funds						
(b) Includes Rs. 24,758 from Provincial Funds						
(c) Includes Rs. 6,06,423 from Provincial Funds						
(d) Includes Rs. 1,20,823 from Provincial Funds						

Statement of Educational Progress in BIHAR and ORISSA

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	83,382	83,382	83,382	83,382	83,382	83,382
Population	16,890,929	16,890,929	16,890,929	16,890,929	16,890,929	16,890,929
Male	17,630,135	17,630,135	17,630,135	17,630,135	17,630,135	17,630,135
Female	84,040,084	84,040,084	84,040,084	84,040,084	84,040,084	84,040,084
Total Population	101,670,219	101,670,219	101,670,219	101,670,219	101,670,219	101,670,219
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of art colleges	7	7	8	9	9	7
Number of high schools	106	114	120	115	119	132
Number of primary schools	23,268	23,052	23,120	22,591	22,448	23,084
Males Scholars in Public Institutions						
In art colleges	2,811	2,914	2,501	2,263	2,068	2,204
In high schools	35,290	35,917	33,061	25,265	24,642	27,537
In primary schools	606,421	589,419	608,339	599,720	596,810	622,548
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.0	3.92	4.13
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of art colleges	3	4	4	1	1	1
Number of high schools	2,539	2,600	2,673	2,649	2,566	2,558
Number of primary schools						
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In art colleges	348	792	675*	680	12	10
In high schools	105,294	106,837	110,107	107,026	101,978	714
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	62	62	63	64	61	60
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male	696,510	679,614	697,276	674,084	657,506	700,110
Total	108,702	106,482	113,755	110,776	105,771	103,926
Female	806,212	789,096	811,031	784,560	763,277	804,036
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	882,324	827,140	840,302	829,019	810,382	444,036
Percentage of total scholars to { Male	4.4	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.10	4.4
population	63	63	66	65	62	61
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
Total	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.38	2.48
From Provincial revenues	28.81	31.12	38.16	50.76	Rs	Rs
From local funds	15.49	19.38	19.38	21.00	(a) 49.19	(a) 44.38
From municipal funds	1.46	1.07	1.63	1.65	(b) 22.65	(b) 23.13
Total Expenditure from public funds	45.76	50.76	59.17	73.40	(c) 1.75	(c) 1.85
From fees	28.04	24.33	25.28	24.10	23.33	23.40
From other sources	12.10	13.92	15.11	16.60	19.24	17.94
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	86.90	89.01	99.56	114.11	116.16	111.03

(a) Includes Rs 1,01,000 and Rs 6,000 paid by the Govt. of Bengal and Assam
 (b) Includes Rs 1,03,911 from Provincial Funds
 (c) Includes Rs 73,406 and Rs 4,903 and by the Govts. of Bengal and Assam respectively
 (d) Includes Rs 13,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal
 (e) Includes Rs 96,897 from Govt. Funds

Statement of Educational Progress in the CENTRAL PROVINCES and BERAR

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	39,623.6	99,683	99,653	99,653	99,623	99,676
Population	6,986,192	6,980,392	6,980,392	6,980,392	6,951,399	6,951,399
	6,986,916	6,985,916	6,985,916	6,985,916	6,961,361	6,961,361
	13,916,308	13,916,308	13,916,308	13,916,308	13,912,766	13,912,766
Public Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	4	4	4	4	4	4
Number of high schools	43	44	43	43	43	43
Number of primary schools	3,789	3,841	3,867	3,980	3,987	3,942
Male Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	1,126	937	957	744	676	640
In high schools	5,211	4,583	8,894	2,879	3,019	3,391
In primary schools	258,135	241,800	240,641	243,023	228,327	225,303
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.20	4.26
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	7	7	9	8	8	8
Number of high schools	810	324	326	321	326	320
Number of primary schools						
Female Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	1	1	1		2	4
In high schools	89	81	113	96	97	142
In primary schools	33,635	33,913	34,435	33,955	32,085	29,702
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	54	56	56	57	55	51
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions						
(Males)	313,612	308,766	307,919	309,019	292,291	296,338
(Females)	37,856	38,951	39,790	39,874	38,390	35,792
Total	351,468	347,717	347,709	348,893	330,681	332,130
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	358,444	349,743	349,771	350,685	338,303	340,060
Percentage of total scholars to population.	4.0	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.23	4.35
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	55	56	57	56	56	55
From local funds	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.39	2.44
From municipal funds	30,24	34,16	39,43	48,99	51,21	55,78
Total Expenditure from public funds	6.46	8,02	10,84	10,59	10,32	10,07
From fees	41.29	43.51	55.18	64.20	67.22	71.35
From other sources	6.31	6.67	7.28	6.47	6.47	6.83
	52.24	55.27	6.87	6.87	7.58	7.58
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	52.84	55.70	67.88	77.91	81.27	85.35

Statement of Educational Progress in ASSAM.

	1917 18	1918 19	1919 20	1920-21	1921-22	1922 23
Area in square miles	53,015	53,015	53,015	53,115	53,015	53,015
Population { Male	3,407,621	3,407,621	3,407,621	3,955,065	3,961,109	3,961,109
{ Female	3,246,014	3,246,014	3,246,014	3,943,196	3,645,121	3,645,121
TOTAL POPULATION	6,713,635	6,713,635	6,713,635	7,598,261	7,606,230	7,606,230
Public Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	3	3
Number of high schools	36	37	38	39	41	40
Number of primary schools	3,881	3,924	4,030	4,049	3,955	4,019
Male Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	810	884	940	846	707	948
In high schools	13,569	13,273	13,499	12,571	11,153	11,997
In primary schools	153,953	149,546	154,597	155,460	145,967	156,290
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	5.6	5.5	5.6	4.9	4.57	4.9
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	3	3	3	3
Number of high schools	331	747	374	358	343	352
Number of primary schools						
Female Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	1	1				
In high schools	386	459	620	594	576	514
In primary schools	23,868	21,052	25,082	24,288	23,184	24,050
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	4.82	8.1	8.8	7.6	7.3	7.5
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male	194,548	189,181	195,756	195,514	181,206	194,260
{ Female	26,921	26,267	28,618	28,009	26,308	27,622
TOTAL	221,469	215,448	224,374	223,523	208,014	221,882
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	230,085	224,715	233,106	231,591	216,218	229,776
Percentage of total scholars to { Male	5.8	5.7	5.8	5.1	4.7	5.07
populations { Female	86	86	91	78	76	78
TOTAL ..	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.0	2.84	3.02
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From provincial revenues	Rs 13,822	Rs 14,23	Rs 16,40	Rs 19,19	Rs 21,85	Rs 23,74
From local funds	3,96	3,99	4,14	4,08	3,86	4,45
From municipal funds	24	24	26	39	38	38
TOTAL Expenditure from public funds	18,02	18,46	20,80	23,66	26,09	28,57
From fees	5,24	5,76	6,20	5,95	5,48	4,16
From other sources	2,56	2,61	3,25	3,10	3,27	3,10
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	25,82	26,83	30,34	32,71	34,84	35,83

Statement of Educational Progress in COORG.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	1,582	1,592	1,582	1,582	1,582	1,582
Population . { Male	97,279	97,279	97,279	97,279	89,501	89,501
{ Female	77,697	77,697	77,697	77,697	74,387	74,387
TOTAL POPULATION	174,976	174,976	174,976	174,976	163,888	163,888
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
Number of high schools	93	93	93	90	90	97
Number of primary schools						
<i>Males Scholars in Public Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges						
In high schools	605	684	683	654	682	670
In primary schools	4,940	4,968	5,047	5,265	5,449	5,124
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	5.7	5.8	5.9	6.1	6.86	6.48
<i>Public Institutions for Females</i>						
Number of arts colleges	1		10	10	10	1
Number of high schools	8					9
Number of primary schools						
<i>Females Scholars in Public Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges						
In high schools	17	33	32	27	26	178
In primary schools	2,164	2,232	2,204	2,226	2,260	2,175
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.26	3.17
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male	5,553	5,697	5,773	5,992	6,138	5,798
{ Female	2,258	2,341	2,357	2,385	2,426	2,557
Total	7,811	8,038	8,130	8,347	8,564	8,355
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	7,998	8,194	8,241	8,425	8,715	8,454
Percentage of total scholars to { Male	5.87	5.99	6.02	6.2	6.99	6.76
{ Female	2.95	3.05	3.06	3.08	3.31	3.24
Population	4.57	4.68	4.71	4.81	5.32	5.16
Total						
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From provincial revenues	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
From local funds	66	71	78	78	94	105
From municipal funds	13	15	17	18	18	22
Total Expenditure from public funds	1	1	2	2	3	4
From fees	79	87	92	98	110	141
From other sources	19	20	19	19	19	44
From other sources	10	9	10	10	9	8
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,08	1,16	1,21	1,26	1,43	1,93

Statement of Educational Progress in the NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE.

	1917-18.	1918-19	1919-20.	1920-21	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	13,183	13,183	13,183	13,183	13,183	13,183
Population	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102
	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831
	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933
Public Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
Number of high schools	17	17	18	18	20	20
Number of primary schools	582	618	615	638	625	506
Male Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	188	170	200	132	193	260
In high schools	5,532	5,872	5,937	6,242	6,782	7,180
In primary schools	24,848	25,392	25,578	25,886	25,989	24,909
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	3.2	3.3	3.2	3.5	3.6	3.7
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges
Number of high schools
Number of primary schools
Female Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	44	47	49	56	63	60
In high schools
In primary schools
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions, (Male	2,654	3,051	3,185	3,518	3,821	3,647
Total	32	36	4	4	4	5
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	37,802	38,088	37,439	41,414	44,748	45,051
Percentage of total scholars to population	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From provincial revenues	8,363	8,363	8,363	8,363	8,363	8,363
From local funds	41,225	42,637	41,317	45,770	49,396	50,168
From municipal funds	46,134	48,300	44,615	49,717	53,914	56,403
From fees	35	37	34	37	39	41
From other sources	43	45	5	5	5	5
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	9,55	9,78	12,42	14,00	17,39	18,01

(a) Includes an expenditure of Rs. 50,000 from Imperial Funds.

Statement of Educational Progress in DELHI

	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23.
Area in square miles	573	573	573	575	575
Population { Male	230 345	230 345	230,345	281,047	281,047
{ Female	182 476	182 476	182 478	206,044	206,044
TOTAL POPULATION	412,8.1	412,821	412,821	487,091	487,091
<i>Public Institutions for Males</i>					
Number of arts colleges	8	8	3	3	8
Number of high schools	7	7	10	10	10
Number of primary schools	120	124	124	132	117
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions</i>					
In arts colleges	485	548	559	581	705
In high schools	2,056	1 925	2,564	2 811	3,042
In primary schools	5,796	4,616	4,434	5,439	5,434
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	4 5	4 6	4 0	4 5	4 8
<i>Public Institutions for Females</i>					
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	3	8
Number of high schools	19	22	22	21	20
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions</i>					
In arts colleges					38
In high schools	243	246	203	473	488
In primary schools	798	897	1,012	1,012	760
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	1 1	1 1	1 2	1 2	1 2
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public { Male	10,282	10,638	11,276	12 551	13,420
institutions { Female	2,082	2,007	2,185	2 430	2,528
TOTAL	12,364	12,645	13,461	14,986	15,943
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female in all institutions)	15,358	16,774	17,716	19,525	20,563
Percentage of total scholars { Male to population	5 5	5 5	6 5	5 9	6 2
{ Female	1 5	1 5	1 5	1 3	1 5
Total	3 7	4 1	4 3	4 0	4 2
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
From provincial revenues	4.04	4.93	5.21	5.79	6.45
From local funds	15	8	33	40	20
From Municipal funds	23	40	1.02	1.12	1.14
TOTAL EXPENDITURE from public funds	4.42	5.31	6.56	7.31	7.79
From fees	1.39	1.41	1.43	1.82	1.77
From other sources	2.79	3.64	2.82	3.65	6.24
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE . .	8.60	10.36	10.81	12.78	15.80

Statement of Educational Progress in AJMER-MERWARA

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711
Population	266,198	266,198	266,198	266,867	266,566	266,566
	235,197	235,197	235,197	228,052	225,705	225,705
	501,395	501,395	501,395	495,899	495,271	495,271
TOTAL POPULATION						
Public Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	8	8	8	8	8	8
Number of primary schools	113	127	131	133	134	131
Male Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	120	113	104	87	69	95
In high schools	1,586	1,873	2,006	1,944	2,028	2,147
In primary schools	4,609	5,003	5,544	5,951	6,778	5,980
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public Institutions to male population	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.46
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	8	10	12	11	15	12
Number of primary schools	2	2	2	2	2	2
Female Scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	109	110	124	140	153	165
In high schools	282	409	555	582	707	680
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public Institutions to female population	3	3	4	4	5	56
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public Institutions						
	7,372	7,804	8,703	8,952	8,801	9,343
	724	953	1,126	1,111	1,346	1,277
	8,096	8,857	9,831	10,063	10,247	10,620
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all Institutions						
	11,137	12,391	13,421	14,841	15,126	15,653
	36	40	42	47	47	494
	63	70	7	7	106	103
Percentage of total scholars to population	2.2	2.5	2.6	3.0	3.05	3.16
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From provincial revenues	165*	193	278	369	395	311
From local funds	12	17	23	17	20	16
From municipal funds	32	23	29	30	42	32
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS	209	238	330	416	457	359
From fees	57	55	47	55	66	70
From other sources	78	88	67	73	118	99
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	344	356	444	544	641	537

* Imperial Revenues

Statement of Educational Progress in BALUCHISTAN.

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	54,928	54,928	54,928	54,928	54,928	54,928
Population	289,187	289,181	289,181	289,181	289,181	289,181
Population	176,231	176,231	176,231	176,231	176,231	176,231
Population	415,418	414,412	414,412	414,412	414,412	420,646
Public Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	3	8	8	3	3	3
Number of high schools	58	57	61	67	66	66
Number of primary schools						
Male scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges						
In primary schools	1,003	1,039	1,032	1,167	1,165	1,206
In high schools	1,409	1,457	1,643	2,643	2,464	1,721
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to male population	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges						
Number of high schools						
Number of primary schools	6	6	5	4	4	5
Female scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges						
In high schools	25	26	17		28	188
In primary schools	453	453	348	575	676	291
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to female population						
In arts colleges						
In primary schools	2,892	2,965	3,001	3,348	3,473	3,894
In high schools	648	681	605	580	676	675
TOTAL	3,540	3,646	3,606	3,928	4,149	4,569
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions						
In arts colleges						
In high schools	5,163	6,125	6,432	7,102	7,112	7,180
In primary schools	19	21	44	26	25	248
Percentage of total scholars to population	41	51	50	50	52	54
Female	12	15	15	17	17	17
TOTAL						
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From provincial revenues	Rs 93	Rs 101	Rs 131	Rs 197	Rs 223	Rs 210
From local funds	14	14	15	14	18	18
From municipal funds	15	16	19	19	18	23
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS						
From fees	1,222	1,31	1,64	2,80	2,59	2,50
From other sources	16	16	18	17	19	25
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,238	1,326	1,658	2,817	2,608	2,525

Statement of Educational Progress in BANGALORE

	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Area in square miles	13	13	13	13½	13½	13½
Population	51,752	51,752	51,752	61,166	61,166	61,166
Population { Male Female	49,082	49,082	49,082	57,458	57,458	57,458
TOTAL POPULATION	100,834	100,834	100,834	118,623	118,623	118,623
Public Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	4	4	4	4	5	4
Number of primary schools	61	62	60	63	66	50
Male scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	453	442	449	459	473	452
In high schools	1,729	1,560	1,605	1,413	1,468	1,406
In primary schools	4,197	4,124	4,203	4,529	4,729	3,904
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to male population	14.7	14.1	14.4	12.3	12.7	11.4
Public Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	3	4	4	4	4	4
Number of primary schools	23	21	21	20	20	21
Female scholars in Public Institutions						
In arts colleges	296	281	289	328	317	317
In high schools	453	520	593	721	751	784
In primary schools	2,370	2,259	2,310	2,186	2,412	2,493
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to female population	8.2	7.9	8.3	7.2	7.7	7.8
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male Female TOTAL	7,593	7,295	7,478	7,562	7,717	6,977
4,034	3,878	4,065	4,135	4,437	4,502	4,502
11,627	11,173	11,543	11,697	12,154	11,479	11,479
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	11,882	11,275	11,744	12,078	12,307	12,398
Percentage of total scholars to population	15.0	14.2	14.6	19.7	2.7	12.7
Female	8.4	8.0	8.5	7.5	7.9	8.1
TOTAL	11.3	11.2	11.6	10.2	10.4	10.5
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From local funds	Re 2,15	Re 2,10	Re 2,09	Re 2,38	Re 2,50½	Re 3,22
From municipal funds	17	17	17	32	30½	40
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS	2,82	2,27	2,26	2,70	2,81	3,62
From fees	95	99	96	1,35	1,07	1,50
From other sources	1,07	1,84	1,95	2,68	2,00	2,45
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	4,94	5,10	5,17	6,73	85	7,57

The Co-operative Movement.

The Need—More than sixty per cent of the vast population of India subsist on agriculture and the majority of these millions generally live, under present conditions, from hand to mouth. The ryot's occupation is healthy and productive, and he is proverbially honest and straightforward in his dealings, except when years of famine and hardship make him at times crafty and recalcitrant. Owing to his poverty, combined with want of education and consequent lack of foresight, he has to incur heavy debts to meet occasional expenses for current seasonal purposes, the improvement of his land, or for ceremonial objects, and he has therefore to seek the assistance of the local money lender, known as the Sowkar or the Mahajan. The rate of interest on such advances, though varying from province to province and even in different parts of a province, is generally very high. In addition to charging excessive rates the Sowkar extorts money under various pretexts and takes from the needy borrower bonds on which stamp duties are payable. One of the chief causes of the ryot's poverty is, that owing to the absence of security and his short-sightedness due to want of education, he does not as a rule collect and lay by his savings but fritters away his small earnings in extravagant and unproductive expenditure, on the purchase of trinkets and ornaments, and on marriage and other ceremonies. Tradition says that he hoards coins under the ground with the likelihood that on his death the money is lost to his family for good. This absence of thrift and the habit of dependence, in case of difficulty, on the Government or on the Sowkar are the bane of his life. There is besides a general absence of ideals or desire for progress. A co-operative society changes all this inasmuch as it provides him with a suitable institution in which to lay by his savings and teaches him the valuable lesson of self help through the sense of responsibility he feels in being its member. Thus the chronic poverty and indebtedness of the Indian agriculturist afford a very good field for the introduction of co-operative methods, especially as his work is of a productive character likely to enable him to earn a better living under circumstances more favourable than they are at present.

Genesis of the Movement—The question of improving rural credit by the establishment of agricultural banks was first taken up in the early nineties when Sir W. Wedderburn, with the assistance of the late Mr. Ranade, prepared a scheme of agricultural banks which was approved of by Lord Ripon's Government but was not sanctioned by the Secretary of State. The matter was not again taken up until about fifteen years later when Lord Wellesley's Government in Madras deputed Mr. F. A. (now Sir Frederick) Nicholson, to report on the advisability of starting agricultural or land banks in the Presidency for the financing of the agricultural industry. There was in existence in Madras an indigenous system of banking available for the person of small means. This institution called the Nidhi corresponded in some respects to the provident funds and friendly societies in European countries. Though these Nidhis provided cheap capital to agriculturists the spirit of co-operation was lacking in them. Sir Frederick submitted an exhaustive report to

Government suggesting that the formation of co-operative societies afforded an excellent means for relieving rural indebtedness. Unfortunately, the report was not received favourably either by the non-official public or by the Government of Madras, and no action was taken on its suggestions. The next few years saw two of the worst famines from which India had ever suffered, and in 1901 Lord Curzon appointed a Commission to report on the measures to be adopted in future to prevent famines and to protect the ryot from their ravages. The Commission laid stress on the proper working of the Agriculturists' Loans and the Land Improvement Loans Acts under which *takari* advances are made by Government to cultivators. This system was given a long trial in the years previous to the great famines as well as during the years succeeding the 1899-1900 famine. But it is acknowledged on all hands that the system has not been successful in solving the problem of rural stagnation, as it is clear that it is not facility for obtaining cheap capital alone which will raise the agriculturist and relieve him from his debts, but the provision of capital combined with the inculcation of habits of thrift and self help. This Commission also recommended that the principal means of resisting famines was by strengthening the moral backbone of the agriculturist and it expressed its view that the introduction of co-operation in rural areas might be useful in securing this end.

Co-operative Credit Societies Act—These recommendations induced Lord Curzon to appoint a Committee with Sir Edward Law at its head to investigate the question and a report was submitted to Government recommending that co-operative societies were worthy of every encouragement and of a prolonged trial. Sir Anthony (now Lord) Macdonell and others were at the same time making experiments on similar lines in the United Provinces and the Punjab with satisfactory results. All these activities, however, took an organized shape only when Lord Curzon's Government introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council a Bill to provide for the constitution and control of co-operative credit societies. The main provisions of the Bill which became the Co-operative Credit Societies Act (Act X of 1904) were—

- (1) That any ten persons living in the same village or town or belonging to the same class or caste might be registered as a co-operative society for the encouragement of thrift and self help among the members.
- (2) The main business of a society was to raise funds by deposits from members and loans from non-members, Government and other co-operative societies, and to distribute the money thus obtained in loans to members, or with the special permission of the Registrar, to other co-operative credit societies.
- (3) The organization and control of co-operative credit societies in every Presidency were put under the charge of a special Government officer called the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies.
- (4) The accounts of every society were to be audited by the Registrar or by a member of his staff free of charge.
- (5) The liability of a member of a rural society was to be unlimited.

(6) No dividends were to be paid on the profits of a rural society, but the profits were to be carried at the end of the year to the reserve fund, although when this fund had grown beyond certain limits fixed under the bye-laws, a bonus might be distributed to the members.

(7) In urban societies no dividend was payable until one fourth of the profits in a year were carried to the reserve fund.

Soon after the passing of the Act the local Governments in all the Presidencies and major provinces appointed Registrars with full powers to organise, register, and supervise societies. In the early stages of the working of this Act, Government loans were freely given, and the response to the organising work of the Registrars was gradual and steady throughout most parts of the country.

Co-operative Societies' Act—As co-operation progressed in the country defects were noticed in the Co-operative Credit Societies Act and these were brought to the notice of Government by the Registrars of the Societies which were for some years held annually. In two directions the need for improved legislation was especially felt. In the first place, the success of credit societies had led to the introduction of co-operative societies for distribution and for purposes other than credit for which no legislative protection could be secured under the then existing law. And secondly, the need for a freer supply of capital and for an improved system of supervision had led to the formation of various central agencies to finance and supervise primary credit societies and these central agencies run all the risks attendant on a status unprotected by legislation. The Government of India, recognising the desirability for removing these defects, decided to amend the old Act and a Bill embodying the essential alterations proposed was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council and after a few amendments it emerged from the Council as the Co-operative Societies Act (II of 1912) replacing Act X of 1904. The outstanding features of the new Act were as under—

(a) It authorised the formation of societies for purposes other than credit, which was possible under the old Act only with the special permission of the Local Government. (This extension of co-operation to purposes other than credit marks an important stage in its development in India.)

(b) It defined, in precise terms the objects for which co-operative societies could be organised.

(c) It removed the arbitrary division of societies into rural and urban and substituted a more scientific division in accordance with the form of liability adopted.

(d) It facilitated the growth of central agencies by insulating on limited liability by means of a special clause about the registration of a society one of whose members is a registered society.

(e) It empowered Local Governments to frame rules and alter bye-laws so as to put restrictions on the dividends to be declared by societies and allowed them the discretion to sanction distribution of profits to their members by unlimited liability societies.

(f) It allowed societies with the permission of the Registrar to contribute from their net profits, after the reserve fund was provided for, amounts up to 10 per cent. of their remaining profits to any charitable purpose as defined in the Charitable Endowments' Act. (This kept the movement in touch with local life by permitting societies to lend assistance to local educational and charitable institutions.)

(g) It prohibited the use of the word "co-operative" as part of the title of any business concern except a registered society.

Composition of the Capital of Agricultural Societies—On the organization of agricultural credit was necessarily concentrated the attention of the promoters, for it presented a far more important and far more difficult problem than urban credit. There was a great variety of types among the agricultural societies started in different provinces, and some Registrars adopted the 'Raiffeisen', and some the 'Luzzatti' methods in their entirety. The commonest type as prevailing in the Punjab, Burma and the United Provinces—and now extended practically all over India—is the unlimited liability society with a fee for membership and a small share capital; the share payments to be made in instalments. In some places the bye-laws insist on compulsory deposits from members before entitling them to enjoy the full privileges of membership. The system in Bombay and the Central Provinces is different, there being no share capital but only an admission fee. Part of the working capital is raised by deposits from members and other local sympathisers, but the bulk of it in all provinces is obtained by loans from central and other co-operative societies. In all the Presidencies, the Government set apart in the initial stages every year a certain sum to be advanced as loans to newly started co-operative societies, usually up to an amount equal to the deposits from members raised by a society. State aid in the form of direct money does to agricultural credit societies has now become an exception rather than the rule, and this withdrawal in no way hampers the development of the movement on account of the rapid increase of co-operative financing agencies and the growth of public confidence in the primary societies. Out of a total working capital of 1½ crores, 1½ crores were shares, 2 crores reserves, ½ crore deposits of members, ½ crore deposits from non-members and societies and 9 crores loans from central societies. The advances taken from Government amounted to a little over ½ crore 16 lakhs being held in Burma by colonization societies and three lakhs in the Central Provinces and Berar out of a special famine grant. In Bombay since 1923 Government place at the disposal of the Provincial Bank an allotment for distribution as advances to agriculturists under the Land Improvement Loans Act, such advances to be made through primary societies and central banks to which these are affiliated.

Constitution of Agricultural Credit Societies—The typical agricultural credit society in India corresponds to the 'Raiffeisen' society, the management being gratuitous, the profits indivisible, and the area of work limited.

In the Punjab, the United Provinces and Burma where shares form an integral part of the system, the distribution as dividend of a portion of the profits after ten years, working is permitted under certain restrictions, although in the Punjab the tendency now is to make the profits wholly indivisible and the shares non-withdrawable. In parts of the country there are villages where a few literate men may be found but many of these are hardly fit enough to undertake the responsible work of a secretary, being practically ignorant of account keeping. In such villages either the village school-master or the village accountant is appointed secretary. In some places, where a suitable person is not available on the low pay a single society can afford, neighbouring societies are grouped together with a whole time well paid secretary. As the work of societies develops, the need for trained secretaries is being felt more keenly, for it is now realized that the function of a secretary does not consist merely in writing the accounts correctly. With a view to meet the demand for trained secretaries, training classes have been organized in Bombay in the Punjab and elsewhere during the last few years and efforts have been made to provide education in co-operation through the new educational and propagandist associations which have been started in some of the major provinces. Arrangements have also been devised in some provinces to educate the members of managing committees in the principles of the movement through peripatetic instructors and courses of simple lectures delivered at central villages. In Burma, the system of guaranteeing unions has been very successful in promoting co-operative education among rural workers.

Internal Management of Societies.—The managing committee of a society consists of 5 to 9 members, the chairman being usually the leading person in the village. The daily work is carried on by the secretary, but the managing committee supervises this and has alone the power to admit new members, to receive deposits, to arrange for outside loans, to grant loans to members and to take notice of defaulters. The practice is now growing of fixing the normal credit of every member once or twice in the year at a general meeting and the committee can sanction loans only within the limits so fixed. The accounts of the society are kept by the secretary and the necessary forms, papers, and books are usually supplied from the Registrar's office to simplify the work of the secretary. The books are kept according to the rules framed by the Local Governments and are open to inspection by important local officials and the Registrar and his staff. The accounts are audited, at least once a year, by the auditors working under the Registrars of Co-operative Societies, and the societies are inspected from time to time by honorary or paid inspectors. In Burma and Madras, the inspection is carried out by officers, while in the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Ajmer-Merwara and Bengal the responsibility for supervision rests with the central banks. In the Central Provinces, the inspection is controlled by the Provincial Federation working through the central bank. In Bombay, supervision is exercised partly by unions, partly

by central banks and partly by honorary organisers. In the Punjab, while paid for by societies, the inspecting staff works under the direct orders of the Registrar.

The supreme seat of authority in co-operative societies is the entire body of members assembled in general meetings. At the annual general meeting held at the close of the co-operative year the accounts are submitted, the balance-sheet passed, and the managing committees with the chairmen and secretaries are elected. The general meeting fixes in some provinces the borrowing limit of individual members, lays down the maximum amount up to which the managing committee may borrow during the ensuing year, dismisses members for misconduct or serious default, and settles the rates of interest for loans and deposits. All the net profits of society are annually carried to the reserve fund, which is indivisible, that is, incapable of distribution as dividend or bonus, which cannot be drawn upon without the sanction of the Registrar, and which must be invested in such a manner as the rules framed under the Act may prescribe. It is intended to meet unforeseen losses and to serve as an asset or security in borrowings. Except in the Central Provinces and Madras, and to some extent in a few other provinces, the reserve funds of primary societies are generally utilised as an addition to their working capital except when they have considerable outside deposits and have to make special arrangements in respect of fluid resource to cover such borrowings.

Main defects.—The main defects of primary societies may be summarised. The most prominent is the evil of apynctuality. This is due more to easy going ways of life and the narrowness of margin between income and expenditure than to recalcitrancy. Next is the frequent apathy of the members in the work of the societies owing to their lack of education and an absence of higher ideals. The general body leaves affairs wholly to the discretion of the committee and the committee transfers its powers to the chairman, secretary or some other member. Then there is the objectionable practice of making book adjustments and taking *benami* loans. A grave defect is the inability of the societies to act as real banks, accepting for deposit money when presented, meeting withdrawals of such saving deposits or temporary surplus funds without delay and granting loans on demand according to actual requirements. In many a society, activity is displayed only twice in the year, once during the cultivation season when loans are advanced and again after harvest time when recoveries are collected. In several provinces members have to wait for weeks before they can get funds for agricultural operations, and as such operations must be preceded with resort to the money-lender is not uncommon. With the approval of normal credits in advance and the provision of banking facility through the opening of branches of district banks or central banks for smaller areas this defect is now being gradually remedied. To provide for members who want large loans on the security of land for clearance of debt or agricultural improvement, a separate land mortgage society has

been started in the Punjab, and may be found necessary in other Provinces where large amounts are required by agriculturists on the security of their landed property. A similar proposal has already been mooted in Madras where the Local Government have agreed to subscribe to half the capital required if the other half is raised locally. In Bombay the assistance asked for from the State for a similar scheme is the recognition of the land mortgage banks debentures as trustee securities and Government guarantee for payment of interest and the subscription of half the capital in the initial stages. As the bye-laws in many provinces place a limitation on the amount of loan that can be advanced to an individual and financing agencies are often unable to make long term advances societies cannot be said everywhere to have supplanted the money lender.

Non-agricultural Societies.—Non agricultural credit societies have grown up in towns and cities as part of a movement for improving the economic and moral condition of persons engaged in handicrafts and cottage industries, of artisans and small traders, members of particular castes and employees of big firms and Government departments. These societies have usually a limited liability. This is due partly to the absence of any assets in real property among their members, but mainly to the field of their work not being compact as is the case with agricultural societies, where every member may be expected to know every other member. Their constitution is based on the Schulze-Deitsch model. In most societies the management is honorary, though sometimes, when the sphere of a society's work is extended a paid staff is employed. There is in all societies a substantial share capital, payments being made in monthly instalments, and the rest of the working capital is obtained by local deposits from members and others. Loans from co-operative banks and societies usually form only a meagre proportion of the capital. At the end of the year 1922-23 out of 5 crores, only 40 lakhs were held from central banks.

At the end of every year, one-fourth of the net profits must be carried to the reserve fund and the balance may be distributed as dividend or bonus. There are a few drawbacks in the working of these societies. The most serious of these complaints are that the spirit of co-operation is lacking in many non-agricultural societies, that there is too great a desire to go in for profit-making and dividends and a growing tendency to make the societies close premises once they have started running on profitable lines. The rates of interest on loans are at times higher than they ought to be, and the men at the head of the societies are loth to admit new members who are in need of loans for fear of the latter cutting down the profits.

Included in this group are communal societies, and societies of employees of firms, railway companies and Government offices. There are again, in Bombay and Burma, a few societies organized on the lines of the People's Banks of Italy to assist small traders and artisans in towns and there are also some societies comprising members of particular communities. The larger banks in Bombay and

Burma, open current accounts, grant cash credits and overdrafts and issue or discount local bills of exchange. These give promise of developing a truly non-capitalist system of banking run for the people and by the people, providing for the person of small means those modern banking facilities which have so largely assisted in developing trade and industries in other countries. Some of the larger non-agricultural societies, after meeting the needs of their members, have large balances on hand, which they are allowed, with the previous sanction of the Registrar, to advance to smaller primary societies. This practice is however, being gradually eliminated and the surpluses of all primary societies are being concentrated in their central banks.

With the growth of industries and the development of cities an important labouring class has grown up in big industrial towns and this class is as deeply indebted and as badly remunerated as the agriculturists ultimately are. Co-operation, if introduced, among people of this class, provides opportunities of organization for common ends, besides being the means of their economic regeneration. Systematic efforts have been made, however, only in a few centres, elsewhere urban co-operation has so far been confined more or less to middle class people. The first experiment was initiated in Bombay under the auspices of an organization known as the Debt Redemption Committee. Considerable work in this direction has also been done in Madras, through social workers and the Labour Department, particularly among the depressed classes and among the low paid employees of municipal bodies. The Social Service League of Bombay has lately started a large number of credit societies among factory workers, and the formation of co-operative credit societies for workers in factories has come to be recognized as an essential feature of every well considered scheme of welfare work.

Loans advanced.—The total amounts of loans advanced to members by agricultural and non-agricultural societies during the year 1922-23 were Rs 6,42,68,630 and Rs 4,42,46,761, respectively. Loans are mostly given on the security of two co-members. Under the Act, societies are allowed, subject to certain conditions, to advance loans on the hypothecation of moveable or immoveable property, and there is nothing unco-operative in this so long as personal security, which is the central principle of co-operation, is given and the borrower's property is recognised as only a secondary or collateral protection. Mortgages are taken occasionally, especially as security for long term loans or loans for large amounts.

It is impossible to insist on the restriction of loans to productive objects and there are circumstances under which unproductive loans are permissible and even advisable. What should be and generally is borne in mind is that precautions are taken by societies that the expenditure is inevitable and that it is not excessive in amount. The chief objects of the loans advanced are cultivation expenses, purchase of live-stock, fodder, seed, manure and agricultural implements, payment of rent, revenue or irrigation dues, land improvement and sinking of wells, purchase

of new lands, repayment of debt or redemption of mortgaged land and personal maintenance in times of scarcity in agricultural societies, and for purchase of raw materials for industries, for trade, for house building and for food and other necessities of life in non-agricultural societies. The period of repayment is one year or less for loans for current needs whether for agriculture or petty trade, and up to five years or so on loans for liquidation of old debts or for land improvement. An unsatisfactory feature of the co-operative system in some of the Provinces is the laxity and unpunctuality in the matter of repayment of loans by members and a general apathy in the matter on the part of societies. As co-operation is both financially and educationally a failure unless punctuality in repayment is ensured, no efforts are spared by organizers to educate societies in this respect. The Co-operative Societies' Act grants to societies priority of claim over other creditors (except the State or the landlord) to enforce any outstanding demand due to the societies from members or past members upon the crops or other agricultural produce, and upon the cattle, fodder or agricultural implements in cases where loans have been advanced for the purposes specified. Law Courts have ruled that the claim is not valid unless a decree is obtained by a society in its favour in advance. To carry out the intention of the framers of the legislation it is proposed to convert this claim into a lien and thus get over the legal difficulty. But not content with this, some co-operators have pleaded for special powers under which overdue loans may be recovered as arrears of land revenue. Most local Governments have framed rules under the Act enabling the Registrar to refer disputed claims to arbitration and to enforce the award of the arbitrator in the same manner as a decree of the Civil Court. It has been suggested and is made the practice in some provinces that sums due under awards of arbitrators should be made recoverable according to the procedure allowed for the recovery of arrears of land revenue. The existence of a special privilege of this character may, however, lead to laxity in the selection of members and carelessness in the granting of loans and in securing regular repayments on them. The demand for a special procedure for the recovery of the dues of a cancelled society stands on a somewhat different footing and the Local Governments of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa were the first to adopt enactments enabling the contributions levied by the liquidator of a cancelled society to be collected in the same manner as arrears of land revenue on an application being made in that behalf by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies. Legislation on similar lines has since then been adopted in almost all other provinces.

The Financing of Agricultural Societies.—As soon as the initial stage of the movement passed, a very urgent problem had to be faced. This was to finance agricultural societies the number of which was growing rapidly. And the problem was solved in different provinces according to the special conditions and the stages of development the movement had attained. In Madras, a central bank, which lent to co-operative societies all

over the Presidency, was started without Government aid as early as in 1907. This was followed by the starting of banks at district headquarters. In other Presidencies, district and taluka banks were established making good the deficiency in the local capital of the societies within their districts, and in some places joint stock banks were persuaded to make advances direct to agricultural societies or through the medium of local central banks. A large number of prosperous non-agricultural societies, as stated above, could afford to make temporary advances to agricultural societies out of their surplus funds. Government aid was also freely given in a few Provinces, although with the progress of the movement this aid was discontinued. In Bombay there was no movement to start local financing agencies and the slow increase in the number of societies made it difficult for central banks with a restricted area of operations to work successfully. Accordingly, the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank was founded in 1911, with the object of financing co-operative societies throughout the Presidency. Later on local central banks came to be started and have taken over from the central bank at Bombay the work of financing societies in the various districts. The bank at Bombay has therefore assumed the functions and even the name of a Provincial Bank. It confines its dealings with primary societies to those areas where central banks are not likely to be established in the near future or where special local circumstances favour direct relations with a strong financial organization. For areas served by the Provincial Bank has opened ten branches and six branches have been started by three of the district central banks.

The Madras Central Bank referred to above has also been converted into a Provincial Bank working in harmony with district banks. A Provincial Bank with central banks and societies affiliated to it is in existence in Upper Burma and this Bank finances primary societies either through the affiliated local banks or through the guaranteeing unions composed of societies. An Apex Bank was started in the Central Provinces in 1918 to form a link between the district banks in the Province and the joint stock banks with branches in the province. It led to the establishment of a Provincial Bank with a similar constitution in Bihar and Orissa. A Provincial Bank composed of central banks as shareholders has been started in Bengal, where, as also in Bihar and Orissa, primary societies are at present financed by central banks at district or taluka head quarters. In the United Provinces primary societies are financed on the same system, and there, too, the starting of a Provincial Apex Bank under which central banks will be federated has long since been under contemplation. The Punjab has a local central banking system and a proposal for the starting of an Apex Bank, issuing debentures as in Bombay with interest guaranteed by Government is under consideration. A provincial union has already been started which works as a financial federation for the local banks in the province and facilitates mutual aid between them till an Apex Bank comes into being. In addition

to the Provincial Banks mentioned above, Mysore has a Provincial Bank and Assam started one during the close of the year for which statistics are given

The constitution of central banks is not uniform, but the existing banks may be classified under three general heads—(1) banks of which the membership is confined to individuals or where societies are admitted as members on exactly the same footing as individuals, (2) banks of which the membership is confined to societies, and (3) banks which include societies and individuals as their members and secure to societies separate representation on the board of directors. The majority of the central banks are of the mixed type and there are hardly any of them which now adhere to the old capitalist constitution. The federal type is theoretically the best, but the paucity of the resources of the constituent primary societies, the lack of personnel and the need for enlisting the support of the urban middle classes have all combined to make the mixed type the most popular in almost all provinces. In Bengal and the Punjab as also in a smaller degree in the United Provinces, and Bihar and Orissa, there has recently been an increase in the number of federal central banks which are found to work well provided their area of operations is much smaller than a revenue district and they serve a compact group of well established societies

Functions of Central Banks—The functions of central banks are to balance the funds of societies and to supply capital. But their duties are not limited to the provision of banking facilities only, but often include the organisation and supervision of societies. Hence in all the major provinces with the exception of the Punjab, Madras and Burma, central banks perform the functions of supervision and guidance of the societies affiliated to them, and in some they also organise new societies and even take up the work of training and propaganda. Usually the unit of area for a central bank is fixed as co terminous with the whole of a revenue district, as the personnel necessary for its successful working may be difficult to secure in a smaller area. However, in most of the provinces of Upper India and Bengal there are in existence central societies for talukas and occasionally for smaller tracts. An important class of institutions included under the statistics of central societies are unions. These may be described as federations of societies which are maintained for supervision, either combined or not with the assessment or guarantee of loans to primary societies. They do not, however, undertake banking business except in the Punjab, the unions in which save for the smallness of the area they cover in no way differ from the pure type of central bank referred to above. These unions have a very restricted area of operations, within a radius of five to eight miles from a central village. They are accepted as integral parts of the provincial organization in Burma and the Central Provinces, in one province serving as a link between primary societies and the provincial bank and in the other between primary societies and local banks. The system has also been extended to Madras,

though in this province no guarantee is undertaken by the unions. In Bombay, guaranteeing unions were introduced as local agencies for supervision and assessment of credit, but the tendency now seems to transfer these functions wholly to central banks. The unions in Bombay are, like those in Madras, to each guarantee and work as supervising and local controlling bodies with a fairly wide area of operations and engaging competent well-trained supervisors. In Burma and Madras, some progress has been made in federating the unions into district councils intended to co-ordinate local activities and represent local cooperative interests.

Organization and Propaganda—It may be mentioned that in most of the provinces the work of organising and looking after the societies is done by the Registrar with the help of a staff of assistant registrars, auditors and other officers and a few honorary non-official workers. Where the central bank system has developed properly, the directors of the central banks either themselves or through a paid agency, organise societies and, as stated above, supervise their working. The number of honorary workers is steadily increasing and in some Presidencies there is a staff of specially appointed honorary organisers who regularly assist the Registrars. The activities of the honorary workers are often, however, spasmodic and unorganised, and in most of the major provinces the need has been felt for some co operative institution which will co ordinate and systematize the efforts of non-official workers, and place them on a responsible basis. The objective is to have the movement directed and controlled through self governing representative bodies like organisation societies or federations existing in Germany, England, Ireland and elsewhere. Such institutions carry on active educational propaganda, and through the agency of local committees and groups of workers, assist in the organization of new societies and attend to their supervision. Arrangements will also be possible for the carrying on the audit of societies—for which Government cannot continue to increase the official staff to an unlimited extent—on payment of some fixed contributions. Finally, such federations should have the ultimate voice in the determination of policy, and subject to the statutory powers of the Registrar gradually take over the entire control of the co-operative organisation in a province. In the Central Provinces, there has been for some years a Federation of Co-operative Banks and Societies which provides a regular and efficient system of supervision, audit and control, arranges for the training of the federation staff, attempts to secure uniformity of practice among co-operative institutions and to promote their interest and foster the spread of co-operation by active propaganda. The working of this Federation was adversely criticized in the report of a Committee of Inquiry appointed by the local Government in 1922, and it was proposed that this body should be dissolved and replaced by separate educational institutes for the Central Provinces and Berar. An institute for education and propaganda has already been started in Berar, a Provincial Union has also

been started in Madras, but its objects are mainly educational and propagandist. Its activities are at present confined to the issuing of co-operative journals and the holding of conferences. Its constitution and its lines of work have now been revised so as to make it the central self-governing organization in the movement. A Central Institute to focus the efforts of co-operative workers and to carry on propagandist work was established in Bombay in 1918. The objects of this institution are to develop the co-operative movement in the Presidency, by promoting the study of co-operation and by co-ordinating the activities of several existing propagandist and organization agencies. The Institute has no powers of control, though it is expected to ascertain and represent the views of co-operators on questions affecting the movement. The activities of the Institute in the *Madras* are carried on through its divisional branches formed on a linguistic basis and local branches in taluka or district towns. This is the most active among non official central organizations in India and has established international relations by sending a delegation to the International Co-operative Conference and participating in the International Co-operative Exhibition held at Ghent in 1924. In Bengal, a similar propagandist organization has been started with identical aims. The Society has taken over some of the educational and propagandist work hitherto performed by the Co-operative Department, and has assisted in the organization of co-operative stores among students in colleges. It has opened branch centres and projected a scheme for the training of members of village societies and their secretaries. A federation with a constitution more or less similar to that of the Central Provinces Federation but having divisional boards to decentralize control is also in existence in Bihar and Orissa, and has appointed a special officer for propaganda and development. In the Punjab a provincial union has been organized for conducting the audit and inspection of primary societies and undertaking general propagandist work. In Burma, the audit of primary societies is conducted by a central council consisting of important departmental officials and representatives of co-operative institutions. This also assists in the organization of the provincial conference and acts as an advisory body to the Registrar. Organization, supervision and propaganda are furthered by district federations of unions of primary societies. The starting of educational and propagandist bodies like the Institute in Bombay is contemplated in the States of Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancore and Mysore and at Ajmere for the Rajputana States and the district of Ajmere-Merwara. These are all recent developments and it is still too early to forecast on what lines the transfer of control to representative co-operative agencies will be carried out.

Other forms of Co-operation.—After the passing of the amended Co-operative Societies Act, the application of co-operation to purposes other than credit was greatly extended, but it is only during the last few years that a general demand for producers' and consumers' societies and agricultural purchase and sale societies has

arisen. Before the year 1918-19, there were only a few store societies all over the country. In all provinces, particularly in Madras, a beginning had been made in the direction of distributive co-operation among the middle classes, while in Bengal and the United Provinces some attention had been devoted to the starting of stores for students living in hostels attached to colleges. The movement obtained popular favour in view of the increasing prices of the daily necessities of life, and the profiteering which assumed serious proportions at the close of the War. Supply unions, store societies, and distributive departments attached to credit societies have been organised in some provinces, while arrangements are contemplated for obtaining cheap, wholesale supplies for the various distributive organisations. The work of organizing co-operative distribution in rural areas was pushed ahead with considerable success under official auspices in the Punjab and Madras but in both provinces a setback is now evident. Neither the supply unions nor the primary purchase and sale societies are in a flourishing condition. The consumer's movement in urban areas received particular attention in Bombay, Madras, Bengal and a few other provinces, but with the disappearance of the special conditions which generated enthusiasm in the years immediately succeeding the close of the War, stagnation has set in and only a few among the numerous store societies started in these provinces have firmly established their position and continue to enjoy the loyal support of their members.

In some Provinces efforts have been made to revive the ancient handicrafts of the country and cottage industries by organizing co-operative societies for the workers. Many of these societies merely provide cheap credit, but in some places they undertake the supply of raw materials and the sale of manufactured goods. An important industry which flourished in India before the introduction of machinery was handloom weaving and efforts have been made to revive it by the formation of co-operative societies of handloom weavers. Most of the weavers' societies are merely credit societies, but some undertake the purchase of good yarn for members, and others have store branches to sell the cloth produced by members. They have also been instrumental in introducing improved looms and methods among the conservative weaving classes. In Bengal and the Punjab much success has attended the organization of central unions among weavers' societies, and similar intensive work in Bihar and Orissa and Bombay has met with good results. Other industrial societies, to be found in very small numbers here and there are those for 'gaoles' or milkmen, dyers, basket and brass workers in the Central Provinces, 'Chammars' and 'Dhirs' in Bombay and the Punjab, lacquerware workers, carpenters, woodcarvers, blacksmiths and potters in Mysore, where the State provides special facilities in the shape of loans and technical assistance for the development of artisans' societies. In Bombay, the producers movement has extended to communities of workers like coppermiths and goldsmiths, carpenters, dyers, and others, and drawing its inspiration

from the ancient guild spirit animating the communities, it aims at creating a strong economic organisation among these various industrial workers and craftsmen, based on self-help and self-government. Another offshoot of this movement is the starting of co-operative societies among skilled or unskilled labourers on the lines of the labour societies of Italy. The initiative came from Kashmir, while experimental societies were also started in Madras, and in Bombay. The object of these is to organise labourers to tender for contracts for public or private works, to eliminate the middle-man contractor and to utilize the profits he made for the economic and social betterment of the labouring community. The Indian Industrial Commission in the course of their inquiries devoted some attention to the development of small and cottage industries and the possibility of reviving them by the introduction of co-operation. Their recommendations on this subject are not very definite. State loans for purchase of costly plant or machinery are, however, recommended, and emphasis is laid on the necessity of arranging facilities for the marketing of products of home industries. The first step to industrial co-operation is to be taken by familiarizing workers with the principles of co-operative credit, though later on separate non-credit institutions would become necessary. Suggestions are made for technical guidance to workers, and the local departments of industries are advised to keep workers constantly informed about the demands of the markets. Organisation of industrial societies is to be a function of local departments of industries, but as these will be engaged with problems of big industries, it is doubtful if the cottage and small industries will have much scope for development under their guidance and direction.

An interesting development of recent years in the provision of housing through co-operative societies. A good number of housing societies have been started in Bombay City and suburbs and also in a few other centres. They are generally organized on the co-partnership system, under which the society owns the houses and lets them to members at fixed rents. The scheme is feasible for such sections of the middle classes as can provide a certain proportion of the initial capital. Tenant-ownership societies have also been started. There are some building societies in Madras and a few more in Mysore, but their activities are confined mainly to the provision of capital for building schemes and only occasionally extend to the joint purchase of land or of building materials. The Local Governments of Bombay and Madras as also the State of Mysore set apart annually about five lakhs of Rupees for advances to housing societies at fair rates of interest and with repayments spread over a number of years.

The province of Burma is a pioneer in the matter of cattle insurance, and to support the village insurance societies which have been started in the province, there has been organised a central re-insurance society, which receives some financial backing from Government. In the other provinces where it has been introduced co-operative insurance for cattle has

made only slight progress, with the exception of the Punjab where the movement has advanced so far as to necessitate the starting of a re-insurance society.

Agricultural Co-operation.—Co-operative societies have until recently been organised only to supply cheap credit to their members, but there are various other fields of work to which they may extend their activities. Grain banks have, in some provinces, been started with advantage, receiving deposits in kind and allowing these to accumulate to be sold at profitable rates or distributed to the members in times of scarcity. Such banks have been started in Behar and Orissa, Bengal, Mysore and Coorg. Societies on a similar basis for the storage of fodder have been started in Baroda and may assist in solving what has become an important problem in rural economy in some provinces. Another direction in which the co-operative principle is being adopted is the starting of societies for purchase of and distribution among members of pure and selected seed. A number of small seed societies have been organised in the Bombay Presidency, and in the Central Provinces and Berar the work appears to have been particularly well organized. Societies for the co-operative purchase and sale of manure will also prove a great boon, and a few such stores have been established in Madras, Bengal and Bombay. In the Punjab and in Madras the supply of agricultural requisites has been undertaken either by the credit societies on the commission indent system or special supply unions are organized for bulking orders, making contracts, distributing goods, and collecting payments.

Joint sale of produce gets popular as co-operative credit thrives and agriculturists become less dependent on local traders. While Burma led the way by starting societies for the joint sale of paddy, the most interesting developments in the direction have taken place in Bombay. Societies for the sale of agricultural commodities chiefly cotton and jaggery have been started in several districts in the Deccan and the Karnatak. This aspect of co-operation has lately attracted considerable attention and attempts similar to those made in Bombay have been made in Madras and the Punjab, in the latter province with considerable success. It will indeed be a great achievement if these efforts are successful and the cultivator obtains adequate returns for his produce. At present he buys in the dearest market and sells in the cheapest. But if co-operative purchase and sale show good progress, his economic position will be much improved. Apart from separate societies for the purpose, credit societies and central banks, in many parts of the country, arrange for the joint sale of produce. In some places, credit societies undertake the joint purchase of agricultural implements for members, while in other separate registered societies are started for the purpose of selling implements or supplying these on hire. In some provinces in Upper India, this work is performed by central banks for the societies affiliated to them. Apart from separately registered societies in Bombay, the branches of the Provincial Bank have helped consider-

ably in the supply of seeds, manures and fertilizers, the sale of agricultural implements and the sale of produce, particularly jaggery.

Efforts have been made in various parts of the country to solve the problem of milk-supply—to reduce the price and increase the purity—by starting co-operative dairies, composed either wholly of gaoles or milkmen or the producers and the consumers together. Co-operative creameries and ghee producing societies have also been started in one or two provinces. Another interesting development is the starting of cattle-breeding societies in the Central Provinces and elsewhere. It is anticipated that these societies will assist in supplying the keen demand that exists for bulls of good stock. In a few provinces there are societies for rice-hulling, the manufacture of jaggery and for lift irrigation. The latter is an interesting development of co-operation which appears to have established itself in popular favour in the Burdwan Division of Bengal. This tract once very flourishing has been ravaged in recent years by frequent floods and famines and the population had lost all initiative and sank into poverty while their lands deteriorated and malaria claimed a heavy toll. The starting of irrigation societies has opened a new chapter in the history of the tract and has revived the energy of the people and brought them together for common economic endeavour. Ginning on co-operative lines has also been attempted. An interesting experiment in agricultural co-operation is the starting in the Punjab of societies for the consolidation of small and scattered holdings. These propose to re-group and re-allot the holdings of members, and if this voluntary action proves sufficient for the purpose, one of the gravest evils of modern Indian agriculture will be solved without the aid of State help or legislation. In Bombay, action has been taken on somewhat different lines to deal with the problem of the uneconomic cultivator. A beginning has been made in the direction of starting co-operative societies for joint farming, and the movement may lead to the evolution of a system of co-operative cultivation of land such as has been extremely successful in Italy.

Co-operation has already been successful to some extent in redeeming the chronic indebtedness of the agriculturist, but if the improvement in his economic condition is to be permanent it is essential that he should be prevailed upon to adopt improved methods of production. The Agricultural Departments in various provinces do under take propagandist work with this object, but their efforts have not proved as successful as they ought to be. A co-operative society provides an effective agency for reaching the agriculturist, and in many places societies have been the means of bringing home to him the need for improved methods and have been made the centres for conducting the propagandist activities of the Agricultural Department and district Agricultural Associations. As a result, a few societies have been enterprising enough to purchase modern agricultural implements, and the machinery recommended by the Department and to use the proper manures and the certified

varieties of seeds. "Wherever agriculture and co-operation have experienced the assistance which each can derive from association with the other they are fast developing a truly organic connection." To this end, joint efforts are being promoted in almost all provinces where the Departments are in charge of one Minister. This co-ordination is secured by joint conferences, and joint boards of co-operation and agriculture and the starting of local agricultural associations under the Co-operative Societies Act.

Committee on Co-operation in India—

In July 1914, the Government of India issued a lengthy Resolution on Co-operation in India, surveying its progress in the country during the previous ten years. In October Government appointed a Committee under Sir Edward Moulton to examine whether the movement especially in its higher stages and in its financial aspect was progressing on sound lines and to suggest any measures of improvement which seemed to be required. The enquiry was to be directed primarily to an examination of such matters as the constitution and working of central and provincial banks, the financial connection between the various parts of the co-operative organization, the audit inspection and management of all classes of societies, and the utilization of the reserve funds. In its Report, which was issued in September 1915, the Committee stated that it had not confined its enquiries to the subjects referred to it, for it had to recognise that the financial welfare of the higher stages of the co-operative system was largely based on the soundness of the foundation.

Government Action on Committee's

Report.—The Government of India have passed orders on the recommendations in the light of the opinions of the Local Governments. With a view further to elicit opinion on the recommendations a special conference of the Registrars was convened in August 1918, to which all the Registrars and a few selected non-official co-operators were invited. The Conference was also asked to consider the suggestion made by the Committee on Co-operation that as the financing of the movement involved grave difficulties which baffled solution unless the discounting of promissory notes was arranged through an Imperial State Bank or the several Presidency Banks, a careful examination of the question was immediately called for. A proposal was made for the appointment of an expert committee, but the Government of India have practically shirked it by stating that they would assemble the committee at some date convenient to them. Under the Reforms, co-operation has been made a provincial subject and also a transferred subject. The control of Co-operative Departments has been entrusted to Ministers and in Bombay, the United Provinces, and the Central Provinces, Bills have been drawn up for enactment by the local Legislative Councils to take the place of the Co-operative Societies Act. The Bombay Co-operative Societies Bill was introduced in July 1924 in the Bombay Legislative Council and has been referred to a Select Committee. It reproduces, in the main, the framework of

the Act of 1912 but proposes to introduce the following important modifications —

- (i) The adoption of a scientific system of classifying societies
- (ii) The improvement of the procedure for liquidation of cancelled societies
- (iii) The extension of summary powers of recovering to the awards of arbitrators
- (iv) The provision of penalties against specified offences

The Bill has been subjected to severe criticism by non official co operators and has been referred back to the Select Committee for further consideration

Effect of Crisis on Co-operation—It is hardly possible without any close and scientific inquiry, such as has not yet been carried out to appreciate accurately the effects of the co-operative movement in enabling agriculturists to resist the rigours of a famine as also to judge the reaction of the latter on the co-operative organisation as there is an interplay of various economic forces affecting the life and industry of agriculturists the proportionate value of which cannot be estimated easily. The agricultural season of 1918-19, however, put the co-operative organisation in most provinces to a very severe test and the reports for the succeeding years afford some indication of the resisting power of the co-operative organization. In the Central Provinces owing to the drying up of recoveries and the issue of large advances to agriculturists to tide over a bad season the fund resources of the movement were seriously depleted and the Apex Bank was able to meet its liabilities only with the financial assistance of Government. The fund resources of the Provincial Bank were replenished and the Local Government with the concurrence of the Government of India, placed credits at the disposal of the Provincial Bank and made advances direct to primary societies in the form of Tashil loans. A Committee of Inquiry was appointed which made sweeping recommendations the most important of which was the liquidation of the Provincial Bank and the placing of central banks in direct touch with commercial banks. This recommendation was however subsequently turned down by the Local Government although some other recommendations such as the division of agricultural finance into short term crop loans and long term non crop loans met with a considerable amount of public support. In Bengal and the Punjab the return of favourable seasons has averted any breakdown of the system which threatened to overtake the local co-operative organizations when agricultural scarcity on a wide scale caused serious difficulties some time ago. The same may now be asserted of the United Provinces, where there appeared to be some danger of the strain not being quite successfully withstood. Committees of Inquiry were also appointed in Bihar and Orissa and Mysore, in the former to advise about financial organization and official control, and in the latter to lay down a policy of development particularly in relation to higher finance, non credit co-operation agricultural improvement

and the relief of indebtedness. With a better appreciation of the dependence of the agriculturist on seasons, and a more systematic management of the funds of central societies it is anticipated that in future the situation arising out of a failure of rains will be satisfactorily met. In 1913 and the following months practically the whole of the country was subjected to a banking crisis of considerable magnitude but a marked feature of this crisis was a tendency to withdraw deposits from commercial institutions and place them in co-operative banks. The outbreak of the War brought another set of influences into play and there was a temporary tendency to withdraw deposits and a temporary cessation of new deposits. The disturbance was not serious except in two or three provinces and by the end of the year 1914-15, the situation became practically normal. In two of the provinces where the situation caused some anxiety owing to the cessation of fresh deposits in central banks, the Government sanctioned advances to the extent of Rs. 5,00,000 to central societies to be utilised in the grant of urgent loans to agricultural societies or to meet withdrawals of deposits. On the whole, therefore, the movement appears to have stood the test of the War much better than might have been expected.

Social Reform—Co-operation has, in some places, stimulated the desire for education and members of rural societies have been known even at advanced ages to receive the elements of education to enable them to put their signatures on their society's papers and to take a lively interest in the internal work of their institutions. In Bombay, night schools for adults have been started with the aid of a splendid donation made by the late Sir Vithaldas D. Thackersey, while in the Punjab, Bihar, Bengal and elsewhere much expenditure on education is incurred by co-operative institutions themselves. In the Punjab separate rural societies have been registered to conduct night schools. There are not few cases where a society has set its face against drunkenness, expelled members notorious for their intemperate habits and has insisted on a high standard of morality and attempted to improve the standard of life. Societies have occasionally condemned excessive expenditure on marriages, and have thus indirectly trained members to habits of thrift. The liquidation of old debts again has been rendered possible to a great extent and many an agriculturist who was formerly in a state of chronic indebtedness has been relieved of all his debts and freed from the necessity of incurring new ones. Credit has been much cheapened and it is now possible for the agriculturist to borrow at 9 to 18 per cent. what he could not borrow at less than 20 to 75 per cent. formerly. It has been calculated that in interest alone the agriculturists of India, by taking loans from co-operative credit societies instead of from the village money lenders, are even now saving themselves from an unnecessary burden of over a crore of rupees. The village rates of interest have naturally gone down considerably and the Sowkar is, in most places, not the terror and the force that he was. Business habits have been inculcated with the

benevolent result that the agriculturist has learnt to conduct his own work more efficiently. Thrift has been encouraged and the value of savings better appreciated. Association in a body for common good has brought home to the people the blessings of unity and litigation has often decreased in villages with society. In the Punjab, a number of societies were started in rural areas whose members agreed to refer all disputes to arbitration by their elected committees and to abide by the awards of arbitrators. Participation in the management of societies has instilled among members

the important lessons of self-help and self-reliance, but the most important achievement of co-operation has been the development of a sense of communal life—a feeling of 'all for each and each for all'—among members of village societies and the gradual revival of the corporate instincts which made Indian rural organization famous in the world's history.

The following statements show the progress of the Co-operative movement in different provinces, and contain some information about their detailed working till the end of the official year 1922-23—

Number of Societies for all India, showing the increase since 1906-07

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20	
1	2	3	4	
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions)	17	231	304	
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies)			638	
Cultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	1,713	10,891	20,873	
Agricultural	196	661	1,662	
Total	1,926	11,786	23,477	
Non-Agricultural				
	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23

Number of Societies by Provinces for 1922-23 only

Province	Population in millions	Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions)	Supervising and Guar- anteeing Unions (including Life Insurance Societies)	Agricultural (including Cattle Inan- rance Socie- ties)	Non- Agricultural	Total number of Societies	Number of Societies per 100,000 Inhabitants
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	42.3	33	249	7,195	960	8,443	19.9
Bombay	19.3	20	66	2,878	569	3,513	18.3
Bengal	46.7	90	6	7,213	518	7,922	16.8
Bihar and Orissa	34.0	49	119	4,661	301	5,180	15.1
United Provinces	45.4	70	9	5,209	217	5,505	12.1
Punjab	20.7	110	1	8,892	444	9,447	45.6
Burma	11.7	13	607	4,650	196	5,468	46.7
Central Provinces and Berar	13.9	85	306	4,444	73	4,858	34.9
Assam	7.6	19	1	583	53	636	8.6
Coorg	0.2	1	2	151	12	166	83.0
Ajmer-Merwara	0.5	7	2	449	42	500	100.0
Hyderabad Administered Area	0.1	1			9	9	9.0
Delhi	0.5	1		111	38	150	80.0
Total (British India)	242.9	450	1,368	46,436	3,433	51,687	21.2
Mysore	6.0	17		1,249	272	1,538	25.6
Baroda	2.1	18		494	49	548	26.1
Hyderabad	12.1	18		1,824	203	1,946	12.4
Bhopal	0.7	24	11	783		818	116.9
Total (Indian States)	21.3	64	11	3,850	524	4,449	20.8
Grand Total	264.2	514	1,379	50,286	3,957	56,136	21.2

Number of Members for all Unions showing the increase since 1908-07

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Average for 4 years from 1908-09 to 1909-10	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15	Average for 6 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions)		1,987	23,877	89,925	127,145	143,488	154,978	163,075
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Life Insurance Societies)				10,971	17,274	10,322	21,554	24,730
Agricultural (including Cattle In- surance Societies)		107,643	459,096	902,930*	1,181,718	1,362,391	1,523,014	1,613,368
Non-Agricultural		54,267	89,157	226,031	339,420	390,513	450,076	489,078
Total Number of members of primary Societies		161,910	548,253	1,128,961	1,521,138	1,752,904	1,974,290	2,102,446

*Excluding members of Cattle Insurance Societies at the end of 1915-16 and 1916-17, and those in Bombay and the United Provinces at the end of 1917-18

Number of Members by Promoters for 1922-23 only

Province	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Population in millions	Central (Including Provincial and Central Banks and Unions)	Supervising and Guarant- eeing Unions (Including Re-insurance Societies)	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	Non Agricultural	Total number of Members of primary Societies	Number of Members of primary Societies per 1,000 inhabitants
1								
Madras		42.3	9,961	6,514	389,264	141,057	7,821	19.4
Bombay		19.3	8,288	457	7,775	120,159	827,584	1.0
Bengal		46.7	11,811	213	201,239	190,721	280,937	6.0
Bihar and Orissa		34.0	10,641	5,414	184,821	17,662	152,483	4.5
United Provinces		45.4	10,209	102	124,864	11,583	136,447	8.0
Punjab		20.7	11,548	10	223,782	19,428	243,160	11.7
Burma		11.7	5,717	5,758	112,116	27,511	139,637	11.9
Central Provinces and Berar		13.9	84,237	5,879	71,717	4,939	76,656	5.6
Assam		7.6	1,719	7	25,435	6,541	31,976	4.2
Coorg		0.2	132	10	6,847	1,254	8,101	40.5
Almor-Merwara		0.5	1,530	141	9,830	3,871	13,701	27.4
Hyderabad Administered Area		0.1				288	288	2.9
Delhi		0.5	229		1,848	444	2,292	4.6
Total (British India)		242.9	155,912	21,505	1,506,485	434,458	1,940,943	8.0
Mysore		6.0	2,403		49,659	4,253	92,912	15.5
Baroda		2.1	866		13,586	3,700	17,286	8.2
Hyderabad		12.5	2,653		30,896	7,697	38,593	3.1
Bhopal		0.7	1,841	225	12,743		12,743	18.2
Total (Indian States)		21.3	7,793	225	106,883	54,620	161,503	7.6
Grand Total		264.2	163,676	24,730	1,613,368	489,078	2,102,446	8.0

Working Capital for all India showing the increase since 1906-07

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Average for 1 years from 1906-07 to 1909 10	Average for 5 years from 1910 11 to 1914 15	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919 20	1919 20	1920 21	1921 22	1922 23
	Rs (1 000)	Rs (1 000)	Rs (1 000)	Rs (1 000)	Rs (1 000)	Rs (1 000)	Rs (1 000)
	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
Share capital paid up	13 19	88 87	2 51 97	3,40,00	4,05 25	4 63,69	5 12 45
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Members	14,12	88 28	96 35	1,37 02	1 63 60	2,24,74	2 69 77
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Societies	13 59	1,93,42*	47,81	73,94	99,11	1,23,76	1 48 22
Loans held deposits held at the end of the year from Provincial or Central Banks			5,03,19	7 26,62	9 17 99	10,74,24	11 87 71
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Government	5 86	10 87	25 98	37,78	49 50	52,46	55 38
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Non Members and other sources	19 69	1 41 98	4,70,25	6,45,84	7,92 32	9,19,94	10 77 39
Reserve and other funds	1 67	25 00	1,23 32	1 79,82	2,14 66	2,53,41	3,02 98
Total	68,12	5,48 42	15,18,47	21,40,71	20,42,83	31,12 24	35,53 90

* Includes loans from Provincial or Central Banks

Working Capital by Provinces for 1922-23-24

Province	Popu- lation in mil- lions	Share Capital paid up	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from							Total	Number of sales per head of popu- lation
			Members	Societies	Provincial or Central Banks	Govern- ment	Non Members and other sources	Reserve and other funds			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
		Rs (1,000)	Rs (1,000)	Rs (1,000)	Rs (1,000)	Rs (1,000)	Rs (1,000)	Rs (1,000)	Rs (1,000)	As	
Madras	42.8	95.42	83.43	24.19	309.33	2.90	2,30.28	27.50	713.05	27	
Bombay	19.3	68.71	1,31.13	9,968	87.88	17.51	1,41.21	26.71	5,33.16	44	
Bengal	46.7	56.97	86.38	5.44	1,44.57	17.51	1,41.21	26.71	5,33.16	44	
United Provinces	34.0	17.79	5.87	3.50	27.45	2.90	2,30.28	27.50	713.05	27	
Punjab	43.4	65.35	5.48	1.74	49.38	5.7	7,70.2	1,00.0	2,19.18	10	
Bihar	20.7	65.36	23.82	19.79	1,60.89	3.37	45.06	69.96	1,61.49	9	
Central Provinces and Berar	11.7	74.33	10.94	8.41	1,14.47	17.16	1,20.26	41.19	3,86.76	52	
Assam	12.9	27.33	2.85	17.35	1,52.05	3.21	1,07.61	29.08	3,28.76	39	
Coorg	7.6	3.21	2.87	1.22	4.41	2.6	7.97	3.24	23.46	5	
Almer Merwara	0.2	1.40	2.3	2	33	2	61	83	34.6	28	
Hyderabad Administered Area	0.5	6.47	37	19	12.89	2	15.92	5.53	41.39	131	
Delhi	0.5	55	35	8	2.04	2	20	4	6.37	15	
Total (British India)	212.0	4,33.43	2,53.73	1,41.95	11,35.67	45.26	10,22.27	2,70.80	33,32.11	22	
Mysore	6.0	34.91	10.75	4.10	7.91	15	16.71	10.16	84.09	22	
Baroda	2.1	2.53	4.54	1.04	5.41	1.76	3.48	3.48	26.67	21	
Hyderabad	12.5	21.52	75	84	33.81	7.80	25.02	8.39	97.84	11	
Bhopal	0.7	86	29	5.51	1.11	1.11	5.08	1.24	13.19	30	
Total (Indian States)	21.0	59.02	16.04	6.27	52.04	10.12	56.12	23.18	2,21.79	1	
Grand Total	264.2	5,12.15	2,69.77	1,48.22	11,87.71	55.38	10,77.39	3,02.98	35,53.90	22	

Indians Overseas.

NUMBERS—The total Indian population resident in the countries to which Indians mainly emigrate for purposes of settlement, according to the latest available returns, is as follows:—

Name of Country		Indian population	Date of Census
<i>British Empire</i>			
1	Ceylon	750,000 (according to the census of 1921 the Indian population on estates in Ceylon consisted of— Males 257,808 Females 239,800)	1921
2	Straits Settlements	104,628	1921
3	Federated Malay States	305,219	1921
4	British Malaya	61,819	1921
5	Hong Kong	2,555	1911
6	Mauritius	264,527	1921
7	Seychelles	332	1911
8	Gibraltar	50 (approximately)	1920
9	Nigeria	100 (")	1920
10	Kenya	22,822	1921
11	Uganda	3,500	1920
12	Nyasaland	407	1918
13	Zanzibar	12,841	1921
14	Tanganyika Territory	9,411	1921
15	Jamaica	18,401	1922
16	Trinidad	121,420	1921
17	British Guiana	124,938	1921
18	Fiji Islands	60,634	1921
19	Basutoland	179	1911
20	Swaziland	7	1911
21	Northern Rhodesia	56 (Asiatics)	1921
22	Southern Rhodesia	1,250 (")	1921
23	Canada	1,200	1920
24	Australia—		
	Western Australia	300	} 2,000 (approximately) 1922
	Southern Australia	200	
	Victoria	400	
	New South Wales	700	
	Queensland	800	
	Tasmania	100	
25	New Zealand	606	1921
26	Natal	141,386	1921
27	Transvaal	13,405	1921
28	Cape Colony	6,498	1921
29	Orange Free State	100	1921
30	Newfoundland		1921
Total for British Empire		2,030,241	
<i>Foreign Countries</i>			
31	United States of America	3,175 (Asiatics)	1910
32	Madagascar	5,272 (Indians)	1917
33	Reunion	2,194	1921
34	Dutch East Indies	832,667 (Orientals, chiefly Chinese & Arabs) (say) 50,000 Indians	
35	Surinam	34,937	1920
36	Mozambique	1,100 (Asiatics and half- castes)	
37	Persia	3,827	Not known
Total for Foreign Countries		100,525	1922
Grand Total of Indians Overseas		2,130,766	

Origin of Indian Emigration—Emigration is prohibited by the Hindu Shastras, and there is little evidence of any settlement of Indians overseas in early times except in Sumatra, Java and Ceylon. Emigration for purposes of labour dates from the beginning of the 19th century. From 1800 A. D. onwards Indians crossed the Bay to the Straits Settlements to work on the sugar, spice, tapioca, and coconut plantations of Penang, and this intercourse was allowed to continue for long without regulation. The first officially recorded instance of genuine recruitment for labour emigration occurred in 1830, when a French merchant, named Joseph Argand, carried some 150 artisans to Bourbon. The abolition of slavery in British colonies in 1834 gave the first great impetus to the movement. The sugar planters of Mauritius at once turned to India as their best recruiting ground, and between 1834 and 1837 obtained at least 7,000 recruits from Calcutta. The Government of India at a very early stage realised the necessity of bringing such emigration under regulation. The Law Commission was asked to investigate the case and to make recommendations for securing the well being of emigrants. They advised that no legislation was required except in order to prevent undue advantage being taken of the simplicity and ignorance of emigrants by providing that a magistrate should satisfy himself that all contracts were entered into freely and understood by them and in order to secure that sufficient provision was made for their accommodation and sustenance during the voyage. A copy of every engagement was also to be transmitted to the Government under which the emigrants were to live. These recommendations were embodied in the first Emigration Act (V of 1837), which also provided that contracts should be determinable after 5 years.

History of Emigration—Under the above Act emigration during 1837 was permitted to Mauritius, British Guiana and Australia (39 men, the first and last direct emigrants to Australia). In 1838 emigration was suspended owing to agitation in England regarding the abuses to which the system was liable, and a committee of enquiry reported in 1840 that emigrants were being entrapped by force or fraud, robbed of their wages and treated with brutality. In consequence, emigration was prohibited (Act XV of 1842) except to Mauritius, and there control was tightened. In Act XXI of 1844 emigration under still stricter regulation was allowed to Jamaica, British Guiana and Trinidad. Act XIII of 1847 removed the restrictions on emigration to Ceylon. The emancipation of slaves in the French colonies in 1849 gave rise to a system of emigration from French Indian ports to Réunion and Bourbon, which was largely based on crimping in British territory. This practice was checked by Act XXIV of 1852. In 1858 emigration was opened to St. Lucia, and in 1860 to St. Vincent, Natal and St. Kitts. In the latter year a more elaborate Act, based on a convention with the French Government, was passed legalising and regulating emigration to Réunion, Martinique, Guadeloupe, and French Guiana. Act XIII of 1864 marks an important stage in the history of emigration, since it elaborated

and consolidated the whole system of control. It was itself amended in 1869 and 1870 in important respects with the object of preventing epidemics on emigrant vessels and improving sanitary conditions in settlements. In 1869 emigration was permitted to Grenada, and in 1872 to Surinam. Owing to the removal of the Straits Settlements from the control of the Government of India in 1867, emigration to that colony came under all the restrictions imposed by the Emigration Act and was only permitted from the port of Negapatam. Owing to the injury caused to the agricultural industries of the colony, these restrictions were removed in 1872 subject only to magisterial control of recruitment in India. In 1870 complaints reached the Government of India of gross abuses in the treatment of emigrants in British Guiana. A commission of enquiry was appointed, and their report led to important legislation in the colony for the protection of Indian immigrants, which was subsequently extended to Trinidad. Owing to similar complaints from Natal and Mauritius, commissions of enquiry were also instituted in both these colonies, and their reports in 1872 brought to light a number of points requiring amendment.

Recent Legislation—In 1871 a fresh consolidating Act was passed (Act VII of 1871) by which the Acts regulating emigration to the French Colonies and two amending Acts to Act XIII of 1864 were incorporated in the general law. The question of revision of the law again came up for consideration in 1882, when several cases of kidnapping and other objectionable practices were reported to the Government of India. The opportunity was taken to depute two officials (Major Pitcher and Mr. Grierson) to ascertain, in the N. W. P. and in Bengal respectively, the way in which the system of recruitment actually worked, the respects in which it was open to improvement, and the attitude of the people towards emigration. Their reports were reviewed by the Government of India, and finally in 1883 the law was again recast and consolidated by Act XXI of that year. This Act specifies the countries to which emigration is lawful, but empowers the Governor General in Council to add to the list by notification, and also to prohibit emigration to any of the countries in the list on the ground of epidemic disease and or excessive mortality among emigrants in such country, or on the ground that proper measures have not been taken for the protection of emigrants, or that the agreements made with them in India are not duly enforced. This Act with certain amendments of no importance to the system of indentured emigration remained in force until 1908, when a fresh revision of the law was undertaken.

Under the Act of 1908 (XVII of 1908) the countries to which emigration was lawful were the British Colonies of Mauritius, Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad, St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, Natal, St. Kitts, Nevis, Fiji, the Seychelles, the Netherlands Colony of Dutch Guiana and the Danish Colony of St. Croix. Emigration to St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Kitts, Nevis, the Seychelles and St. Croix ceased soon after the passing of the Act, the demand for fresh labour having died out

Emigration to Natal was discontinued from the 1st July 1911 as the Government of India were satisfied that it was undesirable to continue to send Indian labour to that country. Emigration to the French Colonies of Reunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe had been suspended prior to the passing of the Act of 1908 on account of repeated complaints of the inadequate precautions taken for the proper treatment and repatriation of the immigrants.

The labour laws of the several Colonies provide for the protection and welfare of resident Indian labourers. The Government of India also occasionally depute to the colonies their officers to report on the condition of Indian labourers. Deputations from India visited Fiji and Br. Guiana in 1921. In spite of all precautions certain social and moral evils had grown up in connection with the indentured system of emigration, and Indian public opinion has during the last decade been strongly opposed to it. The whole system was exhaustively examined by the Government of India in 1915 in the light of the report received from Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal and they arrived at the conclusion that the time had come when contract labour should be abolished. The Secretary of State for India accepted this policy and authorised the Government of India to announce the abolition of the indentured system and the announcement to this effect was made in 1916.

In 1922 a further step forward was taken in Act VII of 1922 which prohibited indentured emigration and all unskilled emigration, except to countries specially approved by the Legislature. Emigration to Ceylon and Malaya was brought under control, and the definition of "Emigrant" was extended to cover all persons "assisted" to depart from India.

References.—The following is a list of the most important reports on questions connected with Indian Emigration that have been published during recent years—

1. Report of the International Commission appointed to enquire into the condition and treatment of British India immigrants in Reunion 1879
2. Report on the system of recruiting coolies in the North Western Provinces and Oudh for the Colonies, 1883
3. Major Pitcher and Mr. Grierson's report on the system of recruiting labourers in the North Western Provinces and Bengal for the Colonies, 1888
4. Report of the Natal Indian Immigrants Commission, 1885-87
5. Dr. Comins's report on the proposed resumption of Emigration to Reunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe, 1892
6. Dr. Comins's report on Emigration from the East Indies to Surinam, 1893
7. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on Emigration to Reunion, 1894
8. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on the condition of Indian immigrants in Mauritius 1895
9. Report of the Commissioners appointed to enquire into the question of Indian immigration, 1896
10. Lord Sanderson's Commission's Report on Emigration from India to the Crown Colonies and Protectorates 1910
11. Report of the Indian Enquiry Commission South Africa 1914.

12. Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal's report on the condition of Indian Emigrants in the four British Colonies, Trinidad, British Guiana or Demerara, Jamaica and Fiji, and in the Dutch Colony of Surinam, 1914-15

13. Marjoribanks and Marakkayar's report on Indian labour emigrating to Ceylon and Malaya, 1917

14. South Africa Asiatic Enquiry Commission report, 1921

15. Report by Right Hon. V. S. Shastri regarding his Dominion tour, 1923

16. India and the Imperial Conference of 1923 compiled by Director of Public Information, Government of India.

17. Reports on the scheme for Indian emigration to British Guiana.

Present Position.—Indian emigration questions have recently taken on a wider aspect. The status of Indians in the Empire generally is one in which the Indian public now take keen interest. It is no longer possible to deal with the treatment of Indian labour apart from other classes of Indian emigrants and travellers. In several colonies and dominions considerable Indian communities have sprung up which although composed largely of the descendants of indentured labourers, are themselves free and lawfully domiciled citizens of the countries in which they are settled, but have not yet been placed on a footing of legal, social, political and economic equality with the rest of the population. The issues round which public interest at present centres are three—

- (a) Control of emigration
- (b) Rights of Indians to admission to other parts of the Empire
- (c) Rights and disabilities of Indians domiciled overseas

These questions may be considered separately.

Control of Emigration.—So far as unskilled labour is concerned, the Government of India have assumed absolute powers of control. The terms of section 10 of the Emigration Act of 1922 are as follows—

10. (1) Emigration, for the purpose of unskilled work, shall not be lawful except to such countries and on such terms and conditions as the Governor General in Council, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, may specify in this behalf.

(2) No notification shall be made under sub-section (1) unless it has been laid in draft before both Chambers of the Indian Legislature and has been approved by a resolution of each Chamber, either without modification or addition, or with modifications and additions to which both Chambers agree, but, upon such approval being given, the notification may be issued in the form in which it has been so approved.

Under this law emigration has been legalised to Ceylon on the following conditions—

- (1) The emigrant shall—
- (a) have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of Ceylon, or
- (b) have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(2) The emigrant shall not, before leaving British India, have entered into a contract of service for a period exceeding one month.

(3) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that any contract of service for a period exceeding one month entered into by an emigrant shall be void.

(4) No part of the cost of his recruitment, subsistence during transport, or transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be defrayed from a common fund to be raised in such manner and managed by such agency as may appear suitable to the Colonial Government.

(5) The Government of Ceylon shall at any time when so desired by the Governor General in Council admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(6) Within one year of his arrival in Ceylon any emigrant who has been assisted to emigrate at the cost of the common fund referred to in clause (4) shall, on satisfying the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is unsuitable to his capacity, or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer, or for any other sufficient reason, be repatriated free of cost to the place of recruitment, and the costs of such repatriation shall be defrayed by the Government of Ceylon or the Ceylon Planters Association.

(7) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, the Government of Ceylon shall appoint a person to perform the duties of the Agent as set forth in clause (6).

(8) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that no payment made in India by a recruiter to an emigrant to enable him to pay off debts before emigrating shall be recoverable.

(9) The Government of Ceylon shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of persons emigrating to Ceylon in accordance with this Notification.

Similar conditions have been imposed in the case of Malaya. Emigration has also been permitted to Mauritius for a period of 1 year only with effect from May 1st 1923, and limited to a number not exceeding 1,500 labourers. The terms are more onerous than in the case of the nearer Colonies and the most important additional clauses are the following—

Any emigrant shall, if he desires to return to India at any time after two years from the date of his introduction to the Colony, be repatriated at the cost of the Government of Mauritius to the place of his recruitment.

Any emigrant shall at any time within the period of two years from the date of his introduction to the Colony, be entitled to be repatriated at the cost of the Government of Mauritius to the place of his recruitment if he satisfies the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that

his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is unsuitable to his capacity or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer or for any other sufficient reason.

If any emigrant at any time within the period of two years from the date of his introduction to the Colony satisfies the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that he is unable to obtain a wage which will provide the cost of living for a man with a wife and three children and also a reasonable margin for savings, sickness and old age, he shall be entitled to be repatriated at the cost of the Government of Mauritius to the place of his recruitment. The position now is that the Government of India has vested the Chambers of the Legislature with complete power to decide to what countries emigration shall be permitted and to regulate its conditions, and has bound itself to be guided in its policy by Indian public opinion. Skilled labour is of course more able to take care of itself and, subject to certain necessary safeguards, is at liberty to emigrate to any country in the world.

Admission of Indians to Other Parts of the Empire.—On the motion of the Government of India this question was discussed at the Imperial War Conferences, 1917 and 1918, and the policy accepted by the self governing dominions and the British Government was embodied in the following resolutions—

(1) It is an inherent function of the Governments of the several communities of the British Commonwealth including India, that each should enjoy complete control of the composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any of the other communities.

(2) British citizens domiciled in any British country, including India, should be admitted into any other British country for visits, for the purpose of pleasure or commerce, including temporary residence for the purpose of education, such right shall not extend to a visit or temporary residence for labour purposes or to permanent settlement.

(3) Indians already permanently domiciled in the other British countries should be allowed to bring in their wives and minor children on condition (a) That not more than one wife and her children shall be admitted for each such Indian, and (b) that each individual so admitted shall be certified by the Government of India as being the lawful wife or child of such Indian.

The first paragraph of this resolution has regularised the various restrictions on immigration which the self governing dominions have, from time to time adopted and which, without expressly differentiating against Indians are in practice used in order to check Indian immigration, the objections to which are stated to be not racial or political but economic. Australia prohibits the entry of any person who fails to pass a dictation test of not less than 50 words in any prescribed language. New Zealand prohibits the entry of any person who has not received in advance a permit from the Dominion Government which is refused to any person regarded as unsuitable to settle in the country. South Africa pro-

hibits the entry of any person deemed by the Minister of the Interior on economic grounds or on account of his standard or habits of life to be unsuited to the requirements of the Union. Canada prohibits the landing of any person who has come to the Dominion otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native and unless he possesses in his own right 250 dollars Newfoundland and the Irish Free State impose no restrictions. All the self-governing Dominions have adopted special exemptions in favour of students, tourists and merchants visiting the countries for the temporary purposes of commerce, pleasure, or education. India on its side has assumed power to regulate the admission of immigrants from any other part of the Empire or foreign countries, by means of passports. A bill has also been passed by the Indian Legislature empowering the Government of India to make rules for the purpose of securing that persons not being of Indian origin, domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges as regards entry into and residence in British India, than are accorded by the law and administration of such possession to persons of Indian domicile. With regard to the Crown colonies and protectorates, the attitude of the Indian Government is that there is no justification for placing any restrictions on the immigration of British Indians, which are not placed on other classes of British subjects, and this principle has in practice been observed by the Colonial Office except in the case of Kenya colony where, as stated hereafter, the British Government has reserved to itself the right to impose restrictions on the immigration of classes of people whose entry into the colony may have an adverse effect on the economic evolution of the indigenous population. A statistical inquiry is now on foot to determine whether the introduction of such restrictions is necessary.

Rights and Disabilities of Indians Lawfully Domiciled Overseas—The policy of the Empire is summed up in the resolution of the Imperial Conference, 1921, which was recorded in the following terms—

"This Conference reaffirms that each Community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control over the composition of its own population by restricting immigration from any of the other communities, but recognises that there is incongruity between the position of India, as an equal member of the Empire, and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some parts of the Empire, and this Conference, therefore, is of opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised."

"The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union. The representatives of India while appreciating the acceptance of this resolution, nevertheless feel bound to record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa and hope that by negotiations between India and South Africa a way can be found as soon as may be to reach a more satisfactory position."

The Right Hon'ble Srinivasa Bhaskari visited the Dominions of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand in the course of 1922 as the emissary of the Government of India to assist them in giving effect to this resolution. The main object of his mission was to appeal to the Governments and public of Canada and Australia fully to enfranchise qualified domiciled Indians. In Australia, Indians resident in Queensland and Western Australia have neither the provincial nor the federal franchise. In Canada, Indians resident in British Columbia are excluded from the dominion as well as the provincial franchise. While successful in securing a more sympathetic atmosphere towards Indians, he failed to bring about any modification in the existing electoral laws.

The question of giving effect to this resolution of 1921 was raised by the Indian representatives at the Imperial Conference, 1923. Their proposal was as follows—

"Let the Dominion Governments who have an Indian population, let His Majesty's Government in the areas under their direct control, such as Kenya, Uganda, Fiji and other places where there are Indians resident, appoint Committees to confer with a Committee which the Government of India will send from India and explore the avenues of how best and how soonest the principle of equality implicit in the 1921 Resolution may be implemented."

This proposal was favourably received by the Dominion Premiers, excluding General Smuts, and by the Secretary of State for the Colonies who cordially agreed that there should be full consultation and discussions between him and a Committee appointed by the Government of India upon all questions affecting British Indians domiciled in British Colonies and protectorates and mandated territories. In pursuance of the proposal, the Government of India appointed a Committee in March 1924 composed of Mr J. Hope Simpson, M.P., *Chairman*, H. H. the Aga Khan, Sir B. Robertson, Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar, M.L.A., and Mr K. C. Roy to make representations to the Colonial Office on certain outstanding questions affecting Indians in Kenya and Fiji.

Summary of Present Position—Outside Australia, New Zealand and Canada the position stands as follows—

(1) **South Africa**—The main grievances of Indians, which led to a passive resistance movement headed by Mr Gandhi, were settled by the compromise embodied in the Indians Relief Act, 1914, and by the guarantee known as the Smuts-Gandhi agreement. The substance of this agreement is embodied in the following extracts from letters—

(i) Mr Gorges, Secretary for the Interior, to Mr Gandhi, June 30th, 1914. "With regard to the administration of existing laws, the Minister desires me to say that it always has been, and will continue to be, the desire of the Government to see that they are administered in a just manner and with due regard to vested rights."

(ii) Mr Gandhi to Mr Gorges, July 7th, 1914. "By vested rights I understand the right of an Indian and his successors to live and trade in the township in which he was living and trading, no matter how often he shifts his residence or business from place to place in the same township."

"This has been officially interpreted to mean that the vested rights of those Indians who were then living and trading in townships, whether in contravention of the law or not, should be respected."

In 1920 an Asiatic Enquiry Commission was appointed to investigate the grievances of Indians regarding their rights to trade and hold land in the Union. Their main recommendations were as follows—

(1) Law 3 of 1885 (Transvaal), the Gold Law of the Transvaal (Act No. 35 of 1908) and Act No. 37 of 1919 should not be repealed.

(2) There should be no compulsory repatriation of Asiatics but

(3) Voluntary repatriation should be encouraged

(4) There should be no compulsory segregation of Asiatics but

(5) A system of voluntary separation should be introduced under which municipalities should have the right, subject to certain conditions—

(a) to lay out residential areas for Asiatics,
(b) to set aside certain streets or portions of the town for Asiatic traders to which existing license holders should gradually be attracted

(6) These areas should be selected and allocated by a board of independent persons in consultation with the Municipal Council and Asiatic community

(7) In Natal the right of Asiatics to acquire and own land for farming or agricultural purposes, outside townships, should be confined to the coast belt, say, 20 to 30 miles inland

(8) A uniform "License Law" applicable to all the Provinces of the Union should, if possible, be enacted. If that is impracticable, the law relating to the issue of Trade Licenses in the Cape Province, the Transvaal and Natal should be assimilated in a comprehensive consolidating Act of Parliament providing *inter alia*—

(a) That the granting of all licenses to trade (not being liquor licenses) shall be entrusted to municipal bodies within the area of their jurisdiction, outside those areas, to divisional Councils in the Cape Province, and in the other Provinces to special Licensing Officers appointed by the Administrator

(b) The grounds upon which an application for the grant of a new license may be refused

(c) That the reasons for the refusal to grant any license shall be recorded, together with any evidence tendered for or against the application

(d) That, in the case of the refusal of a license on the ground that the applicant is not a fit and proper person to hold the same or to carry on the proposed business, there shall be a final appeal to a Special Appeal Board, appointed by the Administrator

(e) That municipal bodies shall have the right to prohibit the license holder, or any other person, from residing in any shop, store or other place of business

(9) There should be no relaxation in the enforcement of the Immigration Laws and more active steps should be taken to deal with prohibited immigrants who have evaded the provisions of those laws

(10) The administration of the Asiatic policy of the Government should be placed in the

hands of one official, under whose charge would come all administrative functions, together with the official records relating to Asiatics. This officer should also be entrusted with the duty of securing full statistics regarding Asiatics in the Union and of the arrivals in and departures from South Africa. Details of all applications for trade licenses, and transactions in connection with the purchase of land and property made by Asiatics throughout the Union, should be sent to him in order to ensure the enforcement of the provisions of Section 8 of Act 22 of 1913

On the other hand he should keep in close touch with the various sections of the Indian community, see that the laws are applied in a just manner, give a ready ear to any complaints or grievances and generally safe-guard their interests

No action has been taken by the Union Government to give effect to these proposals except with regard to voluntary repatriation. 7,430 Indians have returned to India from South Africa during the last 4 years of whom probably a large proportion have abandoned their South African domicile and accepted free repatriation under the official scheme. It is understood that the remaining recommendations still form the subject of negotiation with the Government of India.

Present Position—Indians enjoy both the political and municipal franchise only in the Cape Province and the municipal franchise only in Natal. In the remaining two provinces they are not enfranchised. They are subjected to differential treatment in the matter of trading licenses, specially in the Transvaal. Their immigration into the Union is barred and severe restrictions exist on inter provincial migration. In the Transvaal they are not allowed to acquire immovable property outside locations and on the Witwatersrand they are subject to the restrictions of the Gold Law

The anti-Asiatic party have made several efforts especially in Natal, further to curtail the rights of Indians. Some of these are merely irritating social disabilities, such as railway regulations debarring Indians from travelling in any other carriages except those reserved for them, and similar rules restricting their use of tramways at Durban, and excluding them from race courses and betting club rooms. Examples of recent anti-Asiatic legislation of major importance are

(a) The Natal Rural Dealers Licensing Ordinance, transferring the power of granting trading licenses from the Licensing Officer to an elected Licensing Board, on which Indians may not sit

(b) The Durban Land Alienation Ordinance. This Ordinance, which enables Municipalities in selling land to assign it for particular communities, and to that extent to secure segregation, has been allowed on condition that Asiatics are given reasonable opportunity for acquiring adequate residential sites

Anti-Asiatic feeling in South Africa does not appear to be diminishing and a bill for the segregation of Asiatics known as the *Class Areas Bill* was introduced in the Union Assembly in March 1924, which though not specifically directed against Indians, contained provisions which could be used for the compulsory segregation of all Asiatics in certain

areas. Indian opinion was deeply agitated over the prospect of this legislation which it was apprehended might in the existing state of public opinion in South Africa result in the economic ruin of a large number of Indian traders in the Union. In response to the vigorous protests made by the Government of India the Union Government gave an assurance that it was their desire and intention to apply the measure if it became law in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of resident Indians. The Government of India whilst welcoming the assurance were unable to rest satisfied with this position and made every effort to persuade the Union Government to abandon the project. For this moment they have succeeded, as in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African Parliament the bill has lapsed.

In November 1923 the Natal Township law, (Hulett's Ordinance) which seeks to eliminate Indians completely from the Township franchise was introduced in the Provincial Council but has not been assented to by the Governor General. The Natal Boroughs Ordinance however which deprives all fresh additions to the Indian population of the municipal franchise has been passed into law.

(2) **Kenya Colony**—The grievances of Indians domiciled in this Colony are fully set forth in the published despatch of the Government of India, dated October 21st, 1920. The controversy centred round the following points—

(a) **FRANCHISE**—Indians have not the elective franchise. The Government of India proposed that there should be a common electoral roll and a common franchise on a reasonable property basis plus an educational test, without racial discrimination, for all British subjects.

(b) **SEGREGATION**—Professor Simpson who was sent to East Africa to report on Sanitary matters, recommended segregation on sanitary grounds. The Government of India objected, firstly, that it was impracticable secondly, that it was commercially inconvenient and thirdly, that Indians are in practice unfairly treated in the allocation of sites.

(c) **THE HIGHLANDS**—Lord Elgin decided in 1908 that as a matter of administrative convenience grants of land in the upland area should not be made to Indians. The whole area has now been given out, and the Government of India claim that there is no land left to which Lord Elgin's decision applies. This decision has now, however, been extended so as to prohibit the transfer of land in the uplands to non-Europeans.

(d) **IMMIGRATION**—Suggestions have been put forward for restricting Asiatic immigration into Kenya. The Government of India claim that there is no case for restricting Indian immigration and that such restrictions would be in principle indefensible.

THE SETTLEMENT—The decisions of the British Government were contained in a White Paper presented to Parliament in July 1923. It was held that the guiding principle should be that "the interests of the African native must be paramount," and in light of this it was decided—

(a) **FRANCHISE**—A communal franchise was adopted with 11 seats for elected Europeans, 5 elected Indians, one nominated Arab, one missionary representing the Africans, and a nominated official majority One Indian is also appointed on the Governor's Executive Council.

(b) **SEGREGATION**—The policy of segregation as between Europeans and Asiatics is abandoned.

(c) **THE HIGHLANDS**—The existing practice is maintained both as regards initial grants of land and transfers. A similar reservation in the low lands is offered to Indians.

(d) **IMMIGRATION**—Racial discrimination in immigration regulations is rejected. But in the economic interests of the Africans, further control over immigration is necessary. Some arrangement is required for securing a strictly impartial examination of applications for entry into Kenya. The Governors of Kenya and Uganda have been instructed to submit joint proposals for legislation.

The Government of India reviewed these decisions in a resolution published on August 18th, 1923, and recorded their deep regret that His Majesty's Government did not feel justified in giving greater effect to the recommendations made by them "and reserved liberty to reopen the case on a suitable opportunity. They stated their intention of making representations regarding the action to be taken to implement these decisions, particularly in the matter of the immigration regulations.

Following upon the Kenya award statutory action was taken by the local administration on the franchise question. Adult suffrage on communal lines was conferred upon Indians. As regards immigration, the Government of India took the opportunity to urge the postponement of the bill giving effect to the decision of His Majesty's Government until such time as the Committee proposed by their representatives at the Imperial conference in 1923 had an opportunity of examining the question of the restrictions therein embodied. Accordingly the introduction of the bill was postponed at the instance of the Colonial Secretary. The Government of Kenya was also asked by His Majesty's Government for an explanatory statement regarding the method proposed for the administration of immigration measures. The Government of India received an assurance from the Colonial Secretary that ample opportunities would be afforded for the expression of their views, and that earnest attention would be given to any representation which their Committee desired to make. As has already been stated such a Committee was appointed in March 1924. The following statement made by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the House of Commons on 7th August 1924 shows the result of the representation made by the Colonies Committee—

"(1) **IMMIGRATION**—My position is that if danger ever arises of such an influx of immigrants, of whatever class, race, nationality or character, as may likely be prejudicial to the economic interest of the natives, I hold myself entirely free to take any action which may be necessary. Conflicting statistics which have

been laid before me have not enabled me to reach a definite conclusion as regards the extent of net Indian immigration. Accordingly steps will be taken to create a statistical department to obtain accurate information with regard to persons of all races arriving in or departing from Kenya. Meanwhile the Kenya Immigration Ordinance will not be enacted.

(2) **FRANCHISE**—I have given careful consideration to representations in favour of a common poll, but I am not prepared to reconsider the conclusion already arrived at that in the special circumstances of Kenya, with four diverse communities, each of which will ultimately require electoral representation, the communal system is the best way to secure the fair representation of each and all of these communities.

(3) **HIGHLANDS**—I consider that the Secretary of State for the Colonies has no alternative but to continue pledges, expressed or implied which had been given in the past, and I can hold out no hope of the policy in regard to agricultural land in the Highlands being reconsidered.

(4) **LOWLANDS**—It was proposed to reserve an area in the lowlands for agricultural immigrants from India. The Committee made it plain that it is averse from any reservation of land for any immigrant race, subject to the suggestion that before applications for land in lowland areas are invited an opportunity should be taken of sending an officer experienced in Indian settlement and agricultural methods to report on the areas. At present any consideration of the matter is in suspense pending receipt from the colony of reports from the native and agricultural points of view on the areas in question.

(3) **Fiji and British Guiana**—In certain respects Indians in these colonies are under disabilities. In Fiji, for instance, they are practically excluded from both the political and the municipal franchise. But the Indian population in these colonies belong almost entirely to the labouring classes and their grievances are mainly economic. The wages in Fiji are said to be unduly low, and the recent poll tax of £1 on every adult is regarded as a heavy burden. Wages in both Fiji and British Guiana are to a large extent dependent on the sugar market, which is at present buoyant. It will be possible to form a more accurate opinion of the position in Fiji when the report of the deputation sent to that colony by the Government of India in 1922 is published. The reports of the British Guiana deputation were published on the 21st of January 1924. Towards the end of the month a deputation from the Colony of British Guiana, consisting of Sir Joseph Nunan, Kt., and the Honourable Mr. J. C. Luckhoo, K.C., arrived in India to re-affirm the scheme of colonisation which these gentlemen had submitted to a committee of the Imperial Legislative Council in February 1920 and which that committee had generally approved. They brought proper credentials from the Government of the Colony and were authorised to place this scheme before the Government of India and the Indian Legislature for consideration. The Government of India agreed to give the deputation facilities to meet the Standing Committee on Emigration of the two Houses

of the Indian Legislature, and this Committee met the deputation, which had, in the meantime, been joined by Messrs. M. Panday and C. A. McDunn who respectively represented the Hindu and Muhammadan sections of the resident Indian community, on the 18th and 19th of March. The Committee fully discussed the scheme with the deputation but decided to defer making any recommendations to the Government of India until their next meeting, which took place on the 26th May 1924. On this occasion the Committee had also the advantage of examining Mr. Tewary, who was one of the members of the Committee appointed by the Government of India which visited British Guiana in 1922. After full consideration the Standing Emigration Committee reported that while they would be inclined to view with favour the colonization scheme put forward by the deputation they would, before making any definite recommendation, like the Government of India to depute an officer to British Guiana to report on—

- (a) the progress made in providing suitable land for prospective settlers, the steps taken to provide such settlers with materials and skilled assistance to put up residential accommodation and with loans for agricultural development, and the measures instituted to improve the sanitary conditions of the colony, especially in respect of drainage and water supply,
- (b) the steps, if any, taken by the Government of British Guiana to provide facilities for the repatriation of the Indians already settled in the Colony, and
- (c) such other matters affecting the political or economic status of the resident Indian community as the Government of India may direct.

The Government of India have this recommendation under consideration but are not likely to reach any decision regarding the deputation of an officer until the results of the enquiry into the causes of the recent riots in British Guiana are known.

(4) **Other Parts of the Empire**—In the course of the year trouble occurred in Tanganyika territory in connection with a trade licensing and other measures imposed for revenue purposes. Indians were compelled to maintain their accounts in Swahili or English, and were subjected to somewhat heavy licensing fees. Agitation, accompanied by passive resistance occurred but was not successful in its object. The Government of India took up the matter with the Colonial Office, with the result that certain amendments have been made in the Ordinances which are calculated to protect the smaller Indian trader on whom they were most likely to press hard. In Ceylon, Mauritius, and Malaya, the position of Indians has on the whole been satisfactory and matters have gone smoothly. The Government of India have now appointed their own Agents in Ceylon and Malaya. In Ceylon the Colonial Government have published the results of a careful enquiry into the rates of wages of Indians on estates in relation to the cost of living.

Indians in Great Britain.

More than sixty years have gone by since the Parsi community, in the persons of the late Dadabhai Naoroji and other members of the firm of Cama & Co., led the way in the sojourn of Indians in England for business purposes. This lead it has since maintained, though there are both Hindu and Mahomedan business men firmly established there. Nor are the professions unrepresented, for there are in London and elsewhere practising barristers, solicitors and medical men of Indian birth. Three Indians (all belonging to the Parsi Community) have sat in the House of Commons. An Indian has served since 1910 on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, and others are to be appointed. Three Indians serve on the Secretary of State's Council. In 1919 Lord Sinha led the way as the first Indian to be raised to the peerage and to be appointed a member of the Home Government. In the spring of 1923 Mr. (now Sir) Dadiba Dalai was appointed High Commissioner for India, being the first Indian to hold the office. The early years of the present century saw the gathering of a new Indian element in permanent residence—that of retired officials and business men or people of independent means who from preference or in order to have their children educated in England, leave the land of their birth and seldom if ever visit it again. Further, the stream of Indian summer visitors includes wealthy people who come regularly. There is an Indian Social Club, founded in 1912, with Sir M. M. Bhownagare as president, which arranges for dinners and other functions to celebrate Indian festivals or to honour Indian visitors of special distinction. Sectionally, however, the only Indian community to be fully organised is that of the Parsis. They have an incorporated and well-endowed Parsi Association of Europe, and have established a "Zoroastrian House" (168, Cromwell road, S.W. 5) as a communal centre.

The Indian Pavilion at the British Empire Exhibition in 1924, with its gleaming towers and minarets, and its cool, fountain-filled forecourt was one of the most conspicuous and admired architectural features of Wembley, and the great popularity of the section was shown by the crowded state of the more attractive courts day after day. The continuous education of English, Colonial and foreign visitors in regard to the products and art wares of India was of great value and did much to spread a vogue for Indian artistic workmanship. It is estimated that the value of the sales at the stalls reached a total of some £350,000. This success led to proposals for a permanent India House in London to replace the small, though choice exhibition of Indian artistic wares at the office of the High Commissioner for India.

The Students

Under normal conditions it is the student community which constitutes the greatly preponderating element and creates an Indian problem. Its numbers multiplied ten or twelve fold in the quarter of a century before the war.

After a very considerable temporary check caused by the Great War the number rapidly expanded from 1919 in spite of pressure on college accommodation. In addition to the ordinary graduate or under graduate student, there are some youths of good family, including heirs of Native States, admitted into our public schools such as Eton and Harrow. There are over 300 Indians at the Inns of Court. Since the war there has been a welcome increase in the number of technical and industrial students. Altogether including technical and medical students, there are some 1,500 young Indians in London, Edinburgh, Cambridge, Oxford, Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool and a few other centres.

The Advisers

It is well known that until a few years ago the young Indians, apart from inadequately supported unofficial effort and the chance of coming under the influence of English friends of their families, were practically left to their own devices. But in April 1909 Lord Morley, created for their benefit a Bureau of Information and appointed Dr. (now Sir) T. W. Arnold to the charge of it under the title of Educational Adviser. The Bureau was located at 21, Cromwell Road, together with the National Indian Association and the Northbrook Society, which were thus given spacious quarters for their social work among the young men. (For Burmese students distinct club accommodation is provided, partly by subventions from Indian revenues, in the commodious Albion House, St. Peter's Square, Hammesmith, W. 6.) In India provincial advisory committees exist to help and advise intending students. The work of the Bureau rapidly expanded, and in consequence Lord Crewe in 1912 re-organised the arrangements under the general charge of a Secretary for Indian students, Mr. (now Sir) C. L. Mallet who resigned at the close of 1916. He was succeeded by Dr. Arnold under the designation of Educational Adviser for Indian Students to the Secretary of State. Mr. N. C. Sen followed Dr. Arnold as Local Adviser in London. At Oxford the Oriental Delegacy, and at Cambridge, the Inter Collegiate Committee for Indian students have been instituted to deal with Oriental students generally, whilst Local Advisers for Indian students have been appointed at Manchester, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

These arrangements underwent far reaching revision in the autumn of 1920 in connection with the setting up, under the Act of the previous year of a High Commissionership for India in the United Kingdom. The "agency work" Sir William Meyer, took over from the Secretary of State included that connected with Indian students. Sir T. W. Arnold accepted an appointment long pressed upon him as Professor of Arabic at the School of Oriental Studies, and the High Commissioner appointed Mr. N. C. Sen and Dr. Thomas Quayle as Joint Secretaries for the Indian Students' Department. The administrative work hitherto divided between the India Office and 21, Cromwell Road, was consolidated at the offices of the

High Commissioner in Grosvenor Gardens, S W 1, thereby obviating a good deal of duplication of files and papers

The whole situation was investigated by a committee of inquiry which set in 1921 under the chairmanship of Lord Lytton. Arrangements had been made for the Committee to continue their investigations in India in the cold weather of 1921-22, but were abandoned in consequence of the refusal of the Legislative Assembly to vote the necessary grant. This largely accounts for the somewhat tentative form of the recommendation of the unanimous report published in October 1922. The opinion was expressed that the only permanent solution of the problem is to be found in the development of education in India. Attention was invited to the diminution of the number of Indian students proceeding abroad that would result from giving effect to recommendations made for such development by previous commissions, and by the establishment of an Indian Bar held that it should be possible to secure admission both to British universities and, subject to certain reservations to the works of manufacturing firms in Great Britain for all Indian students competent to profit by the facilities afforded, provided that some machinery exists to ensure their distribution to the places best suited to their requirements. Subsequently a committee presided over by Sir Edward Chamber recommended the creation of Indian Bars, which will have the effect of much reducing the number of Indians going to the Inns of Court.

The students have hosts of non-official friends and helpers and the report suggested that there should be a conference of representatives of all organisations interested in the

social and intellectual welfare of young Indians in Great Britain to discuss the best means for co-ordinating their efforts. Under the presidency of Lord Hawke and the chairmanship of Lord Carmichael, an Indian Gymkhana Club in 1921 acquired its own sports ground at Osterley, the total cost of purchase and equipment being estimated at £15,000. Generous gifts were made by some Ruling Princes and others, particularly the Maharaja of Patiala, but further help is required. The cricket eleven of the Club has an excellent record in matches at Lords and the Oval and with suburban clubs.

A notable development of 1920 was the opening of the 'Red Triangle' Shakespeare Hut in Bloomsbury, off Gower Street, as a union and hostel for Indian and Ceylonese students up to the number of 500. The hostel was removed to permanent premises 108-112 Gower Street close to University College in the autumn of 1923. It is Indian both in conception and control, the warden Mr P. A. Rungtadhan and committee being responsible not to the National Council of Y. M. C. A.'s in London but to the Indian National Council in Calcutta. While the organisation has a definitely moral and spiritual as well as a social purpose, it is not a proselytising agency. There is a steady average of 600 members and the hostel is exceptionally fortunate in securing the voluntary services of men and women of great distinction in many fields for the regular Sunday afternoon and other lectures.

Lately there has been considerable growth of the number of Indian girls and women studying in Great Britain, and at least one is reading at the Inns of Court. But it is chiefly for medical or teaching training that Indian ladies go to England.

INTEREST TABLE.

From 5 to 12 per cent on Rupees 100

Calculated for 1 Year, 1 Month (Calendar) 1 Week, and 1 Day (365 Days to a Year)
the Decimal Fraction of a Pie for the Day being shown for the Day

Per cent,	1 Day	1 Week.	1 Month	1 Year
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
5	0 0 2 630	0 1 6	0 6 8	5 0 0
6	0 0 3 156	0 1 10	0 8 0	6 0 0
7	0 0 3 682	0 2 1	0 9 4	7 0 0
8	0 0 4 208	0 2 5	0 10 8	8 0 0
9	0 0 4 734	0 2 9	0 12 0	9 0 0
10	0 0 5 260	0 3 0	0 13 4	10 0 0
11	0 0 5 786	0 3 4	0 14 8	11 0 0
12	0 0 6 312	0 3 8	1 0 0	12 0 0

Societies : Literary, Scientific and Social.

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta)—Founded 1820 A Class Annual subscription Rs 32 Entrance fee Rs 8 B Class Annual subscription Rs 12 *Secretary*, S Percy Lancaster, FLS F.R.H.S., 1, Allpore Road, Allpore

AGRI-HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF BURMA—*Superintendent*, R E Cooper Esq, F.R.H.S. *Secretary*, Maung Pon, Esq, Agri Horticultural Gardens, Kandawgyi, Rangoon

AGRI HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF MADRAS—Established 1835 Quarterly subscription for members in Class A Rs 7 in Class B Rs 3 *President*, H E The Rt Hon Viscount Goschen *Chairman* The Hon Mr W W Phillips, ICS *Hon Secretary*, Mr B S Nirody B.A. M.Sc. F.R.M.S. *Hon Treasurer*, Dewan Bahadur G. Narainaswamy Chetty Garu, Tympsett S.W. Madras

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF BOMBAY—Founded 1886, to promote the prosecution of Anthropological research in India, to correspond with Anthropological Societies throughout the world to hold monthly meetings for reading and discussing papers, and to publish a journal containing the transactions of the Society Annual subscription Rs 10 *Secretary* Sham-ul Ulama Dr Jivanji Jamshedji Modi B.A., Ph.D. C.I.E., Town Hall, Bombay

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL (Calcutta)—*President*, Dr N Annandale C.I.E., D.Sc., C.M.S. FLS F.A.S.B. *General Secretary* Johan Van Manen *Address* 1, Part Street Calcutta

BENARES MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY—Founded in 1918 for the encouragement and promotion of research in the various branches of Pure and Applied Mathematics and in the History of Mathematics. It conducts a journal 'The Proceedings of the Benares Mathematical Society' in which original papers on Mathematics are published and maintains a library. There are about 60 members from all parts of India. Admission fee Rs 10 Annual subscription Rs 12 (resident members) and Rs 5 (non-resident members) *Patron* Sir William Morris K.C.S.I. K.C.I.E. *Life President* Dr Ganesh Prasad, M.A. (Cantab) D.Sc., *Secretary*, Prof Gorakh Prasad, M.Sc., *Treasurer*, Prof Syamacharan De, M.A.

BHANDARKAR ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE, POONA—The Institute was inaugurated on the 6th of July 1917, the 80th birthday of Sir E. G. Bhandarkar, at the hands of H. E. Lord Willingdon, who became its first President. Its objects are to provide an up-to-date Oriental library, to train students in the methods of research and to act as an information bureau on all points connected with Oriental Studies. Sir E. G. Bhandarkar has already bequeathed to the Institute his valuable private library of Oriental books. Since the 1st of April 1918 the Government of Bombay have transferred to the Institute the unique collection of manuscripts at the Deccan College together with

a maintenance grant of Rs 3,000 a year. Government have likewise entrusted to the Institute the administration of the Budget grant of Rs 12,000 a year on account of publication. The Institute has undertaken to edit the *Mahabharata* critically at the request of the Chief of Aundh who has promised a grant of Rs 5,000 annually for that purpose. Grants have also been promised by the University of Bombay and the Governments of Burma and Mysore. The Institute has started a journal called 'Annals of the Phandarkar Institute' published twice a year. The Institute also held under its auspices the first Oriental conference on the 6th and 7th of November 1919 under the patronage of H. E. Sir George Lloyd and the presidency of G. Bhandarkar. Owing to the liberal donation of Rs 25,000 from the Tatas for the building of a Hall for the accommodation of Persian MSS and books the Persian Manuscript Department has been opened. Two big side halls costing about Rs 95,000 for the use of the libraries of the Institute, have been completed. Minimum membership dues Rs 10 a year or Rs 100 compounded for life. *Secretary* Dr V. G. Paranjpe, M.A., LL.B., D. Litt. (Paris)

BOMBAY ART SOCIETY—Founded 1888, to promote and encourage Art by exhibitions of Pictures and Applied Arts, and to assist in the establishment and maintenance of a permanent gallery for pictures and other works of Art. Annual exhibition usually held every January. Annual subscription Rs 10 Life member Rs 100 *Secretary*, S V Bhandarkar, Bandra, Bombay

BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY—Founded 1804, to investigate and encourage Oriental Arts Sciences and literature. Annual subscription Rs 60 *Secretary* Dr E. A. Parker, M.A., Ph.D., Town Hall Bombay

BOMBAY NATURAL HISTORY SOCIETY—Founded 1888, to promote the study of Natural History in all its branches. The Society has a membership of about 1,700 and a museum with a representative collection of the different vertebrates and invertebrates found in the Indian Empire and Ceylon. In 1921 the Society was entrusted with the management of the Natural History Section of the Prince of Wales Museum, and a great part of the Society's collections have been transferred to that Museum. Under the auspices of the Government of India, Burma and Ceylon, the British Museum, the Zoological Society of London the Royal Society and numerous private subscriptions, the society undertook, on a vast scale, a survey of the Mammals of India. A Journal is published quarterly which contains articles on different natural history subjects as well as descriptions of new species and local lists of different orders. In the more recent numbers, serial articles on game birds, common snakes, and common butterflies

have been appearing Annual subscription Rs 25 Entrance fee Rs 20 Patron, H. H. the Prince of Wales, Vice Patron, H. H. The Maharao of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., President, H. E. The Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G. D.S.O., Vice Presidents, The Hon. Sir Norman Macleod and H. H. the Maharao of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., *Honorary Secretary*, R. A. Spence M.L.A., F.R.S., *Acting Curator*, S. H. Prater C.M.S., Head Clerk, Mr. A. F. Fernandes, Offices 6, Apollo Street, Bombay

BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY—Since 1811 the British and Foreign Bible Society has been at work in this country. It has 6 Auxiliaries in India and an Agency in Burma. The first Auxiliary was established in Calcutta, in 1811, then followed the Bombay Auxiliary in 1813, the Madras Auxiliary in 1820, the North India Auxiliary in 1845, the Punjab Auxiliary in 1863, the Bangalore Auxiliary in 1876, while the Burma Agency was founded in 1899. The Bible or some portion of it is now to be had in nearly 100 different Indian languages and dialects and the circulation throughout India

The following table shows the growth in the British & Foreign Bible Society's work during the past few years in India and Burma.—

CIRCULATION OF THE B.F.B.S. IN INDIA

Auxiliaries	1923	1922	1921	1920	1919
Calcutta	148,026	111,579	196,991	177,963	207,684
Bombay	133,608	131,388	286,134	416,061	313,272
Madras	231,681	249,679	336,028	312,484	322,630
Bangalore	45,099	35,866	45,097	67,482	66,114
North India	191,692	160,941	290,873	458,204	297,809
Punjab	65,678	71,369	61,149	104,565	109,774
Burma	65,632	68,306	99,903	117,968	124,170
Total copies of Scriptures	881,516	8,79,128	1,316,181	1,654,767	1,441,403

These returns do not include the copies which any Auxiliary has supplied to London or to other Auxiliaries and agencies during the year.

BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION (Bombay Branch)—Founded 1886, to promote Medical and the Allied Sciences and the maintenance of the honour and interests of the Medical Profession. *Secretary*, Dr. D. R. Bardi, Bombay.

BOMBAY MEDICAL UNION—Founded 1888 to promote friendly intercourse and exchange of views and experiences between its members and to maintain the interest and status of the medical profession in Bombay. The entrance fee for Resident members Rs. 5, monthly subscription Rs. 2. Absent members Rs. 1, and non resident members yearly subscription Rs. 5. *President*, Dr. M. D. Glider, *Vice President*, Dr. R. D. Mody and Dr. F. N. Biani, *Hon. Librarian*, Dr. Popat and Dr. Naidu, *Hon. Treasurer*, Dr. P. T. Patel, and *Hon. Secretaries*, Dr. S. P. Kapadia and J. E. Spencer, 123, Esplanade Road, Bombay.

BOMBAY SANITARY ASSOCIATION—Founded to create an educated public opinion with regard to sanitary matters in general, (b) to diffuse the knowledge of sanitation and hygiene generally, and of the prevention of the spread of disease amongst all classes of

and Burma reached nearly 900,000 copies in 1923. The Bibles, Testaments, and Portions in the various vernaculars are sold at rates which the very poorest can pay, and at considerable loss to the Society. Grants of English Scriptures are made to Students who pass University examinations, as under—

The New Testament and Psalms to Matriculates

The Bible to Graduates

Last year nearly 7,000 volumes were so distributed. Portions of Scriptures in the important vernaculars have been prepared in raised type for the use of the Blind and large grants of money are annually given to the different Missions, to enable them to carry on Colportage and Bible Women's work. Besides the British and Foreign Bible Society, there is Bible work carried on in India, and Burma in a much smaller way by the Bible Translation Society—which is connected with the Baptist Missionary Society—the National Bible Society of Scotland and the American Bible Society and the Tranquebar Tamil Bible Society.

people by means of lectures, leaflets and practical demonstrations and, if possible, by holding classes and examinations, (c) to promote sanitary science by giving prizes, rewards or medals to those who may by diligent application add to our knowledge in sanitary science by original research or otherwise, (d) to arrange for homely talk or simple practical lectures for mothers and girls in the various localities and different chawls, provided the people in such localities or chawls give facilities. The Sanitary Institute Building in Princoes Street, which has lately been built by the Association at a cost of nearly Rs. 1,00,000 the foundation stone of which was laid by Lady Willingdon in March, 1914, and opened in March, 1915, is a large and handsome structure with a large Lecture Hall, Library, Museum, etc., and also provides accommodation for King George V. Anti Tuberculosis League Dispensary transferred to the Municipality in 1924 and Museum and the office of the Assistant Health Officer, C and D Wards and the Vaccination Station. *Hon. Secretary* Dr. J. E. Sandilands, M.C., M.A., M.D., Executive Health Officer, Bombay.

EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION—The European Association was established in 1883 under the title of the European and Anglo-Indian Defence Association and was re-established in 1912 under the title of the European Defence Association, but the present title was adopted in 1913. The Association has for its major object the organisation of European influence in the political life of India. The Head Offices (Central Administration) are at 17, Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta. *President*, Mr H W Carr, *Vice-Presidents*, Mr J Langford James and Mr E Villier *M.L.C.*, *General Secretary*, Colonel J D Crawford, *D.S.O.*, *M.C.*, *M.L.A.*, *Asst. General Secretary*, Miss L I Lloyd, *Additional Organising Secretary*, Major I A S Cooke, *O.B.E.*, *Hon. General Treasurer*, Mr E G Dixon, *O.B.E.*, *London Correspondent*, Mr Dudley B Myers, *Publisher*, The European Association "Quarterly Review," obtainable from any Branch or from the General Secretary.

BRANCHES OF THE EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION—**ASSAM, CINNAMARA P O**—*Honorary Secretary*, Mr P H Carpenter.

BENGAL (EASTERN), NARAYANGANJ—*Chairman*, Mr J E Ordish, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr J W R Steven.

BENGAL (WESTERN), ASANSOL—*Chairman*, Dr W P O Connor, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr C W Alliston.

BIHAR (NORTH), MOZUFFERPORE—*Chairman*, Mr P Kennedy, *O.B.E.*, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr K L Mackenzie, *M.L.C.*

BOXBAY—*Chairman*, Mr J Addyman, *J.P.*, *M.L.O.*, *Secretary*, Miss M M Brown.

BURMA, RANGOON—*Chairman and Hon. Secretary*, Mr G S Clark.

CACHAR, CHANDRANATHPUR—*Chairman and Hon. Secretary*, Mr E B Baker.

CALCUTTA—*Vice Chairman*, Mr H E Watson, *Secretary*, Col J D Crawford, *D.S.O.*, *M.C.*, *M.L.A.*

CHITTAGONG—*Chairman*, Mr W B Venters.

Hon. Secretary, Mr W H Prendergast.

DARJEELING—*Chairman*, Mr E Scarth.

Hon. Secretary, Mr W A Roussac.

DELHI At present administered by the Central Administration—All communications should be addressed to the General Secretary.

17 Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta.

DOOARS, MATELLI P O—*Chairman*, Mr W I Travers, *O.B.E.*, *M.L.C.* *Hon. Secretary*, Mr G L Shaw.

JAMSHEDPUR—*Chairman*, Mr E C J Cunningham, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr C H Dracott.

KANKANARA, NAHATI—*Chairman*, Mr J Mc Ewan, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr C D Leith.

MADRAS—*Chairman*, Mr A M MacDougall, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr J K Metherell.

MANBHUM, SIJUA P O—*Chairman*, Mr A B Hughes, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr P B Davis.

MOULMEIN—*Chairman*, Mr W A W Dawn, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr S C Jones.

PUNJAB, LAHORE—*Chairman*, Mr Owen Roberts, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr W J Campbell.

RASPUTANA, AJMER—*Chairman*, Mr F Slev Wright, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr B S E Gow.

SIND, KARACHI—*Chairman*, Mr J Humphrey, *O.B.E.*, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr G Jacob.

SYLHET, LUNGGA P O—*Chairman*, Mr A Brown, *Hon. Secretary*, Dr Rice.

UNITED PROVINCES, CANNORE—*Chairman*, Mr S H Taylor, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr J G Ryan.

INDIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE CULTIVATION OF SCIENCE (Calcutta)—*Honorary Secretary*, Prof C V Raman, *M.A.*, *D.Sc.*, *F.R.S.*, 210, Bow Bazaar Street, Calcutta.

INDIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY—Was founded in 1924 with Sir P C Ray as *President*, and Professor J N Mukherjee, *92, Upper Circular Road Calcutta*, as *Secretary*. *Bombay Members of the Council*, Dr A R Normand (Wilson College) and Dr A N Meldrum (Royal Institute of Science).

INDIAN LIBERAL CLUB—Started on 30th March 1917, to promote a systematic study of politics in general and Indian politics in particular, to organise free and well informed discussions on current political topics as well as on abstract questions to provide facility for collecting information on questions arising or necessary to be raised, in the Imperial and Provincial Legislative Councils and to form and maintain a Library Office Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road. *President*, K Natarajan, *Esq. B.A.*, *Secretaries*, Mr J R Gharpure, *B.A.*, *LL.B.*, and Mr C S Deole, *B.A.*

INDIAN MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY—Founded in 1907 for the advancement of Mathematical studies in India. It conducts a bi monthly journal in which papers on mathematical subjects are published and maintains a library with current mathematical periodicals in all languages and new books on the subject. The library is located in the Ferguson College, Poona, whence the journals and books are circulated to members by post. The Journal of the Society is published in Madras. There are about 200 members from all parts of India. *President*, Balakram, *I.C.S.*, District Judge, Bijapur. *Secretaries*, Prof P V Seshu Alver, Madras, and Prof M T Naranlingar, Bangalore, *Librarian*, Prof V B Nalk, Poona.

INDIAN SOCIETY OF ORIENTAL ART (Calcutta.)—*President*, Maharajadhiraj Bijay Chand Mahtab Bahadur of Burdwan, *Vice President*, Mr O C Ganguly, *Joint Hon. Secretaries*, C W E Cotton, and G N Tagore, *Assistant Secretary*, P Chatterjee. *Office*—Suite, 12, Samavaya Mansions, Calcutta.

INDIA SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION—The India Sunday School Union is a large interdenominational Society having as its object the further establishment and strengthening of Sunday Schools throughout the Indian Empire. The Union embraces a considerable number of auxiliaries which are generally associated with particular language areas. Both in the local Unions and in the Central organisation, help is given by missionaries and Indian workers of almost all denominations. Approximately 750,000 Sunday Schools scholars and teachers and 13,944 Sunday schools are connected with the Union, speaking 45 vernaculars.

The I S S U was founded in Allahabad in 1876, and in its most recent developments is coalescing with the work that has been hitherto

to carried on under the direct auspices of the World's Sunday School Association Yearly examinations are held for both teachers and scholars in thousands of centres, for which medals, prizes, scripture awards, and certificates are granted to successful candidates. Upwards of 276,000 candidates have been examined in six months' Bible study since 1896, successful candidates being awarded Certificates, Bibles and Testaments and Silver medals. Notes on the daily portions of the International Bible Reading Association are published by the I S S U in English and 14 vernacular editions of the S S Lesson Expositions are published in various vernaculars. In addition there is a large publication of literature dealing with all phases of chief study and moral and religious training. The monthly publication of the Union is the *India Sunday School Journal*, edited by Rev T H Sheriff, Jubbulpore. The Teachers Training Department is under the care of Mr E A Annet, Keewick Cottage, Coonoor.

General Secretary of the Union, the Rev A G Atkins, Coonoor.

President Bishop J W Robinson, D D, Delhi.

Treasurer The Rev W B Alexander, Jubbulpore.

INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS (INDIA)—The organization of the Institution commenced in 1919 and it was inaugurated by H E Lord Chelmsford early in 1921. Its object is to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in India on the same lines as are adopted by the Institutions of Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineers in the United Kingdom. The standard of qualification is the same. Membership is divided into three classes, viz., Members, Associate Members and Associates, and there is an additional class for students. *President*, C D M Hindley, *Secretary*, F Powell Williams. *Offices*—26, Chowringhee, P O Box 689, Calcutta.

MADRAS FINE ARTS SOCIETY—*Patron*—H E the Rt Hon Viscount Goschen, *President*—The Hon Mr Justice C E Odgers, *Secretary*—F G Butler, 108, High Court, Madras.

MADRAS LITERARY SOCIETY AND AUXILIARY OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY—*Secretary*, G W Bromhead, Esq, High Road, Nungambakam, Madras.

NATIONAL HORSE BREEDING AND SHOW SOCIETY OF INDIA—Formed in 1923. Objects To form a national body of public opinion on horse-breeding matters, to encourage and promote horse breeding in India, to protect and promote the interests of horse breeders and to give them every encouragement, to improve and standardise the various types of horses bred in India, to prepare an Indian stud book, and to promote uniformity in all matters connected with horse shows in India. *President*—Major-General W B James, *Secretary* Major D Vanrenen, Benale Estate, Dist. Montgomery (Punjab).

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION—Founded in 1870. Its objects are—(a) To extend in England, knowledge of India, and interest in

the people of that country. (b) To co-operate with all efforts made for advancing Education and Social Reform in India. (c) To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India. In all the proceedings of the Association the principle of non-interference in religion and avoidance of political controversy is strictly maintained. It has branches in Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Calcutta, Rangpur, Poona & Lahore. *Hon. Secretary*, Miss Beck, 21, Cromwell Road, London. Publication, *The Indian Magazine and Review*, a monthly Journal which chronicles the doings of the Association in England and in India, and takes note of movements for educational and social progress. It publishes articles about the East to interest Western readers, and articles about the West to interest readers in the East.

LIFE MEMBERS—Ten Guineas. Annual Subscriptions. Members one Guinea, Coms Members, Ten shillings, Associates Students, Seven shillings and Six pence.

PASSENGERS' AND TRAFFIC RELIEF ASSOCIATION (Established in 1915). *Head Office*—139, Medows Street, Fort, Bombay. *Objects*—(a) To inquire into and ascertain grievances with respect to passengers in India generally. (b) To petition Government, Local bodies, Railway, Steamers and other companies carrying passengers and traffic, to take all proper and necessary steps to obtain redress with regard to the said grievances. (c) To hold periodical meetings and discuss questions relating to grievances. (d) To start branch offices throughout India, and to affiliate societies and bodies having objects similar to this Association. (e) To start a fund to meet expenses for carrying out the objects of the Association. *Branches*—(1) Karachi, (2) Ahmedabad, (3) Anand, (4) Dakore, (5) Petlad, (6) Umreth, (7) Adas, (8) Harda, (9) Mahuva, (10) Sojitra, (11) Ranoli. *President*, Hon Mr Lalooobhai Samaldas, *CIE Vice Presidents*, Messrs Laxmidas Raoji Talsey and Fazul Ibrahim Rahimtoolla. *Hon Secretaries*, Mr Jivraj Goenidas Nensay and Khan Bahadur P E Ghamat.

PHILATELIC SOCIETY OF INDIA—Formed March 1897, Annual subscription Rs. 15. *Secretary* Jno Godinho, 15, Burrow's Street, Bombay.

PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta)—Annual subscription Rs. 24 (Town Members) and Rs. 12 (Mutual members). Entrance fee Rs. 20 and Rs. 10. The Society distributes a monthly journal to members, and undertakes developing, printing and enlarging work from its members only. There are excellent work rooms apparatus and reading rooms at the Society's Headquarters at 40, Chowringhee Road, Calcutta. *Hon Secretary* J A E Evans, 40 Chowringhee Road, Calcutta.

POONA SWA SADAI SOCIETY—This Institution was started in 1909 by the late Mrs. Ramabai Ranade, Mr G K Devadhar and a few other ladies and gentlemen in Poona and registered in 1917. It is now working independently though for a part of the intervening period it was conducted as a branch of the Bom-

bay Seva Sadan Its main object is to make women self-reliant and to train them for missionary work undertaking educational and medical activities for their sisters and brethren, especially the former in backward areas and working on a non-sectarian basis. The instruction is free except for the Music Classes and for Special Classes in English, etc. There are eight different departments sub-divided into 58 classes. Arrangements are made for training Nurses and Midwives and Sub Assistant Surgeons at the Sassoon Hospital, Poona, and a hostel is maintained for the former and another for those attending the Sub Assistant Surgeon's Class. The number in these two hostels was 56 in August 1922. Besides there is a full-fledged Training College named after Bai Motilal Wadia with 138 students for being trained as Mistresses for Vernacular schools. This College is probably the only college in India maintained by a non-official non-Christian missionary body teaching the full course. The results of the Certificate Examinations held last year under the authority of the local Government Training College for Women were as follows: III year 9, II year 11, and I year 21, thus working up the percentage of 60. The total number of certificates granted so far is 205. The Practising School for little girls attached to the Training College has now ten classes with 260 students ranging up to the Marathi VI Standard, English being taught in the top three standards. Primary Classes for grown up women teaching up to the Marathi V Standard are attended by 175 women. It is here that poor women are recruited for the work of teacher, nurse, midwife, or doctor. Special classes for teaching English, First Aid, Home Nursing were attended by 72 students, the Music Classes by 162 students, and the Work room Classes for teaching Sewing, Embroidery, Hosiery and Weaving by 180 students. Thus the total number of pupils is 1,031 to-day. There are two branches of the Society started at Satara and Baramati named after Lady Vitaldas Thackersey, the wife of the greatest helper of the Society so far the late Sir Vitaldas D Thackersey. Thus the total number of women and girls including 150 duplications on the rolls at these various Centres of the Society is nearly 1,095. There are four hostels, two of which are located at the head quarters and the other two in the Baste Peth and the Somwar Peth for Nurses, etc., under training at the Sassoon Hospital. The number of resident students is above 190 in these four hostels. In connection with the medical branch a Committee has been formed in England, which will enable the Society to send fully qualified Nurses there to undergo further training. There is an active Infant Welfare centre and ante-natal clinics with the average daily attendance of 50 excluding expectant mothers. The Society is extending its medical activities by undertaking, with the help of two charitable Trusts in Bombay, to work out the scheme of Maternity, Infant Welfare, Child welfare and General nursing for the women and children of the Bhatia Community. Miss C B Pooviah, B.A., is Secretary of the Scheme, under Mr G K Devadhar, the organiser of the scheme. Now Her

Excellency the Hon'ble Lady Lloyd is the Honorary Patroness along with Lady Willingdon, Lady Sydenham and Lady Chelmsford. The institution is largely dependent upon public contributions and Government assistance. The annual expenditure roughly comes up now to Rs 68,000, *President* Mrs Ramabai Ranade, *Honorary Organiser and General Secretary* Mr Gopal Krishna Devadhar, M.A., *Local Secretary and Treasurer* Mrs Yamunabai Bhat, *Lady Superintendent and Secretary for Development and Collections* Mrs Janakibai Bhat, *Hon. Secretary Nursing Committee* Rao Bahadur Dr P V Shikhhare L.M.S. & *Hon. Secretary, Infant Welfare Centre* Dr N L Ranade B.A., M.B.B.S.

PRESS-OWNERS ASSOCIATION, Bombay—Started on 30th April 1919 to promote the interests of the printing and litho presses and allied trades, to bring about harmony and co-operation among press owners and proprietors and to take such steps as may be necessary in furtherance of the above objects.

Office—Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road, Bombay 4.
President—Shet Pandurang Javjee
Secretaries—Mr C S Deole, B.A. and Manilal C Modi.

BANGKOK LITERARY SOCIETY—*President*, H E The Governor of Burma *Hon. Secretary*, Mrs C Peacock, 17, York Road.

REORFATION CLUB INSTITUTE—This Institution was started in 1912-13 by the members of the Jamali Dharmaic (religious) Library in Bombay. Its central office is in Bombay with branches at Ahmedabad, Ahmednagar, Karachi Hyderabad (Sindh) Poona Warangal etc. The aims and objects of the society are to elevate and improve the social economic and spiritual condition of the depressed and poor classes of people and with that intent to found primary schools associations and such departments and to take all constructive means to achieve the above objects. The Institute has 2 orphanages with 150 inmates, industrial works, domestic industries, sales depots, Clubs, Libraries, etc. It also issues an Anglo-Vernacular paper 'The Jamali'. The annual expenditure of the institute roughly comes to about Rs 1 lac. *Hon. Secretary* Mr Hasan Lalji Devra.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, INDIAN SECTION—This Society was founded in London in 1754. Its recently published history by Sir Henry Trueman Wood, late Secretary of the Society, gives the following account of the Indian Section. In 1857, a proposition was made by Mr Hyde Clarke, who wrote to the Council suggesting that "a special section be formed for India, another for Australia, one for English, America and so on." It was suggested that the Indian Section should meet once a fortnight for the reading of papers. Nothing came of the suggestion until ten years later when Mr Hyde Clarke returned to England, and in 1868 he renewed his proposal, but only proposing the formation of a committee which should organise conferences on Indian subjects. This time the suggestion was

taken up more warmly Mr Hyde Clarke himself was placed on the Council, and the Indian Conferences, which soon developed into the Indian Section, were started. "The Indian Section thus established became a most important department of the Society. It has had great results in India by spreading information as to the directions which the development of Indian manufactures and Indian products could most usefully take, and in England by giving similar information as to the industrial resources and progress of India itself. The Section has received great help from the Indian press and it has in return been of service to the Indian press in supplying useful information to it. It has been of great value to the Society itself as the means by which many members have been added to its list, so that in fact thanks to a very large extent to the work of the Indian Section and of the allied section for the Colonies, a large proportion of the present number of members come from the dependencies of the Empire abroad. *Secretary of the Society* G K Menzies, M.A. *Secretary of the Indian and Dominions and Colonies Sections* S Digby, C.I.E., 18, John Street, Adelphi, London, W C 2.

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY—The Servants of India Society which was founded by the late Mr Gopal Krishna Gokhale C.I.E., in 1906, has its Head quarters in Poona and its objects are to train national missionaries for the service of India and to promote by all constitutional means the true interests of the Indian people. Its government is vested in the First member or President and a Council. On the death of Mr Gokhale in February, 1915, the Right Hon'ble Mr V S Srinivasa Sastri was elected President. He has again been re-elected for a further term of three years. Besides the headquarters, it has at present four branches, viz (1) in Bombay (2) in Madras (3) in the United Provinces (4) in the Central Provinces. Moreover it has several additional centres of its activities under the branches such as, Calicut, Mangalore, Lucknow, Lahore and Cuttack in Orissa. Each Branch consists of ordinary members, members under training and permanent assistants who work under the direction of a Senior Member. The Rt Hon Sastri is an elected member of the Council of State and Mr N M Joshi, a nominated member of the Legislative Assembly representing labour interests. The branches engage both in propagandist and active work of political, educational, social, agricultural and philanthropic character in which they secure the help of a large number of voluntary workers, both men and women. A fair idea of the work of a branch can be had from a brief description of the operations of the Bombay Branch whose members have so far undertaken activities in various fields. (1) Social purity like the Holika Sammelan of Bombay, (2) Social reform organisation under the auspices of the National Social Conference, (3) raising public opinion about elementary education, (4) promotion of the cause of elevation and education of Indian women by building up institutions like the Poona Seva Sadan with 1,000 Andolane dormitories

of about 150) women and girl pupils in nearly 53 classes of its 8 departments and four hostels in the city. Mr G K Devadhar, M.A., is its Hon. Organiser and General Secretary. (5) Social Service as carried out by the Social Service League of Bombay of which Mr N M Joshi, B.A., is the Honorary General Secretary, (6) spread of co-operative movement among the agriculturists, co-operators in the city of Poona and mill-hands in Bombay. The co-operative societies as at Hadapsar and other villages around Poona, started for the benefit of these poor people, number over 85 with a total membership of over 1,800, capital of nearly three lakhs and a total turn over of five lakhs per year. Nineteen of these societies which are in Bombay for poor labouring classes are so conducted as to free their members entirely from their chronic indebtedness. Their membership consists of sweepers, scavengers, mill hands numbering above 550 and debts amounting to nearly three lakhs of rupees have been cleared off. Moreover, educational work was organised by starting a Co-operative Quarterly and by starting a Co-operative Secretaries' Training Class in Bombay for 60 Secretaries from the various districts for three years. These are now transferred to the Central Co-operative Institute, Bombay, of which Mr G K Devadhar is now the Vice-President. These three experiments on such a scale were the first of their kind in India, (7) relief work connected with wide-spread calamities by organizing the Plague Relief Committee of Poona, which succeeded in making inoculation popular in the Deccan, the Salunbra Fire Relief Committee which arranged for the Relief to sufferers for five years and by undertaking a scheme of non-official relief during the famines of 1907-08 and 1914 in the United Provinces, the famine in Gujarat and Kathiawar of 1911-12 and the famine of 1918 in the district of Ahmednagar, and that of 1918-19 in Gujarat and the Deccan, and in 1920 in Orissa near Puri, (8) Influenza relief was well organised by members of these associations in Bombay and Poona. Since the outbreak of the Malabar Rebellion in August 1921 the members of the Society organised the work of relief which was administered with the help of outside organisations like the Poona Seva Sadan, the Y.M.C.A., etc., and in collecting funds from all over the country especially Bombay. Thus from all over the country substantial help to the extent of nearly Rs 3,50,000 was collected. For the first six months about 19 camps with nearly 27,000 men, women and children of all castes and creeds were maintained very efficiently and during the later six months thousands of Hindu and Moplah families were supported in their villages in the disturbed and the destroyed parts of the district of Malabar. This work was closed in the beginning of October 1922. Mr G K Devadhar as Vice President of the Malabar Central Relief Committee directed the work on behalf of the Servants of India Society. In 1924 the Society organised the South Indian Flood Relief Central Fund in Bombay with a view to giving relief to the poor people, especially the Panchamas, who had suffered from

unprecedented goods in the districts of Malabar, Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Tanjore, and the Indian States of Mysore, Travancore and Cochin. Mr G. K. Devadhar is the Hon. General Secretary and Treasurer and Mr C. S. Deole, one of the Hon. Secretaries of the Fund. The distribution of relief was carried on with the help of Y. M. C. A. workers in the different districts, (9) organising public opinion on the question of Indians in South Africa (10) its political work is conducted strictly on constitutional lines and thus it was able to start District Congress Committees in several wards of the city of Bombay. These conducted a political quarterly, (11) it started in Bombay an organisation called the Indian Economic Society with a view to promoting the study of Indian economics on right lines and also conducted a vernacular class Mr C. S. Deole, B.A., is one of the Hon. Secretaries. (12) A new association called the Indian Liberal Club has been started to carry on political propaganda. Besides, the society was engaged in conducting a scheme of welfare work to supply cheap grain, cheap cloth and cheap credit at Jamshedpur, which may be resumed again by the Branch getting it worked on behalf of one of its organisations. One of its Members has started a Gujarati ladies organisation called the Bhagini Samaj for work among women in Gujarat and Kathiawar. Mr A. V. Thakkar has started in the District of Panch Mahals in Gujarat a mission for the Bhis for the improvement of the Bhil population and it is called the *Bhil Seva Mandal*. The Society also takes active interest in the organisation of labour movement in India. Two of its Members Messrs N. N. Joshi and R. B. Bakhale are conducting a labour monthly called the 'All India Trade Union Bulletin,' which has been recognised as the Official organ of the All India Trade Union Congress. Quite recently the United Provinces Branch organised a band of volunteers who rendered assistance, in a manner that called forth general approbation, to the pilgrims at the Kumbha Mela in Hardwar and Allahabad, the ladies of the Poona Seva Sadan assisting in this work. The Society engages in journalistic work also, having in its control the *Hitarada*, an English weekly in Nagpur, and the *Dnyan Prakash*, a Marathi daily and weekly in Poona. The Society has been conducting, with Mr Vaze as editor, an English weekly called *The Servant of India*. The U. P. Branch had in addition undertaken the publication of pamphlets on public questions and has sent out three such publications together with a large quantity of leaflets. This Branch has taken lead in organising the *Eoy Scout Movement* all over the province through the local Seva Samitis. The Madras Branch engages itself principally with co-operative organisation, publishing in three languages Co-operative Bulletin, Co-operative Industrial Societies and the Social Service League activities in the city of Madras. In 1924 it did the work of distributing relief to the refugees in the flooded areas of the Madras Presidency.

The expenses incurred by the Central Home of the Society in Poona and its four branches exceed Rs. 65,000 a year and this amount is made up by contributions from Indians, rich as well as poor. The present number of workers enlisted by the Society is about 80, most of whom are University men of considerable standing. Besides, there is a large number of devoted associates and other helpers—men as well as women—connected with the institutions started by the members of this Society.

President—The Right Hon'ble Mr V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, B.A., L.T., Royapetta, Madras, Senior Member, Madras Branch, Mr Gopal Krishna Devdhar, M.A., Vice President of the Society and the Senior Member, Bombay Branch, Mr Natesh Appaji Dravid, M.A., Senior Member, Central Provinces Branch, Mr Hridayanath Kunru, B.A., B.Sc., Senior Member, Upper India Branch, Mr A. V. Patwardhan, B.A., Senior Member, Business Branch, Poona, Messrs. Joshi, Kunru and Thakkar together with the senior members of Branches constitute the Council of the Society with the Hon'ble Mr Sastri as its President. Mr Anant Vinayak Patwardhan is the Secretary of the Council and also of the Society. Six young men, nearly all graduates, who were admitted last year on probation, were this year enrolled as members under training. In 1923 and 1924, two members were admitted as members under training and one young man, an M.A. to probation.

SEVA SADAN—The Seva Sadan Society was started on the 11th of July 1908, by the late Mr B. M. Malabari. It is the pioneer Indian ladies society for training Indian sisters ministrant and serving (through them) the poor, the sick and the distressed. The Society has a habitation in Gamdevi, Bombay. The Society maintains the following institutions for training its probationers and for doing its other work. 1. A home for the Homeless 2. An Industrial Home with various departments 3. A Dispensary for Women and Children 4. Ashrams 5. Free educational classes and a Library and Reading room 6. Home-Classes in the quarters of the poor, and normal classes for training Marathi women for the teacher's profession. All these are for the benefit of poor women. **Secretary**, Miss B. A. Engineer, M.B., M.A., L.L.B. **Hon. Gen. Secretary**, the Hon. Mr Lalubhai Samaldas, C.I.E. **Treasurers**, Sister Sushilabai and the Hon. Mr Lalubhai Samaldas. **Trustees**, the Hon. Sir G. K. Parekh and the Hon. Mr Lalubhai Samaldas, C.I.E.

CONSUMPTIVES' HOME SOCIETY—This Society was started by the late Mr B. M. Malabari and Mr Dayaram Gidulmal on the 1st of June 1909. It was registered under Act XXI of 1880. Mr Malabari secured a large grant of land in a Himalayan pine forest in Dharampur (Simla Hills) from H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala, for a Sanatorium for Consumptives. His Highness also gave a donation of Rs. one lakh. In 1911 by special permission the Sanatorium was named 'The King Edward VII Sanatorium.'

The Sanatorium has its special water works known as the Lady Hardinge Water Works, presented by the late Sir Chinubhai Madhavai, Bart., of Ahmedabad. The Sanatorium has a Guest House. The Noshirwan Adul Guest House for visitors to Daranpore. It has accommodation for 75 patients including the special Punjab Block built from a grant of the Punjab Government and reserved for European patients. Most of the blocks and cottages are built by Parsis. The Sanatorium has its own dairy and is called the Bal Pirofai R. H. Patrick Dairy. The Recreation Hall is called "The Sir Bhupinder Singh Recreation Hall" after the name of the Maharaja of Patiala. Mr. Malabari collected an Endowment Fund of about Rs. 67,000 lodged with the Treasurer. Charitable Endowments under Act VI of 1890. Nearly Rs. 2,15,000 have been spent on laying out the sites, buildings, etc., and the current annual expenditure is about Rs. 42,000. The Senior and Junior Medical Officers are in charge of the Sanatorium. The Office of this Society is situated at the Seva Sadan Buildings, Gamdevi, Bombay. Mr. S. P. Wadia is the Hon. Secretary and Sir G. K. Parekh is the Hon. Treasurer.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF NATIONAL EDUCATION—This Society stands for an Indian education for Indian boys and girls, its general policy being embodied in "Principles of Education" by Dr. Annie Besant. *Treasurer and Registrar*—D. K. Telang, Adyar, Madras.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN IN WESTERN INDIA—Office and Homes at King's Circle, Matunga.

Founded—To prevent the public and private wrongs of children and the corruption of their morals to take action for the enforcement of the laws for their protection and, if necessary, to suggest new laws or amendments of the existing laws, to provide and maintain an organisation for these objects, and to do all other lawful things incidental or conducive to the attainment of the foregoing objects. *Subscription for annual membership, Rs. 10, for Life Membership, Rs. 100.*

Honorary Secretaries—Dr. Mrs. D. A. De Monte, Mrs. D. N. Strur, Mr. R. P. Masani, M.A., and Khan Sahib H. S. Katrak.

WESTERN INDIA NATIONAL LIBERAL ASSOCIATION—*Founded in 1919*—The Association was formed, in pursuance of clause (b) of Resolution XI of the First Session of the All India Conference of the Moderate Party, with a view—to do sustained work for the political progress and the moral and material welfare of the people, to give expression from time to time to the considered opinion of the Party on matters of public interest, and to inform and educate public opinion in this presidency in support of its views, policy and methods.

The Association accepts Article I of the Constitution of the Indian National Congress Organisation as it stood in 1919 and will work for the fulfilment of the declaration made by His Majesty's Government on the

20th August 1917, in accordance with the principles embodied therein. For the promotion of its aims and objects the Association shall pursue the following principles, policy and methods—(a) Law abiding and constitutional methods of agitation or work. (b) Co-operation with Government, whenever possible and Constitutional opposition to it, whenever necessary, and (c) Fostering a spirit of broadminded liberalism based on principles of liberty, equality and fraternity, among the different classes and communities of the people.

The affairs of the Association are conducted by a Council consisting of 46 Members who are elected every three years.

President—The Hon. ble. Sir D. E. Wacha, Kt., C.S. *Vice President*—Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad, Kt. LL.D., M.L.A. *Hon. Secretaries*—Mr. Kazi Kabiruddin Bar at Law, Mr. J. R. B. Jeejeebhoy, Mr. J. R. Gharpure, B.A., LL.B. and Mr. N. M. Joshi, B.A., M.L.A. *Assistant Secretary*—Mr. V. R. Bhende.

WOMEN'S INDIAN ASSOCIATION—This Association was started in Adyar, Madras, in 1917, with aims of service to women similar to those of the Seva Sadan in Bombay. In seven years it has been able to start branches in 51 different towns and it has now 2,700 members. It establishes classes, meeting places, and regular lecture programmes for women in each of these branches. Each branch is autonomous and works according to the need of the locality. Classes are held to teach the vernaculars, English, needle-work—plain and fancy—first-aid, rattan work and music. Weekly lectures are given on subjects of general interest relating to women, such as health, education, religion, civic responsibilities, woman suffrage, etc. Though started entirely as an educational institution, the movement for the Reform Bill proved that a most necessary part of work for the advancement of women was propaganda in support of woman suffrage. Accordingly the gaining of the vote for women was added to the objects of the Association and the Association specialises on woman suffrage and the removal of sex disqualification from all franchises and candidature for local boards, municipal and legislative councils. Valuable work along these lines has been done by the Association as this is the only woman suffrage organisation in India. The Association publishes a monthly magazine, *Sri-Dharma* in English with Tamil and Telugu articles. (Rs. 4 to non members, Rs. 2 to members). It is an all India Association. Its largest branch is in Bombay, its greatest number of branches in South India, but yearly additional branches are being started in other provinces, and there are flourishing branches as far north as Gwalior and Lashkar. The prospects of rapid growth for the Association are very bright as it has been found that women everywhere welcome the self-development which the establishment of these branches brings.

Objects—

To present to women their responsibility as daughters of India.

To help them to realise that the future of India lies largely in their hands, for as wives and mothers they have the task of training and guiding and forming the character of the future rulers of India

To secure for women the vote for Municipal and Legislative Councils as it is or may be granted to men.

To secure for women the right to be elected as members on all Municipal and Legislative Councils.

To band women into groups for the purpose of self-development, education, and the definite service of others

Headquarters Adyar, Madras **President**—Dr Annie Besant **Vice President**—Mrs Jinarajadasa **Joint Hon General Secretary**—Mrs M. E Cousins B Mus, JP **Hon Treasurer**—Mrs Mahadeva Shastri.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION—This Association, which was founded by the late Sir George Williams on June 6, 1844, seeks to unite those young men who, regarding Jesus Christ as their God and Saviour according to the Holy Scriptures, desire to be His disciples, in their doctrine and in their life, and to associate their efforts for the extension of His kingdom among young men. The above is known as the "Paris Basis" and it is world wide. It was adopted at the first World's Convention in Paris in 1855 and re-affirmed at the Jubilee World's Convention in Paris in 1905. The Triennial National Convention of Y M C A s of India, Burma and Ceylon adopted this in November 1920. The aim of the Association is through its religious, social, educational, and physical work to answer the fourfold—spiritual, social, mental and physical—needs of young men, and its policy is one of intense loyalty to the Church.

There are, as a rule, two classes of members. Any young man who subscribes personally to the 'Paris Basis' may be an active or voting member and any young man of good character may be an associate.

The Young Men's Christian Association though relatively new to India, is spreading rapidly. The local Associations are autonomous and governed by local Boards of Directors. These Associations in convention elect a National Council of European and Indian laymen who are responsible for the supervision and expansion of all forms of the Association work. Both the National Council and the local Associations employ specially trained full-time Secretaries. Sixty nine out of 130 Secretaries are Indians and are supported from funds raised in India, Burma and Ceylon. The remaining Secretaries are supported by the Associations of North America, Australasia, and Great Britain, but their work is directed by committees in India, to whom their services are loaned. The first paid Secretary came to India over thirty years ago, in response to an appeal from Madras. Soon afterwards the National Council was organised, and has become increasingly an indigenous institution.

There are now approximately 250 Associations with 12,000 members. Of these about one-eighth are Europeans and seven-eighths are Indians, of whom over two-thirds are non-Christians. The following Associations own one or more buildings which serve as the local headquarters—Allahabad, 3, Bangalore, 3, Alleppey, 1, Bombay, 4, Calcutta, 6, Calicut, 2, Coimbatore, 1, Colombo, 1, Galle, 1, Hyderabad, 2, Jubbulpore, 2, Kandy, 1, Karachi, 2, Kunsamkulam, 1, Kottayam, 1, Lahore, 2, Madras, 4, Maymyo, 1, Nagpur, 2, Naini Tal, 1, Palamcottah, 1, Poona, 2, Rangoon, 4, Secunderabad, 1, Simla, 1, Ootacamund, 1, Wellington, 1, Delhi, 1, Jaipur, 1, Madras, 1, Murree, 3, Midnapore, 1, Poona, 2, Risalpur, 1. In addition to buildings owned by the Association, bungalows have been rented to serve as headquarters in the following stations—Colombo, 4, Hyderabad, 1, Jubbulpore, 1, Madras, 1, Poona, 1, Rangoon, 1, Matala, 1, Maymyo, 1, Nowshera, 1.

The Association also has rent-free quarters in stations as follows—

Bombay, 1, Delhi, 2, Karachi, 1, Lahore, 1, Madras, 1, Nowshera, 1, Secunderabad, 2, Trichinopoly, 2, Trivandrum, 1.

The departments of the National Council are Student, Rural, Literary, Architectural, Publication, Physical, British Army Revenue Publicity, Lecture Business, Religious Work. The Rural Department is organising village Y M C A s and co-operative credit societies and promoting cottage industries in over 50 centres. The Literary Department of which Dr J N Farquhar has been Senior Secretary, endeavours to promote a proper and sympathetic understanding of the non-Christian religions and show their relationship to Christianity. At the beginning of the war there were but three Army Associations and five Army Secretaries in the whole of India. In 1923 Association privileges were provided for British Troops in 37 cantonments under the direction of Secretaries. In addition to organising school boys Y M C A s the High School Department arranges for holiday camps for boys and High School teachers. The National Council employs its own architects who plan and construct its buildings, hostels, and playgrounds. The Physical Department specialises on physical education and is promoting the playground movement. The 'Association Press' is the Publication Department. A monthly magazine, the YOUNG MEN OF INDIA, is issued, and many books and pamphlets, both on Association subjects and on those of more general interest. Some of the latter, e.g., the Heritage of India Series, have been issued in conjunction with the Oxford Press.

The Headquarters of the National Council is 5, Russell Street Calcutta. The officers are—**Patron**—His Excellency Lord Reading, Viceroy and Governor General of India **Chairman of Executive**—The Hon'ble Sir Ewart Greaves, Bar-at-Law **Treasurer**—Sir Willoughby Carey, M.L.C. **General Secretaries**—K T Paul and S. K. Datta.

The Bombay Association now possesses four well-equipped buildings—Wodehouse Road, Lamington Road, Rebeck Street, and Reynolds Road. The President is the Hon'ble Sir Norman Macleod, and the General Secretary is Mr H W Bryant, MBE. In connection with each building there is a well managed hostel, one for Anglo-Indian apprentices, one for Indian students, one primarily for European business men, and one for Indians. The Elton Hockey Tournament and the Condon Tennis Tournament are held annually under the auspices of the Bombay Association.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON—This Association founded in the year 1875 was organised nationally in 1896. The aim of the Association is to promote the physical, intellectual, social and spiritual welfare of young women and girls in India, European Anglo-Indian and Indian. This is done by the establishment of local branches in different centres. At present they number 154 including city student, and vernacular branches. The Associations in big cities have a large membership including all classes of the community. The needs of girls are met by physical drill, recreation clubs and classes, lectures, commercial classes, Bible Study and devotional meetings and meeting for social intercourse. Boarding Homes, some of them holding as many as 70 girls, are established where there is a demand for them and the Association, at present, owns 29 including 8 holiday homes in the hills. These hostels accommodate working girls, teachers, nurses, students and apprentices. Residents are charged according to their salaries, though all equally receive the benefits of a comfortable home, good food and wholesome surroundings. The holiday homes provide cheap holidays in healthy surroundings and also accommodate girls who work in the hills during the hot season.

Travellers aid work is done in the large ports, especially Colombo, and a large number of transient guests and visitors are accommodated in the Homes in these centres. The Association also runs employment bureaux through the agency of which many girls find positions. The Commercial schools train girls for office and business life. These larger Associations are manned by a staff of trained secretaries, some of whom come from Great Britain, America, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. The others are found and trained in India. In many of the smaller branches where the work is of a simpler nature, it is carried on by voluntary workers who render faithful service year by year. The majority of the Indian branches are also carried on in this way. The Student Department is affiliated to the World's Student Christian Federation and has 48 branches in the various Schools and Colleges.

The Association, which is affiliated to the World's Committee of the Young Women's Christian Association, is international and inter-denominational. Full membership is confined to members of the Christian Church, but Associate membership is open to any girl or woman of good character, no matter what her religion may be. The National Headquarters are situated in Calcutta and business is conducted by the National Committee which has a representative membership in all parts of India, also in Burma and Ceylon.

The Patroness of the Association is H E Lady Reading.

Copies of the annual reports and other printed matter can be obtained from the National Office which is at 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The Official Organ of the Association is the "Woman's Outlook in India," an illustrated monthly magazine, which supplies women living in India with a good review at the price of Rs 2-0-0 post free per annum.

ASSOCIATION OF BRITISH UNIVERSITY WOMEN IN INDIA.

The Association of British University Women in India was established in 1913. Its objects are—

(1) To facilitate intercommunication and co-operation between women belonging to the universities of the United Kingdom, resident in India.

(2) To provide a means of keeping in touch with the universities of the United Kingdom, by communication with the Federation of University Women, and otherwise as may seem expedient.

(3) To act as an organisation which shall afford opportunity for the expression of united opinion and for concerted action by university women on matters especially affecting them.

Membership is open only to those women who hold degrees in any university in the United Kingdom, or hold Oxford or Cambridge Honours Certificates, but Associate Membership is open to women who have studied at a British University for two years and each

Branch may admit as Honorary Members, women who have advanced the higher education and interests of women.

The Association of British University Women has four branches. The addresses of the Honorary Secretaries are as follows—

Hon. General Secretary—Miss M W Jenson, Lady Hardinge College, Delhi.

Hon. Local Secretaries

Bombay	Mrs E F Hingley, Pratt's Buildings, Hughes Road
Calcutta	Miss Alton c/o Messrs Leslie and Hinds, Solicitors, 6, Hastings St., Calcutta
Delhi and Punjab	Miss Harrison, Queen Mary's College, Lahore
United Provinces	Mrs Daniels, Tehri Kothi, Lucknow

The Delhi Branch came into existence in 1918. The United Provinces Branch is somewhat scattered. The Calcutta and Bombay Branches are influential, and have repeatedly intervened with good effect to educate public opinion with regard to subjects affecting women. They have, for instance, made investigations on behalf of the Education Department, Government of India, the Calcutta University Commission, etc. They have been the means of introducing women on to University Senates and Municipalities. The Calcutta Branch carried through an important exhibition of Food Products with the double object of discovering —

(1) What were the exact resources of the country

(2) How firms and individuals could be induced to develop these resources, to find substitutes for imported goods and to improve existing methods of preparation of indigenous food products. The Bombay Branch has done good work in connection with the formation of the Social Purity Committee and has through a special sub-committee, organised public meeting for women on subjects affecting their interests about which legislation was being or had been recently enacted.

Valuable part of the work of the Association has been the establishment of Women's Employment Bureaux in Calcutta and Bombay. The work of mobilising women has been difficult in every country, not for want of goodwill on women's part but for want of machinery and organisation. The Association of University Women realised that, as the only body of educated Englishwomen in this country, it was called upon to provide the necessary organisation. Bureaux were formed and were the means of (1) helping many employers to get into touch with the available reserve of women labour, (2) showing trained women where their services were most needed and (3) training inexperienced workers who had nothing but their goodwill to offer. The Bureaux have been remarkably successful. The Bombay Bureau was eventually merged into the employment Bureaux established by the Women's Council.

As a means of promoting friendships between women from various parts of the United Kingdom, with widely differing tastes and interests and spheres of life in India, and as an instrument for affording opportunities for usefulness to educated women, the Association of University Women has a useful function to perform.

Federation of Indian University Women

The Federation of Indian University Women was founded in Calcutta in July 1920. The effort was an outcome of the discovery that to find a common factor and co-operate

upon that basis, was our best chance of achievement in a world which needed the work of women. The women of Great Britain made this discovery during the war when the British Universities Mission to America helped solve a large political problem, and the International Federation of University Women has embodied the memory of that discovery in a Federation which aimed at including all the Universities of the world. It is in fact a League of Nations, in which the University is the unit. Most of the countries of Europe, America, Canada, China and Japan belong to this International Body. The Federation of Indian University Women the Indian unit.

In the International Federation there are opportunities for better understanding and world friendship, for admittance to the privileges of the International Federation, plans for the foundation of scholarships, for the care of students going to foreign countries, for the exchange of Lectureships, and other privileges and in short the benefit of all attempts made to better the position of women.

The aims and object of the Indian Federation are (1) To act as an organisation which shall afford opportunity for the expression of united opinion and for concerted action by University Women. (2) To facilitate intercourse and co-operation between University Women and maintain their interest in, and connection with, academic life. (3) To encourage post-graduate study, and to stimulate the interest of women in public life. The annual subscription is Rs. 2.

Membership is open to graduates of Indian Universities only but a limited number (five in Calcutta) of women of other Universities may be admitted as Associate Members. During the one year of its existence, the Indian Federation has collected over 200 members, and has Branches in Bombay, Calcutta and Orissa. Other Branches are in process of formation.

The aim of the Federation is to have Branches eventually in all Indian University Towns—Members in Districts belonging to the nearest branch.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR 1921-22.

Bombay—President	Miss J. E. Mistry, L.K. & S.
Secretary	Mrs. G. B. Doctor, Coover Mansions, Harvey Road, Grant Road P. O.
Calcutta—President	Mrs. P. Chaudhuri.
Secretary	Miss Chatterjee, 2, Wood Street, Calcutta.
Orissa—Secretary	Miss C. Roy, Ravenshaw Girls' School, Cuttack.

PRINCIPAL CLUBS IN INDIA.

Name of Club	Established	Club-house.	Subscription			Secretary
			Ent	Annual	Monthly	
ABBOTTABAD		Abbottabad, N W F Province	Rs 16	Rs	Rs 10	Lt. A. G. Mayhew
ADYAR	1890	Madras	75	12	6	E. B. Rose
AGRA	1863	Agra Cantonment	75		12	Capt. A. Catling
AHMEDNAGAR	1889		50		11	R. W. Allison I.C.S.
ALJAL	1898	Lushai Hills, E. B. & Assam.	30		20	William H. Tibburt
AMRER	1883	Kaiser Bagh	100		15	Lt. P. W. Grant.
AKOLA	1870	Berar	100		12	Lt. G. H. Lee, M.C.
ALLAHABAD	1868	Allahabad	100	10	12	A. G. Phillips, I.P.S.
AMRAOTI			100	6	13	W. A. Forbes.
AMRITSAR	1894	Amritsar	20		7	A. C. Leale
BANGALORE, UNITED SERVICE.	1868	38, Residency Road	100	12	13	St. John L. Oliver
BAREILLY	1883	Municipal Gardens	50		9	Lt.-Col. J. S. M. Harcourt
BARISAL	1864	Backergunj, Barisal	32		13	M. B. Horn
BARRACKPUR	1850	Grand Trunk Road, S. Riverside	100		15	H. P. Scott
BASSEIN	1881	Fytche Street, Bassein, Burma.	50		11	Capt. A. J. Hemmons
BELGAUM	1884	Close to Race Course	50		13	Lt. Col. L. V. Bond
BENARES			20		16	D. Pilditch.
BENGAL	1827	33, Chowringhee Road Calcutta	500	25	16	Col. W. Westlens
BENGAL UNITED SERVICE	1845	29, Chowringhee Road	150	20	14	T. S. Sterling
BOMBAY	1862	Esplanade Road	300	12	8	W. F. Murdoch.
BOMBAY GYMKHANA			75	12	9	P. E. Grant and J. Barclay
BYCULLA	1833	Bellasis Road Bombay	350	24	10	Major B. Higham, I.M.S.
CALCUTTA	1907	241 Lower Circular Road	200	120	10	B. N. Sircar and C. F. Newman
CAWNPORE	1844	Cawnpore	100		10	H. A. O'Connor
CHAMBA	1891	Dalhousie, Punjab	15		7	W. L. Stevenson
CHITTAGONG	1878	Pioneer Hill, Chittagong	75	12	10	W. P. Shepherd-Barron
CLUB OF CENTRAL INDIA	1885	Mhow	60		20	Capt. R. G. Seales
CLUB OF WESTERN INDIA	1865	Elphinstone Road, Poona	200	12	10	Capt. H. A. Bleach
COCHIN	1876		100	18	10	O. Grob
COONADA	1856	Coonada	70		10	F. N. Ryalls
COIMBATORE	1868	Coimbatore	50	9	10	W. G. Molesworth
COONOR	1894	Coonor, Nilgiris	100	12	8	G. W. Caine
DACCA	1864	Dacca	50		18	J. A. Stein.
DARJEELING	1868	Auckland Road	100	12	7½	A. A. Price.
DELHI	1898	Ludlow Castle, Delhi	120	15	15	F. C. A. Thompson.

Name of Club	Estab- lished	Club-house	Subscription			Secretary
			Ent	An- nual	Mon- thly	
JHANSI	1887	Next to Public Gar- dens, Jhansi	75		12	J Mackinnon Gould- ing
MADRAS	1831	Mount Road, Madras	250	20	10	Capt W B F David- son
MADRAS COSMOPOLI- TAN	1878	Mount Road	150	60		Dr N Venkataswam Chetty
MALABAR	1864	Beach Road, Calicut	100	6	10	P J L Cole
MATMYO	1901		100	12	10	Lt-Col R Money
MOOLTAN	1892	Mooltan	50		14	Major H V Reynolds IA
NAINITAL	1864		1.0	12	10	Lt Col J de Gray O B E, F R G S (Grey)
OOTACAMUND	1840	Ootacamund, Nilgiri Hills	150	18	10	Lt Col J P Benn
ORIENT		Chowpaty, Bombay	150	72	6	Vasantao Anandra Dabholkar, O B E and F E Sharp
PEGU	1871	Prome Road, Rangoon	300	20	12	J Mackinnon Gould- ing
PESHAWAR	1883	Peshawar	50		10	Major E E Hills
PUNJAB	1879	Upper Mall, Lahore	150	15	12	A R Ross Redding
QUETTA	1879	Quetta	120		18	Major B Leicester
RANGOON GYMKHANA	1874	Halpin Rd Rangoon	75	6	7	Capt C L Foreman
RANGOON BOAT CLUB		Royal Lakes, Rangoon	48		3	C M W de Faeleu
RAJPUTANA	1880	Mount Abu	50		8	R E Coupland
ROYAL BOMBAY YACHT CLUB	1880	Apollo Bunder	350	18	10	Capt F J Henderson
ROYAL CALCUTTA TURF CLUB	1861	49, Theatre Road	500	25		Capt A Howard
ROYAL WESTERN INDIA GOLF CLUB		Nasik	75	15	12	F J Moss
SATURDAY		7, Wood Street, Cal- cutta	200	12	12	R E Bradley
SECUNDERABAD	1883	Secunderabad (Deccan)	100		8	Lt Col W C Clari- DSO
SHILLONG	1878	Northbrook Road, Shillong	100		20	Major A L M Moh- worth
SLAKOT		Slakot, Punjab	32		19	Captain G Rich I A
SIND	1871	Karachi	300	12	13	E G H Mewburn
TRICHINOPOLY	1869	Cantonment	90	12	12	Capt R H Wigfall
TUTICORIN	1885	Tuticorin	50	6	13	W J Francis
UNITED SERVICE CLUB	1866	Simla	200	12	15	Major L B Grant
UNITED SERVICE CLUB, LUCKNOW	1861	Chutter Manzil Palace	100		12	D H Keelan
UPPER BURWA	1889	Fort Dufferin, Man- dalay	50	12	10	Capt I B Hughes Rowlands
WESTERN INDIA TURF		Bombay and Poona	50	15		Major J E Hughes
WILLINGDON SPORTS	1917	Clerk Road, Bombay	500	120		W Botterill
WHEELER	1863	The Mall, Meerut	75		10	Capt Colin West

The Church.

In the ordinary acceptance of the term there is no established Church in India. An Ecclesiastical Establishment is maintained for providing religious ministrations, primarily, to British troops, secondarily to the European civil officials of Government and their families. Seven out of the eleven Anglican Bishops in India are officers of the Establishment, though their episcopal jurisdiction far transcends the limits of the Ecclesiastical Establishment. The stipends of the three Presidency Bishops are paid entirely by Government, and they hold an official status which is clearly defined. The Bishops of Lahore, Lucknow, Nagpur and Rangoon draw from Government the stipends of Senior Chaplains only but their episcopal rank and territorial titles are officially recognised. The Bishops of Chota Nagpur, Tinnevely-Madurai, Travancore-Cochin, Dornakal and Assam are not on the establishment. The new Bishopric of Assam was created in 1915. In its relations with Government it is subordinate to the see of Calcutta. But the maintenance of the Bishopric is met entirely from voluntary funds.

The ecclesiastical establishment includes four denominations—Anglican, Scottish, Roman and Wesleyan. Of these, the first two enjoy a distinctive position, in that the Chaplains of those denominations (and in the case of the first-named the Bishops) are individually appointed by the Secretary of State and rank as gazetted officers of Government. Throughout the Indian Empire there are 134 Anglican and 18 Church of Scotland chaplains whose appointments have been confirmed. The Roman Catholics and Wesleyans receive block-grants from Government for the provision of clergy to minister to troops and others belonging to their respective denominations. The Wesleyan Methodist Church has a staff of military chaplains in India who receive a fixed salary from Government and 25 chaplains working on a capitation basis of payment by Government Churches of all four denominations may be built, furnished and repaired wholly or partly at Government expense.

In the Anglican Communion a movement towards disestablishment has recently taken definite shape. The *Indian Church Measure* adopted by the Provincial Council of the Church of England in India and Ceylon in February 1922 aims at the severance of all legal ties between the Indian Church and the Church of England. The fate of this Measure is at present uncertain. The Government of India may not accept its proposals in their entirety. But assuming that the Government of India accepts the principle of the Measure it will have to pass the National Assembly of the Church of England and be presented by that body to Parliament. The object of the Measure is thus stated by the Bishop of Nagpur—

"It is simply to sever every legal connection which at present exists between the Church of England in India on the one hand and the Government of India, together with the Secretary of State for India, as well as the Church of England in England. If passed, it will make our Church in India as independent of the Home

Church and of the Governing body of this country as are our sister Churches in the Colonies. We shall then have power to select our own Bishops, to create new Dioceses, to frame new rules and regulations for the Church suitable for India, as well as to give it freedom to adopt its own expressions of faith, worship, rites and ceremonies. Our Synods and Councils will then be not merely Synods and Councils in name but actually ruling bodies whose resolutions would form laws of the Church which every loyal member of the Church would feel bound to obey."

In effect it will confer upon the Indian Church not only the privilege of appointing its own Bishops but the responsibility of paying their stipends. This aspect of the matter causes disquietude in certain quarters. On the other hand the fact that Government is already taking steps to reduce the personnel of the Ecclesiastical Establishment is regarded as a strong argument in favour of the Church claiming full freedom of self government now.

So far as the European and Anglo-Indian communities are concerned the activities of the Church are not confined to public worship and pastoral functions. The education of the children of those communities is very largely in the hands of the Christian denominations. There are a few institutions such as the La Martiniere Schools, on a non-denominational basis but they are exceptional. In all the large centres there exist schools of various grades as well as orphanages, for the education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians under the control of various Christian bodies. The Roman Catholic Church has honourably distinguished by much activity and financial generosity in this respect. Her schools are to be found throughout the length and breadth of the Indian Empire, and they maintain a high standard of efficiency. The Anglican Church comes next, and the American Methodists have established some excellent schools in the larger hill-stations. The Presbyterians are also well represented in this field, particularly by the admirable institution for destitute children at Kalimpong, near Darjeeling. Schools of all denominations receive liberal grants-in-aid from Government and are regularly inspected by the Education Department of the various provinces. Thanks to the free operation of the denominational principle and its frank recognition by Government, there is no "religious difficulty" in the schools of the European and Anglo-Indian communities.

Christian Missions

The tradition that St. Thomas, the Apostle was the first Christian missionary in India is by no means improbable. History, however, carries us no further back than the sixth century, when a community of Christians is known to have existed in Malabar. Since then the so-called Syrian Church in south-west India has had a continuous life. Except in its fancy this Church (or rather these Churches for the Syrian Christians are now divided into four communions) has displayed little of the missionary spirit until quite recent times.

Western Christianity was first introduced into India by the Portuguese, who established their hierarchy throughout their sphere of influence, Goa being the metropolitical see of the Indies. St. Francis Xavier, a Spaniard by race, took full advantage of the Portuguese power in Western India to carry on his Christian propaganda. His almost super-human zeal was rewarded with much success, but many of the fruits of his labour were lost with the shrinkage of the Portuguese Empire. It is really to the work of the missionaries of the Propaganda in the 17th century that the Papacy owes its large and powerful following in India to-day. The Roman Catholics in India number 1,823,000, of whom 332,000 were added during the decade 1911-1921. The total of "Syrian" Christians (exclusive of those who while using the Syrian liturgy are of the Roman obedience) is 315,000, as against 387,000 in 1901. Protestant Christians (the term throughout this article includes Anglicans) number 2,930,000, an increase of 547,000 since 1911. Thus, the total number of Christians of all denominations in India is now close on five millions. In fact it probably exceeds that figure at the present moment as these statistics are taken from the Census Report of 1911, and the rate of increase during the previous decade was nearly 100,000 per annum.

The Protestant Churches made no serious attempt to evangelise India till 1813. They have thus been at work in the Indian mission field for over 110 years and the statistical results of their efforts are given above. It is now, however, generally recognised that Christian missions are producing indirect effects in India which lend themselves only incompletely to any sort of tabulation. The main agency of this more diffusive influence of Christianity is the missionary school and college. The Protestant missions fill a considerable part in the elementary education of the country. According to the 1923 *Report of the National Christian Council for India* they are teaching 420,255 children in 12,699 elementary schools mostly situated in villages. The majority (243,895) of children in these schools are non-Christians. The same is true also of the secondary schools and in a still greater degree of the colleges. The former number 523 with 70,254 male and 25,303 female pupils. There are 40 colleges affiliated to Universities, containing 20,062 male and 1,309 female students. Of these as many as 14,148 are non-Christians. From the standpoint of missionary policy much importance is attached to these agencies for the indirect propagation of the Christian faith. The statesman and the publicist are chiefly interested in the excellent moral effect produced by these institutions amongst the educated classes, and the higher educational ideals maintained by their staffs. The principal University colleges under Protestant auspices are the Madras Christian College, the Duff College, Calcutta, the Wilson College, Bombay, the Forman College, Lahore and three women's colleges—the Women's Christian College at Madras, the Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow, and the Women's Christian Medical College at Ludhiana. The Roman Catholics have a large number of educational institutions, ranging

from small village schools to great colleges preparing students for University degrees. But the proportion of Christian students in their institutions is very much larger than in those of the Protestant bodies. The proportion of literates amongst native Roman Catholics is probably lower than amongst the Protestant converts, but compared with Hindus and Mahomedans it is conspicuously higher. The Roman Catholics have some 3,600 elementary schools in which 98,000 boys and 41,000 girls are receiving instruction. In middle and high schools they have 143,000 boys and 73,000 girls and in University colleges about 5,000 students of both sexes. These figures, however, include a large proportion of Europeans and Eurasians, who are an almost negligible quantity in Protestant mission schools and colleges.

More recent, but producing even more widespread results, is the philanthropic work of Christian missions. Before the great famine of 1878, missionaries confined themselves almost exclusively to evangelistic and educational activity. The famine threw crowds of destitute people and orphan children upon their hands. Orphanages and industrial schools became an urgent necessity. But the philanthropic spirit is never satisfied with one kind of organisation or method. A great stimulus was also given to medical missions. Hospitals and dispensaries have sprung up in all parts of the mission field, and leper asylums are almost a monopoly of Christian missionary effort. In 1911 the total number of medical missionaries working under Protestant societies in India was 118 men and 217 women, the majority of the former being also ordained ministers of religion. There are 184 industrial institutions in which 59 different arts and crafts are taught ranging from agriculture to type-writing. In this department the Salvation Army hold a prominent place, and the confidence of Government in their methods has been shown by their being officially entrusted with the difficult work of winning over certain criminal tribes to a life of industry. The indirect effect of all this philanthropic activity under missionary auspices has been most marked. It has awakened the social conscience of the non-Christian public and such movements as 'The Servants of India' and the mission to the Depressed Classes are merely the outward and visible sign of a great stirring of the philanthropic spirit far beyond the sphere of Christian missionary operations.

Reunion.—For very many years Indian Christians have shown that they felt much more acutely than Europeans the scandal and disadvantage of the divisions of Christendom. These divisions are due to a very much greater extent than is always recognised to political causes, and in the political conflicts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when they became crystallised, India had no part. Even those differences amongst Christians which have a purely religious origin and foundation seem to be of very little account to Indian converts. For them the great dividing line is that between Christ and Mohammed or Shiva and Vishnu. Standing before a background of paganism they are conscious of a real

fundamental unity in Christ Compared with the greatness of the gulf which separates Christian from non-Christian, the differences of "confession" and "order" which separate Christian from Christian seem to be wholly artificial and negligible. In consequence the reunion movement, which is noticeable all over the world, is nowhere so strong as in India. In South India it has already resulted in the formation of the South India United Church, which is a group union of five of the principal Protestant communions, and as these bodies are in communion individually with all, or almost all, the other Protestant bodies at work in India the Union may be regarded as a Pan-Protestant Union. The S I U C is at present negotiating with the Anglican Church. If as seems probable the negotiations are successful the result will amount to a union of all the Christian bodies in South India, except the Roman Catholics, on the basis of the last Lambeth encyclical. This will mean that a real National Indian Church will come into being. Although it will be tolerant of almost every expression of Evangelical opinion and will retain the freedom of development characteristic of Protestantism, by its acceptance of the Catholic creeds and the historic episcopate, it will be linked up with the Catholic tradition of the Anglican Church.

Anglican Missionary Societies

The Church Missionary Society carries on work in India in seven different missions—the United Provinces, South India, Travancore and Cochin, Bengal, Western India, Punjab and Sind and the Central Provinces and Rajputana. The names are in order of seniority. Work was begun in what are now called the United Provinces in 1813, in Bombay in 1820, in the Punjab in 1851, and in the Central Provinces in 1854. The Society has always kept Evangelical work well to the fore, but it also has important medical missions, especially on the N-W Frontier, and many schools of the Primary, Middle and High standards. The Church of England Zenana Missionary Society is an offshoot of the C M S controlling the work of 162 missionary ladies. The number of ordained European missionaries of the C M S in India and Ceylon is 166, European laymen 80 and European lay women 258. The Society claims a Christian community of 2,21,859 of whom 63,655 are adult communicants.

Society for the propagation of the Gospel Statistics of the work of this Society are not easily ascertained, as much of it is done through Diocesan institutions, which, while financed and in many cases manned by the S P G., are entirely controlled by the Diocesan authorities. The best known of the S P G. missions is that at Delhi, commonly called the Cambridge Mission to Delhi, carrying on educational work at St Stephen's College and School. At the College there are about 200 students under instruction, and at the High School 800. The College hostels accommodate 100 students. Missions to the depressed classes exist in Burma, in the Ahmednagar District and in several parts of South India, especially in the Diocese of Tinnevely Madras. The S P G. also maintains an important Criminal Tribes Settlement at Hubli, in the Bombay Carnatic. There are 116,000 Indian Christians under the aegis of the S P G., 90 ordained European missionaries and 98 European lady workers.

Other Anglican Societies—The Oxford Mission to Calcutta was started in 1880. It works in the poorest parts of Calcutta and also at Barisal. There are 11 missionaries of this Society, and 18 Sisters. In addition to its work amongst the poor, the Oxford Mission addresses itself to the educated classes in Bengal and issues a periodical called *Epiphany*, which is known all over India.

The Society of St John the Evangelist (commonly known as the Cowley Fathers) has houses at Bombay and Poona, and small stations in the Bombay Konkan. In Bombay its missionary work centres round the Church of Holy Cross, Umakhadi, where there is a school and a dispensary. The Christians are chiefly drawn from the very poorest classes of the Bombay population. At Poona the Society co-operates with the Wantage Sisters and in Bombay with the All Saints Sisters. Other Anglican sisterhoods represented in India are the *Clewer Sisters* at Calcutta and the *Sisters of the Church* (Kilburn) at Madras. The St Hilda's Deaconesses Association of Lahore carries on important educational work (chiefly amongst the domiciled community) in the Punjab. The mission of the Scottish Episcopal Church at Nagpur, the Dublin University Mission at Hasaribagh, and the Mission of the Church of England in Canada working at Kangra and Palampur (Punjab) should also be mentioned under the head of Anglican Missions.

Bengal Ecclesiastical Department

Westcott, The Right Reverend Foss, D D

Lord Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan of India

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Parker, Rev William Almar Hedley

Chaplain, Darjeeling, and offg Archdeacon of Calcutta

Crosier, Rev Philip Horsfall
Penley, Rev Horace Octavius M A
Kiddale, Rev Arthur Cyril

(On leave)
(On leave)
Services placed at the disposal of the Government of Bihar and Orissa
(On leave)

Godber Rev John

Services placed at the disposal of the Government of Bihar and Orissa, Chaplain Dinapur

Dyer Rev Basil Saunders, B A

And 12 Junior Chaplains

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

Macfarlane, Rev Andrew, D S O, B D	Presidency Senior Chaplain, Bengal, and Senior Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Calcutta
Ingram, Rev James William, M A, B D	(On leave)

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF ROME

Meuleman, The Most Reverend Dr Brice, S J	Archbishop, Calcutta
Carbery, Rev Fr Philip, S J	Chaplain, Alipore Central Jail

Bombay Ecclesiastical Department.

Palmer, Right Reverend Edwin James, M A	Lord Bishop of Bombay
Hatchell, Ven'ble C F W	Archdeacon of Bombay
Smith, A K	Registrar of the Diocese
SENIOR CHAPLAINS	
D'Alesio, Rev Edward Samuel John P A	(Ghorpur)
Tibbs, Rev Philip Gordon, B A	Kirkee
Arnould, Rev Henry Lloyd M H	St Mary's, Poona.
Hill, Rev Edward Eustace	St Paul's Church, Poona

And 16 Junior Chaplains

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

Nelson, Rev A M	(On leave)
Jamieson, Rev R G	Presidency Senior Chaplain and Chaplain St Andrew's Church, Bombay
Mitchell, Rev J D, M A	2nd Chaplain, St Andrew's Church, Bombay
Lee, Rev B E, M A, B D	Serving in the Military Department
Bennie, Rev J Y	(On leave)
Bell, Rev. G	St Andrew's Church, Karachi
Robertson, Rev A	Chaplain, Poona and Kirkee

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF ROME

Goodier, The Most Rev A	Presidency
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Madras Ecclesiastical Department

Waller, Right Reverend Edward Harry Mansfield, D D	Lord Bishop of Madras
Nuttall, Venerable Frank, M A	Archdeacon and Senior Joint Chaplain St George's Cathedral (on leave)
Loasby, Rev Harry Clement	Ag do
Rowlandson, Frederic, B.A, LL.B	Registrar of the Diocese and Secretary to the Lord Bishop

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Flynn, Rev Hugh Hamilton	(On leave)
Heycock, Rev Francis Wheaton, M A	(On leave)
Morton, Rev Bertram Mitford	On combined leave
Stone, Rev Henry Cecil Brough	(On leave)
Jervis, Rev E O	Holy Trinity Church, Bangalore
Bridge, Rev Henry Noel	St. Thomas' Mount with Pallavaram
Proctor, Rev Francis Owen	(On leave)
Wright, Rev G A Arthur	Mercara and Mysore
Bell, Rev Charles Edward	Coomoor
Smith, Rev George C. Augustus	Trimulgherry, Deccan
Brownrigg, Rev Ernest Graham, M A	St Mark's Church, Bangalore
Borlase, Rev. I J D, B A, LL B	Ootacamund

Lonahy, Rev Harry Clement, M A	(On combined leave)
Hacking, Rev. Henry, M.A	Wellington
Careless, Rev William Edward, M A	(On leave)
Beesley, Rev Ben Darcey	(On leave)
Bull, Rev Francis Faulkner	Calicut and Cannanore
Jones, Rev Hugh, M A	(On leave)

And 8 Junior Chaplains
CHURCH OF SCOTLAND,

Mackenzie, Rev Donald Francis, M A	St Andrew's Church, Madras
McNeill, Rev J H R	(On combined leave)
McLellan Rev Duncan Tait Hutchison	Probationary, Secunderabad
Pitcairn Hill, Rev Colin Cecil, M A	(On leave)
Wright, Rev J Johnstone	St Andrew's Church, Madras and Acting Presidency Senior Chaplain

Assam Ecclesiastical Department

Thomson, Rev T A	Shillong
Vacant	Darrang
Wylde Rev F St J Quinton	Lakhimpur
Wood, Rev W S A	Silchar
Vacant	Sibsagar

Bihar and Orissa Ecclesiastical Department

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS,

Ridsdale, Rev A C	Chaplain, Outack
Birch, Rev O W M. C	Bankipore
Dyer, Rev B S, M A	Dinapore
Perfect, Rev Henry	Bhagalpur
Roginald, Rev A J C	Monghyr and Jamalpur
Philfred Juda, Rev B A	Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga
Kennedy, Rev K W S	Ranchi

Burma Ecclesiastical Department

Fyfe The Right Reverend Rolleston Sterritt, M A	Lord Bishop of Rangoon (On leave)
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SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Cowper Johnson Rev Wilfrid Harry, M.A	Chaplain, Rangoon Cantonment, Offg Archdeacon of Rangoon and Bishop's Commissary
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And 8 Junior Chaplains

Central Provinces Ecclesiastical Department

Chatterton, Right Reverend E D D	Lord Bishop of Nagpur
Martin, Ven ble F W	Archdeacon and Chaplain, Nagpur

SENIOR CHAPLAINS,

Molony, Rev P J	Saugor
Crough, Rev E R	Mhow
Wardell, Rev A. F G	(On leave)
Cartter, Rev B B, M A	Kamptee

And 10 Junior Chaplains

North-West Frontier Ecclesiastical Department.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Henry, Rev W E C, M A	Abbottabad.
Carden, Rev H O	Peshawar

And 2 Junior Chaplains.

Punjab Ecclesiastical Department.

Durrant, Right Reverend H. B., M.A., D.D.	Lord Bishop of Punjab, Lahore.
Wheeler, The Ven'ble Canon High Trevor, M.A.	Archdeacon, Murree

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Cole, Rev. Alexander Barnet Farquharson, M.A.	(On leave)
Markby, Rev. Frederick Edward, M.A.	(On leave)
Fagan, Rev. High William Farquharson, B.A.	(On leave)
Buckwell, Rev. Frederick Charles	(On leave)
Castle, Rev. Willie Wichello, B.A.	Dalhousie
Stephenson, Rev. Canon Henry Stanley, M.A.	Bishop's Chaplain, Lahore
Selwyn, Rev. Arthur Lewis Henry, B.A.	Stalkot
Campbell, Rev. Rowland William, B.A.	Ferozepur
Maunsell, Rev. Arthur Perce Gabbett, B.D.	Lahore
Williams, Rev. James Ernest Harris, M.A.	Jullunder
Proby, Rev. Randolph Simon Bennetts, B.A.	(On leave)
Hearv, Rev. William Ernest Charles, M.A.	Abbottabad
Dixon, Rev. Thos. Harold, M.A.	Raisina
Barne, Rev. George Dunford, M.A.	On Foreign Service
England, Rev. Herbert George, M.A.	Rawalpindi
Strand Jones, Rev. John, B.A.	Multan
Hemming, Rev. Charles Henry	Simla

And 16 Junior Chaplains

United Provinces Ecclesiastical Department

Westcott, The Right Reverend George Herbert	Lord Bishop of Lucknow
Irwin, The Ven'ble B.C.B., M.A.	Archdeacon of Lucknow
James, J. W. Langford	Registrar of the Diocese of Lucknow

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Smith, Rev. H. T. P.	(On leave)
Bell, Rev. William Lachlan, M.A.	(On leave)
Padfield, Rev. George Augustus Selwyn	Roorkee
Meyler, Rev. Edward Mowbray, B.A.	Lucknow
Cotton, Rev. Ben, M.A.	Fyzabad
Harwood, Rev. Kenrick Cosens	Banikhet

And 15 Junior Chaplains with 8 Additional Clergy

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND,

McCauley, Rev. M. W., B.D.	Allahabad
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Wesleyan Chaplains

Rev. A. J. Revnell, O.B.E., Superintending Wesleyan Chaplain in India	Simla
„ J. M. Darlington	Calcutta
„ W. Horner	Lucknow
„ R. H. Spence, H.C.F.	Meerut
„ R. T. Kerr, H.C.F.	Rawalpindi
„ A. W. Buckley	Lahore
„ F. S. Briggs	Peshawar
„ W. S. Baker, H.C.F.	Quetta
„ F. E. Poole	Jhansi
„ F. A. Wenyon	Mhow
„ J. E. Davies	Jubbulpore
„ W. E. Cullwick, H.C.F.	Bombay
„ T. Harris, M.C., H.C.F.	Kirkee
„ A. Whitbread	Secunderabad
„ J. D. Percy, B.A.	Bangalore

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

With regard to numbers, the *Catholic Directory of India*, 1924, gives the following discrepant tables —

	1901	1911	1921
1 <i>British India and Indian States—</i>			
(a) Latin Rite	1,312,224	1,614,620	1,851,408
(b) Syriac Rite	315,923	364,090	440,488
2 <i>French India</i>	25,850	25,918	29,480
3 <i>Portuguese India</i>	264,950	296,148	188,741
Total, India	1,918,656	2,301,346	2,606,117
4 Ceylon	285,018	322,163	363,986
Total, India and Ceylon	2,201,674	2,623,509	2,970,103

NOTE (1) —In 1880 the total for India and Ceylon was 1,170,354. In 1880 it had risen to 1,610,265 and in 1900 to 2,201,674.

NOTE (2) —The number of Catholics under the Royal Patronage of Portugal (the *Padroado*) in 1921 were reckoned at 604,802, of whom more than half are in British India.

NOTE (3) —In 1880 there were 1,504 priests. In 1921 there were 3,156.

The Catholic community as thus existing is composed of the following elements —

- (1) The "Syrian" Christians of the Malabar Coast, traditionally said to have been converted by the Apostle St. Thomas. They were brought under allegiance to the Pope by the Portuguese in 1599, and placed first under Jesuit bishops and then under Carmelite Vicars Apostolic. They are at present ruled by four Vicars Apostolic of their own Syriac rite.
- (2) Converts of the Portuguese missionaries from 1500 and onwards, starting from Goa and working in the south of the peninsula and up the west coast, Ceylon, Bengal, etc.
- (3) European immigrants at all times, including British troops.
- (4) Modern converts from Hinduism and Animism in recent mission centres.

The Portuguese mission enterprise starting after 1500 continued for about 200 years, after which it began to decline. To meet this decline fresh missionaries were sent out by the Congregation *de propaganda fide*, till by the middle of the 19th century the whole country was divided out among them except such portions as were occupied by the Goa clergy. Hence arose a conflict of jurisdiction in many parts between the Portuguese clergy of the "padroado" or royal patronage, and the propaganda clergy. This conflict was set at rest by the Concordat of 1886. At the same time the whole country was placed under a regular hierarchy, which after subsequent adjustments now stands as follows.—

Of the Portuguese Jurisdiction —

The archbishopric of Goa (having some extension into British territory) with suffragan bishoprics at Cochin, Mylapore and Damaun (all three covering British territory).

Of the Propaganda Jurisdiction —

The archbishopric of Agra with suffragan bishoprics of Allahabad and Ajmere.

The archbishopric of Bombay, with suffragan bishoprics of Poona, Mangalore and Trichinopoly.

The archbishopric of Calcutta, with suffragan bishoprics of Dacca, Krishnagar and Patna, and the Prefecture Apostolic of Assam.

The archbishopric of Madras, with suffragan bishoprics of Hyderabad, Vizagapatam and Nagpur.

The archbishopric of Pondicherry (French) with suffragan bishoprics of Mysore, Coimbatore and Kumbakonam.

The archbishopric of Simla with suffragan bishopric of Lahore and the Prefecture Apostolic of Kashmir.

The archbishopric of Colombo (Ceylon) with suffragan bishoprics at Kandy, Galle, Jaffna and Trincomalee.

The archbishopric of Verapoly, with suffragan bishopric of Quilon.

Four Vicariates Apostolic of the Syriac rite for the Syrian Christians of Malabar.

Three Vicariates Apostolic of Burma.

During 1923 two new dioceses have been constituted. Antiochian and Chaldean.

The European clergy engaged in India almost all belong to religious orders, congregations or mission seminaries, and with a few exceptions are either French, Belgian, Dutch, Swiss, Spanish or Italian by nationality. They number about 1,000 besides which there is a body of secular clergy mostly native to the country, numbering about 2,000 and probably about 2,000 nuns. The first work of the clergy is parochial ministrations to existing Christians, including railway people and British troops. Second comes education, which is not confined to their own people, their schools being frequented by large numbers of Hindus, Mahomedans, Parsis, etc. Among the most important institutions are St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, St. Peter's College, Agra, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, St. Aloysius College, Mangalore, teaching university courses besides a large number of high schools and elementary schools. The education of girls is supplied for by numerous convent schools worked by religious congregations of nuns to say nothing of orphanages and other charitable institutions. The total number under education amounted in 1904 to 143,051 boys and 73,164 girls, later figures being unavailable. As to missionary work proper, the country is

covered with numerous mission centres, among which those in Chota Nagpur, Gujerat, Orissa, the Nizam's Dominions, the Ahmednagar district and the Telugu coast may be mentioned. (Full particulars on all points will be found in the Catholic Directory already quoted.) The mission work is limited solely by shortage of men and money, which if forthcoming would give the means to an indefinite extension. The resources of the clergy after the ordinary church collections and pay of a few military and railway chaplains are derived mainly from Europe, that is, from the collections of the Society for the Propagation of the Faith and of the Holy Childhood, helped out by private or other donations secured from home by the different local missionaries. In mission work the fathers count as enrolled only those who are baptised and persevering as Christians, and no baptism, except for infants or at point of death, is administered except after careful instruction and probation. This, while keeping down the record, has the advantage of guaranteeing solid results.

The Holy See is represented by a Delegate Apostolic of the East Indies who resides at Bangalore.

THE SCOTTISH CHURCHES

The Church of Scotland.—The Chaplaincy work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1814, when the Rev. Dr. Bryce landed in Calcutta, and organised a congregation of his Scottish fellow countrymen. The centenary of the churches in the three Presidency towns was celebrated Calcutta, 1914, Bombay, 1919, Madras, 1921. Since 1903 there have been eighteen chaplains on the staff of whom nine belong to the Bengal Presidency, five to Bombay, and four to Madras. These minister both to the Scottish troops and to the civil population of the towns where they are stationed, but when there is a Scottish regiment the chaplain is attached to the regiment, instead of being posted to the station where the regiment happens to be placed and as a rule moves with the regiment. There are three Presidency senior Chaplains in charge of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras respectively. There are churches in the chief towns of the Presidencies, and churches have also been built in all considerable military stations, e.g., Chakrata, Lucknow, Peshawar, Ranikhet, Rawalpindi, Bialkot, Umballa and Jubulpore. In addition to the regular establishment there are a number of acting Chaplains sent out by the Colonial Committee of the Church of Scotland, and these are serving in such stations as Rawalpindi, Lahore, Cawnpore, Meerut, Mhow and Quetta. The Additional Clergy Societies in India contribute towards the cost of this additional establishment. In other places such as Bialkot, Murree, Dalhousie and Darjeeling, regular services are provided by Scottish Missionaries. Simla has a minister of its own sent out from Scotland.

The Mission work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1823, when Alexander Duff, one of the greatest of modern missionaries, was

sent to Calcutta. He was the first to open schools where English was made the medium for instruction, and where religious teaching was given daily. Similar educational missions were soon afterwards started in Bombay and Madras. Educational work is still an important branch of the mission work of the Church, but the Bombay College was closed in 1891 and in 1907 the College in Calcutta was united with the College of the United Free Church of Scotland, to form the Scottish Churches College. In the Punjab Evangelistic work is being carried on from eight centres under seventeen missionaries. The baptised Christian community now numbers over 14,000. Work commenced in Darjeeling in 1870 is now carried on throughout the whole Eastern Himalayan district, and there is a Christian community there of over 2,000. In the five mission districts of Calcutta, the Eastern Himalayas, Madras, Poona, and the Punjab there were at the end of 1919 over 24,787 baptised Indian Christians. In connection with these missions the Women's Association of Foreign Missions does invaluable service in school, medical and zenana work, having in India 41 European missionaries, 103 teachers, over 60 schools, three hospitals and six dispensaries.

The Church of Scotland has also done much to provide education for European children in India. Together with the United Free Church St. Andrew's Church provides the governing body of the Bombay Scottish High Schools, which have always held a high place among such institutions, and exercise pastoral supervision over the Bombay Scottish Orphanage. In Bangalore there is the St. Andrew's High School, and both in Bangalore and in Madras the local congregation supports a school for poor children. The Ayrshire

Girls' Boarding and High School is under the care of the Kirk-Session of St. Andrew's Church, Simla. The now well-known St. Andrew's Colonial Homes at Kalimpong, Bengal, though not directly part of the work of the Church of Scotland, were initiated by and are being locally managed by mission aries of that Church. The homes exist for the benefit of the domiciled European Community, and are doing magnificent work. There are now twenty cottages, and about 600 children in residence. Further information may be found in "Reports of the Schemes of the Church of Scotland, Blackwood & Sons," "The Church of Scotland Year Book," and "The Handbook of the Church of Scotland in India and Ceylon," a new edition of which is being prepared.

The United Free Church of Scotland—This branch of the Scottish Church has only three purely European congregations in India, two in Calcutta, Wellesley Square, and Howrah, and one in Bombay, Waudby Road. In Calcutta the Howrah Church is in the district of the mills, and every effort is made to minister to the Scottish Engineers and other workers in the mills. As noted above members of these congregations co-operate with the Established Church of Scotland in providing education for European children.

The Church carries on Mission work in seven different areas. They are Bengal (Calcutta, Kama and Chinsura), the Santal Parganae, with five stations Western India (Bombay, Poona and Alibag), Hyderabad State (Jalna,

Bethel and Parbhan), Madras (Madras City, Chingleput, Sripurambudur and Coimbatore), the Central Provinces (Nagpur, Bhandara, Wardha, and Amroli), Rajputana, where the extensive work initiated by the United Presbyterian Church in 1880 is now carried on from eleven centres.

The work falls into three main divisions, evangelistic, medical, and educational. The Christian community has been organised in all the chief centres into congregations which form part of the Indian Presbyterian Church, and this Church is seeking to take an increasing share in the work of evangelism. There are nineteen Mission Hospitals, among which are four excellently equipped and staffed Women's Hospitals, in Madras, Nagpur, Ajmer, and Jaipur. From the days of Duff in Calcutta and Wilson in Bombay the Mission has given a prominent place to education. It has many schools in all parts of its field and it has also made a large contribution to the work of higher education through four Christian Colleges. The Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, is under the joint management of the Church of Scotland and the United Free Church. The Madras Christian College, which owes so much to the work of Dr. William Miller, is now under the direction of a Board representing several Missionary Societies. Wilson College, Bombay, with which the names of Wilson and Dr. MacKichan are specially associated and Hishop College, Nagpur, are under the direct management of the United Free Church.

BAPTIST SOCIETIES

THE BAPTIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN—Formed in 1792, largely through the efforts of Dr. Wm. Carey, operates mainly in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Punjab and Ceylon. The Baptist Zenana Mission has recently been united with this Society. The staff of the united Mission in India numbers 219 missionaries and about 877 Indian workers connected with the Society are 224 Indian Churches, 290 Primary Day Schools, 22 Middle and High Schools, and 3 Theological Training Colleges. The church membership at the close of 1922 stood at 17,979 and the Christian Community at 50,706. In the methods of the Society, a prominent place is given to Bazaar and Village preaching. Increase in membership during the past ten years about 60 per cent. and in the community 50 per cent. for the same period. Amongst the non-caste people great progress has been made in recent years, and many of the Churches formed from amongst these people are self supporting.

Special work amongst students is carried on in Calcutta, Dacca, Cuttack and Delhi, where hostels have been erected for the prosecution of this form of work.

EDUCATIONAL WORK—Ranges from Primary School to Colleges. Serampore College, the only College in India able to bestow a theological degree granted under Royal Charter by His Danish Majesty in 1827, and confirmed by the British Government in the Treaty of purchase of the Settlement of Serampore in

1845, and placed in 1856 by the College Council at the disposal of the Baptist Missionary Society to become a part of its Missionary Educational operations, Arts and Theological. It was affiliated in 1857 to the newly-formed Calcutta University, reorganised in 1910 on the lines of its original foundation with the appointment of a qualified Theological Staff on an inter-denominational basis for the granting of Theological Degrees to qualified students of all Churches.

As the only College in India granting a Theological Degree a large number of students are now resident in the splendid College Buildings. In Arts, the College prepares for the Calcutta Arts Examinations. Principal Rev G. Howells, M.A., D.D., B.Litt., Ph.D.

A Vernacular Theological Institute likewise attaches to Serampore. There is an institute also at Cuttack, for the training of Indian preachers and Bible schools in several centres.

There are 9 or 10 purely English Baptist Churches connected with the Society, but English services are carried on in many of the stations. Medical work connected with the Society reported 6 Hospitals, 8 Dispensaries, and about 64,800 out-patients for the year 1922. Two large Printing Presses for both English and Vernacular work are conducted at Calcutta and Cuttack. The Secretaries of the Mission are the Rev. John Reid and W. Craig Radie, Esq., 48, Ripon Street, Calcutta.

The Headquarters of the Mission are at 19, Fumival Street, Holborn, London. The total expenditure for 1923 of the Society amounted to £244,810

THE CANADIAN BAPTIST MISSION—Was commenced in 1878, and is located in the Telugu Country to the north of Madras, in the Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatnam and Ganjam Districts. There are 22 stations and 337 out stations with a staff of 96 missionaries including 8 qualified physicians, and 1,023 Indian workers, with Gospel preaching in 1,400 villages. Organised Churches number 80, communicants 16,000 and adherents 20,409 for the past year. Nine Churches are entirely self-supporting. In the Educational department are 420 village day schools, with 14,000 children, 14 boarding schools, 1 High school, a Normal Training school, a Theological Seminary providing in all for 1,000 pupils, and an industrial school. There are 6 Hospitals and two leprosy asylums. The Mission publishes a Telugu newspaper. Village Evangelisation is the central feature of the Mission, and stress is laid upon the work amongst women and children. During the last decade membership has increased by 52 per cent, the Christian community by 50 per cent, and scholars by 500 per cent. The Indian Secretary is the Rev Gordon P. Basse, Tekkali, Ganjam District.

THE AMERICAN BAPTIST TELUGU MISSION—Was commenced in the year 1836, and covers large parts of Nellore, Guntur, Kistna, and Kurnool Districts, parts of the Deccan and an important work in Madras and the surrounding vicinity. Its main work is evangelism, but there are also Educational and Medical Institutions of importance. Industrial Settlement work for the Erukalas is carried on at Kavali and vicinity. Industrial departments are maintained also in connection with the Mission High School at Nellore, and the Mission High School at Kurnool. Organized Telugu Churches number 184, with 75,841 baptized communicants. There are 95 missionaries, and 1,886 Indian workers. The mission maintains in co-operation with the Canadian Baptist Mission a Union Theological Seminary at Ramapatnam for the training of Indian preachers. A Bible Training School for the training of Telugu women is located in Nellore. A total of 27,794 receive instruction in 879 primary schools, 13 secondary schools and 4 High schools. In Medical work 7 Hospitals and 7 Dispensaries report 2,881 in patients, 55,077 out patients, and 122,482 treatments during the year. Secretary Rev S. W. Stenger, Nandyal.

AMERICAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION SOCIETY, organised in 1814, has Missions in Burma begun 1814, Assam 1836, Bengal and Orissa 1836, South India 1840. It owes its rise to the celebrated Adoniram Judson. Until 1910 the Society was known as the American Baptist Missionary Union. There are 33 main stations in Burma, 12 in Assam, 10 in Bengal and Orissa, 25 in South India, besides hundreds of out stations. All forms of missionary enterprise come within the scope of the Society.

The missionary staff numbers 450 in all, with an Indian workers' staff of 5,713. Communicants number 176,620. Organized churches number 1,600 of which 880 are self-supporting. Educational work is conducted on

a large scale, the total number of schools of all grades being 2,147 with over 69,121 pupils. The Christian College has 125 students in college classes. There are twenty High Schools with 4,428 pupils.

Medical work embraces 15 Hospitals and 32 Dispensaries, in which 75,739 out patients and 4,582 in patients were treated last year.

Indian Christians contribute annually more than Rs. 5,47,861 for religious and benevolent work within the Mission.

The great work of the Mission continues to be evangelistic and the training of the native preachers and Bible-women and extends to many races and languages, the most important of which, in Burma, has been the practical transformation of the Karens, whose language has been reduced to writing by the Mission. The work in Assam embraces 9 different languages, and large efforts are made amongst the employers on the tea plantations. There are 12 Theological Seminaries and training schools with 765 pupils. The Mission Press at Rangoon is the largest and finest in Burma.

Assam Secretary, Rev R. B. Longwell (Cauhati, Assam).

Burma Secretary, Rev Walter E. Watt, 15 Mission Road, Rangoon, Burma.

Bengal and Orissa Secretary, Rev Harold I. Frost, Balasore Orissa.
South India (or Telugu) Secretary, Rev W. I. Ferguson D. D. Madras.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST MISSION—With 2 missionaries, established at Serajungga P. Bengal.

Missionary in charge, Rev T. C. Kelly, Mission House, Serajungga.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION—Embracing the societies representing the Baptist Churches of the States of the Australian Commonwealth. The field of operations is in East Bengal. The staff numbers 39 Australian workers. There are 1,988 communicants and a Christian community of 4,166.

Secretary, Field Council, Rev H. J. Sutton, M. A., Mymensingh.

THE STRICT BAPTIST MISSION—Has 1 European Missionaries, and 120 Indian Workers in Madras, and Salem District. Communicants number 230, organized Churches 5, elementary schools 12, with 1,600 pupils.

Secretary, Rev E. A. Booth, Kilpauk, Madras, W.

AMERICAN BAPTIST, BENGAL-ORISSA MISSION commenced in 1836. Area of operation Midnapore district of Lower Bengal, Balasore district of Orissa and Jambhampur Mission staff 32 Indian workers 321. Two English Churches and 21 Vernacular Churches, Christian Community 5,000. Two dispensaries. Education: a) One Theological and one Boys' High School and one Girls High School and 129 Elementary Schools, pupils 3,383. One Industrial School for carpentering, iron work and motor mechanics. The Vernacular Press of this mission printed the first literature in the Santali language.

Secretary, Rev Harold I. Frost, Balasore, Orissa.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIETIES

THE IRISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH MISSION — Operates in Gujarat and Kathiawar with a staff of 89 Missionaries of whom 4 are qualified doctors and an Indian staff of 357 including school teachers. There are 11 Organised Churches, a communicant roll of 1,671, and a Christian community of 6,987. In Medical work there are 3 Hospitals, 5 Dispensaries with 937 in patients and 13,109 new cases and a total attendance of 44,521. The Mission conducts 2 High schools, 1 Anglo Vernacular school, and 121 Vernacular schools affording tuition for 5,641 pupils, 4 Orphanages, a Divinity College at Ahmedabad, a Teachers Training College for men, a Teachers Training College for women, both at Ahmedabad, and a Mission Press at Surat. The Mission has made a speciality of farm colonies, of which there are about a score in connection with it, most of them thriving.

The Jungle Tribes Mission with 7 missionaries is a branch of the activities of the above, working in the Panch Mahals and Rewa Kantli districts, with farm colonies attached.

Secretary Rev Hamilton Martin, B A Mission House, Ahmedabad

THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA — The Sialkot Mission of the above Church was opened at Sialkot, Punjab, in 1855. It is now carrying on work in ten districts of the province and one in the N W F Provinces. Its missionaries number 147 and its Indian workers 838. Its educational work comprises one Theological Seminary one College, six High Schools, one Industrial School, eight Middle Schools, and 198 Primary Schools. The total enrolment in all schools was 14,749 in 1922. The Mission is also carrying on Medical work through five hospitals and eight dispensaries. The total Christian Community in connection with the Mission is 73,245 and Church Membership 40,822.

Secretary W H Merriam, M.A., Gujranwala Punjab

THE AMERICAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION operates in 3 main sections known as the Punjab North India and Western India Missions. The American Staff (including women) numbers 275 and the Indian Staff 1,211. There are 34 main stations and about 240 out-stations. Organized churches number 82, 25 of which are self-supporting. There are 11,985 communicants and a total baptized community of 82,000. Educational Work as follows: 2 Men's Colleges and an interest in the Isabella Thoburn and the Kinraid Colleges for women students 1,279, Theological School 1 students 20, Training Schools for village workers 2, students about 180, High Schools 14, students about 1,500, Industrial Schools 6, Agricultural Demonstration Farms 4, Teachers' Training Departments 6, The Miraj Medical School and an interest in the Ludhiana Medical School for women, students 100, Elementary Schools 230, Schools of all grades 271, pupils 10,646, Medical work Hospitals 6, Dispensaries 17, Sunday Schools 371 with 13,481 pupils. Contributions for Church and Evangelistic work on the part of the Indian Church, Rs 26,949.

The Hospital at Miraj, under the care of Dr J W J Wanless and Dr C E Vall, is well known throughout the whole of S W India. It is the Forman Christian College at Lahore under the principalship of Rev R D Lucas, D.D., is equally well known and valued in the Punjab. The Ewing Christian College (Dr C A R Janvier, Principal) has grown rapidly in numbers and influence.

Secretary of Council of A P Missions in India is Rev H D Griswold, D.D., Ph.D., Lahore.

Secretary, Punjab Mission Rev C H Rice M.A., Lahore.

Secretary, North India Mission Rev W T Mitchell, M.A., Mainpuri, U P.

Secretary, Western India Mission Rev M W Strahler, M.A., Kolhapur.

THE NEW ZEALAND PRESBYTERIAN MISSION — Commenced as recently as 1910 at Jagadhri, Punjab.

Secretary Miss M Salmond, M.A., Jagadhri.

THE CANADIAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION — Commenced in 1877, has 15 main stations in the Indore, Gwalior, Rutlam, Dhar, Alirajpur, Barwanji, Jabat, Jaora, Sitamau, Banswara and other Native States. The Mission staff numbers 85, Indian workers 260. Organized Churches 14, Communicants, (Sept. 30, 1921) 1,248, Baptised non communicants, 2,827, unbaptised and catechumens, 399. Total Christian Community 4,474.

Educational work comprises Elementary and Middle Schools. High schools for boys and girls, College, Theological Seminary and Classes. Industrial teaching and work are done in the three Girls Boarding Schools and in Rasulpura Boys School. Technical and practical training is given in Printing, Weaving and Carpentry. The Medical work is large. There are two General Hospitals, where both men and women are treated and five Women's Hospitals.

Secretary — The Rev J S Mackay, B.A., Neemuch, Central India.

THE WELSH CALVINISTIC METHODIST MISSION (OR WELSH PRESBYTERIAN MISSION) established in 1840 with a staff of 32 Missionaries, 600 Native workers occupies stations in Assam in the Khasia and Jaintia Hills, the Lushai Hills and at Sylhet and Cachar. The Khasia language has been reduced to writing, the Bible translated, and many books published in that language by the Mission. A large amount of literature has been produced in the Lushai language also. In 1921, Communicants numbered 21,457, the total Christian community 60,088, organized Churches 571 self-supporting Churches 35. Elementary schools number 555, scholars 17,878. Boarding schools 3, scholars 820, in addition to 1 Industrial school, 4 Training institutions and 1 Theological Seminary. Two Hospitals and 3 Dispensaries provided for 10,000 patients in 1920.

Secretary Rev T W Rees, Silchar.

THE ABOOT MISSION of the Reformed Church in America (Dutch), organised in 1853 occupies the North and South Arcot and Chittoor districts.

in 8 India with a staff of 48 Missionaries, and 708 Indian ministers and workers Churches number 17, Communicants 4,462, total Christian community 22,680, Boarding schools 11, scholars 842, Theological school 1, students 27, Voorhus College, Vellore students 140 High schools 4, Scholars 2,070 Training schools 2, students 145, Industrial schools 2, pupils 85, Elementary schools 224, scholars 6,665 Three Hospitals, 7 Dispensaries with staff of 68 pro-

vided for 2,905 in patients and 50,000 out patients for the past year

The Union Mission Medical College for South India and a Union Mission Training School are located at Vellore the head quarter of the Mission The Union Mission Tuberculosis Sanitarium for 8 India is near Madanapalle, Arogivaram P O, Chittoor Dist

Secretary Rev H J Scudder, M.A & B D, Madanapalle, 8 India

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIETIES.

THE AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS—Has two large Missions, the American Marathi Mission, and the Madura Mission The Marathi Mission covers a considerable part of the Bombay Presidency, with centres at Bombay Ahmednagar, Satara and Sholapur It was commenced in 1813 the first American Mission in India Its activities are large and varied The staff at the beginning of 1924 consisted of 50 missionaries and 639 Indian workers operating in 161 outstations exclusive of Bombay City Organised Churches number 67 with 9,116 communicants and 7,297 adherents There is a Leper work at Sholapur The Educational work embraces 13 training and secondary schools with 1,026 pupils and 161 primary schools, with 7,302 pupils three fifths of whom are non-Christians A Theological College at Ahmednagar trains for the Indian Ministry Zenana work and Industrial work are vigorously carried on, the latter embracing carpentry, lace work and carpet weaving A school for the blind is conducted on both Educational and Industrial lines 52,284 patients were treated in the Hospitals and Dispensaries of the Mission last year This Mission was the first to translate the Christian scriptures into the Marathi tongue At Sholapur a settlement for Criminal Tribes is carried on under the supervision of Government Secretary Rev Alden H Clark M.A., Ahmednagar

THE MADURA MISSION—In the South of the Madras Presidency commenced in 1834, has a staff of 62 missionaries and 952 Indian workers operates in the Madura and Ramanad districts and has a communicant roll of 9,502 and a total Christian community of 27,898 and 32 organised churches, most of which are entirely self-supporting and self-governing Schools number 411 with 16,305 pupils There is a Christian College at Madura, high and training Schools for Girls as also Hospitals for men and women, at Pasmalai are a High School, Theological Institution Trade School Teachers' Training School and Printing Press Five Elementary Boarding Schools are found in as many outstations Industrial work is increasingly taught The Secretary is the Rev John J Bannings, D D Pasmalai

THE AROOT MISSION commenced under the American Board was transferred to the Reformed Church of America in 1851

THE SCANDINAVIAN ALLIANCE MISSION OF NORTH AMERICA—Embraces two Branches, one in Bengal and the other in Khandesh The total mission staff is represented by 12 missionaries and 20 Indian workers There are 75 communicants and a Christian community of 158. Ten Elementary Schools provide for 200 pupils.

Secretaries Rev J S Ottleson, Amalner, Khandesh, and Miss H Abrahamson, Domar, Bengal

THE SWEDISH ALLIANCE MISSION—Working among the Bhils in West Khandesh has 26 missionaries and 58 Indian workers There are 8 congregations with a total membership of 929 of whom 348 are communicants There are 18 Elementary Schools and 4 School Homes The pupils in all schools are 353

Secretary Miss Emma Johansson, Dhanora via Nandurbar West Khandesh

THE FREE CHURCH MISSION OF FINLAND—The total Mission staff is represented by eight missionaries four native catechists seven teachers and four other helpers There are about 140 communicants, five churches and a Christian Community of about 219 There is one middle school and one day school, two dispensaries and industrial work is carried on

Acting Secretary Miss Krongulst, Lachung, via Gangtok, Sikkim

THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY—Commenced work in India in 1798 and occupies 10 centres in N India, 12 in S India and 7 in Travancore The Mission engages in every form of Missionary activity The European staff numbers 160 Indian workers 2,123, Organised Churches 520, Communicants 17,456 and Christian Community 116,068 There are 4 Christian Colleges, students 169 5 Theological Institutions, students 70, 4 Training Institutions, pupils 114, 22 High schools, pupils 4,849, 25 Boarding schools, scholars 1,167, 9 Industrial schools, pupils 116 and 862 Elementary schools with 86,775 scholars In Medical work Hospitals number 23, Dispensaries 14, qualified doctors 9 (European), 41 Assistants and 8,971 in-patients and 174,898 out-patients for the year

The main centres of the Mission in N India are at Calcutta, Benares and Almora The Bhowanipur Institution at Calcutta is now a Teachers Training College Evangelistic work is carried on amongst the thousands of pilgrims visiting Benares and Almora is noted for its Hospital and Leper Asylum Special efforts are made amongst the Nama Sudras and the aboriginal tribes known as the Majhwars, Cheros and Pankas The 8 India district is divided into the Kanarese, Telugu Tamil and Malayalam with 12 stations and 472 outstations At Nagercoil (Travancore) is the Scott Memorial College with 985 students, a Church and congregation said to be the largest in India, and a large Printing Press, the centre of the 8 Travancore Tract Society

N India Secretary Rev J H Brown, B.A., B.D., Calcutta

S India Secretary Rev Geo Wilkins, Bangalore City

ALL-INDIA MISSIONS.

THE CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE—Dates from the year 1893 under the name of the International Missionary Alliance, but a number of its missionaries were at work in Berar Province much earlier. Work is carried on in the Provinces of Berar, Khandesh, Gujarat, North West Frontier Province and Darjeeling District. There is a staff of 75 missionaries and 155 Indian workers. The number of mission stations is 20, with additional outstations. There is a Christian community of 2,189 adults. There are 4 Boarding Schools, 2 for boys and 2 for girls, 2 Training Schools for Indian workers, and 1 English congregation at Bhurawal.

Executive Secretary—Rev K D Garrison, Akola, Berar, C P.

THE CHURCH OF THE BRETHREN (AMERICAN)—Opened work in 1895, and operates in Broach, Surat and Thana Districts, also in Baroda and Rajpala States. Its staff number 50 foreign workers including missionaries wives, and 270 Indian workers. The Baptized (immersed) membership stands at 2,916. Education is carried on in 6 Girls' Boarding Schools, 7 Boarding Schools for Boys, and 81 Village Day Schools and 44 Village Night Schools. Females under instruction number 779, Males 2,639 under total instruction 3,418. Of this number 883 are supported in Boarding Schools and 96 in Training Schools and other institutions of learning. There are 200 teachers of which 58 are women. There are 91 Sunday Schools having 177 teachers and a total enrolment of 3,286. There were 28,422 calls at mission dispensaries in 1922. The foreign medical staff consists of three doctors and four nurses. At Umalla, Rajpala State, there is a Home for Babies with 28 inmates. Industrial work is carried on in six of the Boarding Schools and a vocational training school was opened at Anklesvar in June 1924. Evangelistic, Temperance and Publicity work receives due emphasis, the 'Gujarati Sunday School Quarterly' (1,800 copies) and the 'Prakash Patra' a Christian monthly of 800 copies are published. *Secretary*: L. A. Blickenstaff, Bulsar, Surat District.

THE POONA AND INDIAN VILLAGE MISSION—Founded in 1893 and for 28 years directed by Mr Charles F. Reeve. On his retirement in January 1921, a Field Council took charge of operations and continue work in the Poona, Satara and Sholapur districts with 21 European and 38 Indian workers. Indian Christians associated with the work number 64. The main work is evangelistic in the villages, with women's sanatoria work and schools. Medical work is conducted at Pandharpur and Lonand and a hospital is in use in Pandharpur. The Headquarters are at Nasrapur. Poona Dist. *Chairman of the Field Council*: N. L. Gooden. *Secretary*: J. W. Stothard, Nasrapur.

THE AMERICAN CHURCHES OF GOD MISSION—Has two missionaries at Bogra, Bengal.

THE INDIAN CHRISTIAN MISSION—Founded in 1897, has 81 Organized Churches, 10 Missions, 24 stations, 41 out-stations, 1,392 Communicants, 80 Primary schools and two Industrial Schools in the Ellore district, also Bangalore, S. India, stations also in Be-

rorag, Kumaon, N. India, and Nuwara Eliya, and Polgawalla, Ceylon. Total Christian Community 8,585. *Director*: Rev A. S. Paynter, Nuwara Eliya, Ceylon.

THE CHURCH OF THE NAKAREN MISSION—Has its headquarters for Western India at Buldana, Berar, where it has a boys' boarding school for training Native preachers and a girls' school for training Bible women. This mission has 3 stations in Thana District namely, Khadi, Vasind and Murbad. There is a total force of 12 missionaries at present in this part of India, also 28 native preachers and Bible Women.

District Superintendent—K. Hawley Jackson, Buldana, Berar.

The headquarters for Eastern India are at Kishorganj, Mymensingh District with an orphanage and a force of 7 missionaries, also about 11 preachers and Bible women. This totals 19 missionaries and 89 native preachers and Bible women for the Church of the Nazarene in India.

District Superintendent: F. E. Blackman, Kishorganj, Mymensingh District.

THE TANAKPUR AND LOHAGHAT BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION—Was established in 1910. It is now carried on in Tanakpur and District only, that neighbourhood having again been attached to the Naini Tal District in Kumaon. *Address*: Tanakpur, Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway, United Provinces.

THE HEMPHREAN FAITH MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION—Has seven missionaries. *Field Superintendent*: D. W. Zook, Adra, B. N. Ry.

THE TIBETAN MISSION—Has 4 Missions with headquarters at Darjeeling, and Tibet as its objective. *Secretary*: Miss J. Ferguson, Darjeeling.

THE INDIAN MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF TINEVELLY (DORNAXAL MISSION)—Opened in 1904 operates in the Warangal District of the Nizam's Dominions. It is the missionary effort of the Tamil Christians of Tinevelly. There are now 3,250 Christians in 92 villages. *Secretary*: Rev Samuel Pakianathan, Palamottah.

THE MISSION TO LEPERS—Founded in 1874, is an inter-denominational and international Society for the establishment and maintenance of Asylums for Lepers and Homes for their untainted children, working in 12 countries but largely in India, China and Japan. Its work in India is carried on through co-operation with 83 Missionary Societies. In India alone the Mission now has 42 Asylums of its own with about 5,000 inmates and is aiding or has some connection with work for lepers at 21 other places in India. Altogether in India over 7,000 lepers are being helped. In the Mission's own and aided asylums in India there are nearly 4,000 Christians.

An important feature of the work of the Mission is the segregation of the untainted or healthy children of lepers from their diseased parents. Nearly 600 children are thus segregated and saved from becoming lepers.

Most of the Mission's income is received from voluntary contributions. Some funds are raised in India, but the bulk of the money expended by the Mission in India, was received from Britain, although the Provincial Governments give regular maintenance grants.

There is an Indian Auxiliary of the Mission to Lepers, of which H. E. Lady Wilson who represents the Bombay Presidency is a Vice-President.

The General Secretary of the Mission is Mr W. H. P. Anderson, 33, Henrietta St., Covent Garden, London, W.C. The Acting Secretary for India is Mr A. Donald Miller, Purnia, Behar.

THE REGIONS BEYOND MISSIONARY UNION—An interdenominational Society commenced work at Motihari, Behar, in 1900, and now occupies 6 stations and 7 outstations in the Champaran and Saran Districts, with a staff of 15 Europeans, and 40 Indian workers. There are 21 Elementary schools, with 540 pupils, a Girls' and a Boys' Orphanage and Boarding school, communicants number 60.

THE NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF INDIA—Established 1905, it has a staff of 20 Indian Missionaries and 55 helpers and Volunteers operates in Montgomery District (the Punjab) Nukkar Thasli (U. P.), Haliughat, Mymen Singh District (Bengal), Rewah State (C. I.), Jassandah (B. & O.) North Kanara (Bombay), Karjat—Karnala Talukas (Bombay), and Tirupattur Taluk (N. Arcot). Christian community over 6,000. Eighteen Elementary schools and one High School. Two Dispensaries and one Hospital. Annual expenditure Rs. 50,000. Supported by Indian Christians of all denominations and Provinces. Organ *The National Missionary Intelligence* (a monthly Journal in English sold at Re 1 per year post free).

Hon. General Secretary Mr J. D. Ashirvadam, M.A., F.M.S., Office, Vepery, Madras.

THE SEVENTH DAY ADVENTISTS—The Seventh-day Adventists commenced their mission work in India in 1893, and now have nearly forty main stations established in the different provinces, including Burma. At the central headquarters at Salisbury Park, Poona an up-to-date publishing house has been established, continuing the work previously carried on at Lucknow, and this Institution is entirely devoted to the printing of evangelical and associated literature. A total of 52 day and boarding schools are conducted, whilst dispensaries in the majority of the stations provide for the regular treatment of the sick, the staff including four physicians, besides a number of registered nurses. European education is provided at Vincent Hill School, a beautifully situated institution at Mussoorie. Being fitted with modern sanitation, it has been made possible for a considerable part of the domestic duties of the school to be performed by the students themselves. Church schools (for day scholars) are also conducted in different local centres. The baptised membership (adult) is 2,000, with a substantial community not yet admitted to full fellowship. 131 Sabbath schools are conducted, with a membership of 2,840.

President: A. W. Cormack, Secretary and Treasurer: A. H. Williams, Post Box 15, Poona.

THE AMERICAN MENNONITE MISSION—Established 1899, works in the C. Provinces. Mission staff numbers 20, Indian workers 80, Church members 1,400, 1 Industrial Training Institution, 1 High School, 2 Vernacular Middle Schools, 1 Men's Home, 2 Homes for untainted children of lepers, 1 Bible School, 2 Orphanages, 1 Widows' Home, 1 Leper Asylum, Elementary Schools, 8, Dispensaries, 6.

Secretary Rev A. C. Brunk, Dhamtari, C. P.

THE GENERAL CONFERENCE—MENNONITE MISSION—Started in 1901 in the C. Provinces. Workers number 17, Leper, Medical, Orphan, Zenana, Evangelistic and educational work carried on. Secretary, Rev P. W. Penn, Janjgir, C. P.

THE KURKU AND CENTRAL INDIA HILL MISSION—Established 1890 in the C. P. and Berar, has a mission staff of 14, Indian workers 24, Churches 6, Communicants 171. Christian community 287, 2 Boarding schools with 109 boarders and 5 Elementary schools. Secretary Rev Carl Wyder, Ellichpur, Berar, C. P.

THE CEYLON AND INDIA GENERAL MISSION—Established 1892, occupies stations in India in the Coimbatore and Anantapur Districts and also stations in Pandura, Ceylon. Mission staff 37, Indian workers 138, Churches 11, with Communicants 624, and Christian community 2,983, Orphanages 5, Elementary schools 40, pupils 1,007.

Secretary Mr A. Scott, Kadiri, Anantapur District.

THE BOYS' CHRISTIAN HOME MISSION—Owes its existence to a period of famine, was commenced in 1899. Mission staff 13, Indian workers 60. There are elementary schools with three orphanages, two boys and one girl, and a Widows' Home, where industrial training is given. There are four main stations—At Dhond, in the Poona District and at Bahraich, Orai and Benares in United Provinces. There are also 30 out-stations. Director Rev John E. Norton, Dhond, Poona District. Secretary W. K. Norton, Benares, U. P.

Ladies' Societies

ZENANA BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION—This is an interdenominational society, with headquarters, 33, Surrey Street, London, working among women and girls in seven stations in the Bombay Presidency, 10 in United Provinces, and 3 in the Punjab. There are 83 European Missionary ladies on the staff and 83 Assistant Missionaries, 198 Indian teachers and nurses and 63 Bible women. During 1923 there were 2,867 in patients in the five hospitals supported by the Society (Nasik, Benares, Jaunpur, Lucknow and Patna), but the Victoria Hospital, Benares, was closed. There were 23,980 out-patients, 96,914 attendances at the Dispensaries. In their 42 schools were 3,064 pupils, and there is a University Department at Lahore. The evangelistic side of the work is largely done by house to house visitations and teaching the women in Zenanas, 1,271 women were regularly taught and 1,600 houses were visited. The 68 Bible women visited 538 villages, the number of houses was 761.

Hon Treasurer The Lord Moston of Dunottar

Secretaries Miss M G Liesching, Rev Dr Carter and Rev E S Carr, M A (Hon)

WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN MEDICAL COLLEGE, WHICH IS INCORPORATED THE PUNJAB MEDICAL SCHOOL FOR WOMEN—In 1884 the North India School of Medicine, for Christian Women was opened in Ludhiana in order to give a Medical Education under Christian influences to Indian Women. Doctor Edith Brown, M.A., M.D. was its Founder and Principal. The School was Interdenominational, and trained students for various Missionary Societies.

Clinical work was at first given at the Charlotte Hospital, which belonged to the Ludhiana Zensana and Medical Mission. The Memorial Hospital was opened in 1900, and has now 180 beds. In 1913 Non Christian Students were also admitted for training and the name was modified to its present title given above.

In 29 years 118 Medical Students have qualified as Doctors, over 50 as Compounders, over 120 as Nurses, and over 150 as Dais. Plans are now on hand to enlarge both Hospital and College considerably.

THE MISSIONARY SETTLEMENT FOR UNIVERSITY WOMEN was founded in Bombay in 1896 to reach the higher class of Indian ladies, its activities now include a hostel for women students, in addition to educational, social, and evangelistic work, and a Holiday House for students and other ladies at Jambhori (Bhamburda), B B & C I. E. Warden Miss Gedge, Rebsch Street, Jacob Circle, P O, Bombay.

THE RAMABAI MUKTI MISSION, the well known work of the late Pandit Ramabai shelters about 700 deserted wives, widows and orphans, educating and fitting them to earn their living. The Mission is worked on Indian lines and carried on by Indian and European workers. Evangelistic work is carried on in the surrounding villages of Kedgaon, Poona District.

Disciple Societies

The India Mission Disciples of Christ, under the United Christian Missionary Society, St. Louis, U.S.A., began work in India in 1882. It works in the Central Provinces and South United Provinces. There are 96 Missionaries including missionaries' wives and 351 Indian workers. There are 14 Organized Churches with the membership of 2,299. There is a Christian community of 4,117. There are 8 Hospitals and 13 Dispensaries in which 168,162 in patients and out-patients were treated last year. Two Orphanages and Industrial Homes show 498 inmates. A Boarding School for girls and one for boys and 3 Hostels for boys show 686 inmates. 2 Lepers Asylums have 168 inmates. A Tuberculosis Sanitarium at Pendra Road has 44 inmates. An Industrial School is conducted at Damoh in connection with which a 400 acre farm is used for practical work. In the Home for women and children at Kulpahar needle work is taught in connection with which a large business is done each year. The Mission Press at Jubbulpore printed about 3,000,000 pages of Christian literature. There is a High School, also 8 Middle Schools, 28 Primary Schools with about 8,000 pupils.

The Australian Branch has 3 Mission Stations in the Poona District. The Great Britain and Ireland Branch in Mirzapur District of U.P. and Palamau District in Orissa. These two have no organised connection with the India Mission Disciples of Christ.

Secretary and Treasurer W H Scott, Jubbalpore, C.P.

Udenominational Missions

THE CENTRAL ASIAN MISSION, with a Church Dispensary and School, is found on the N-W Frontier, conducted on the lines of the China Inland Mission, and has Kafiristan as its objective.

THE FRIENDS' FOREIGN MISSION ASSOCIATION works in five stations of the Hoshangabad Division of the Central Provinces, and in two of the adjacent Bhopal State, and has also some work going on in that of Gwalior. There are 7 Churches, 14 missionaries, 185 members in full communion, 1,076 Christian adherents, 1 boarding School for girls and 1 also for boys, 2 Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools and 12 Primary Schools, and two hospitals with dispensaries attached. In addition to a self-supporting weaving community at Itarsi and a Farm Colony at Makoriya, in Hoshangabad District. **Secretary** Mr A Taylor, Behore Cantonment, O I.

THE AMERICAN FRIENDS' MISSION with 5 Missionaries is working at Nowgong. **Secretary** Miss R. E. Baird Nowgong, C I.

THE OLD CHURCH HEBREW MISSION was established in 1858, in Calcutta, and is said to be the only Hebrew Christian Agency in India. **Secretary** The Rev Walter Plant, 11, Mission Row, Calcutta.

THE OPEN BRETHRENN—Occupy 46 stations in the U Provinces, Bengal, S. Maharastra, Godavari Delta, Kanarese, Tinnevely, Malabar Coast, Coimbatore and Nilgiri Districts. They hold an annual Conference at Bangalore.

Lutheran Societies

THE AMERICAN EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION General Council, founded in 1844 for the Godavari and Kistna Districts, has its Headquarters at Rajahmundry. Its staff consists of 24, including Missionaries' wives and Lady Doctors, with 1,692 Indian workers. The membership is 34,901. There are Boys' and Girls' Central Schools, Mission Press, a well-equipped hospital and Book Depot at Rajahmundry, and a High School at Peddapur and another at Bhimavaram, since November 1918 the two American Lutheran Missions at Guntur and Rajahmundry have been amalgamated, existing as two Conferences now. **Chairman** The Rev E. Neundorfer, Bhimavaram.

The General Synod Section of the above has its headquarters in Guntur, founded in 1842. Its Christian Community numbers 68,301 with 21,969 communicants, 32 missionaries inclusive of wives and 1,132 Indian workers. The following institutions are connected with the Mission: a second grade College, High School for Girls, Hospital for women and children, School for the Blind, Normal Training School, and Industrial School. **Secretary** The Rev J. R. Strook, Guntur.

THE EVANGELICAL NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF STOCKHOLM, SWEDEN, founded in 1856, occupies the districts of Saugor, Betul, and Chhindwara in the Central Provinces. There are about 2,000 Church members constituted into an indigenous Church with 12 local congregations. The European and Indian Staff numbers 34 and 165 respectively. On Theological Seminary for training catechists and pastors, and one training school for training Bible Women. 38 Day Schools with 1,442 children. 35 Sunday Schools with 1,121 children. 10 Dispensaries with 39,068 patients during 1922. 3 Workshops, one of them with an aided Carpentry School. One Female Industrial School, one Widows Home, 6 Orphanages and one Boarding School for Christian Children. At the end of 1922 there were 165 boys and 218 girls in these institutions.

Secretary Rev G A Bjork B D, Chhindwara, C P

THE KANARESE EVANGELICAL MISSION with Headquarters at Mangalore, South Kanara, was organised on January 1st, 1919, to take over the Mission work done formerly by the Basel German Evangelical Mission in two of her fields, namely, the Districts of South Kanara and South Mahratta. The missionaries and the Funds come from Switzerland. The Mission has 12 chief stations and 56 outstations with a total missionary staff of 35 and 344 Indian workers. There are 48 organised congregations with a total membership of 12,357, which gave last year Rs 15,399 for church and mission work. Educational work embraces 6 schools, of which there are 3 High Schools. The students number 7,609.

Medical work is done at Betgeri with a full staff and a hospital and two branch hospitals and dispensaries. A women's and children's hospital has been opened in June 1923 at Udipi.

The Mission maintains a Home Industrial department for women's work, and a large Publishing department at Mangalore with a bookshop and a printing press occupying some 150 hands and doing work in many languages.

Secretary Dr P de Benoit Mangalore

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION was founded in 1874. Operated till 1915 in the Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly and Rannad Districts. Since 1915 the Mission having taken full charge of the former Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission field, works also in the Madras, Chingleput, Coimbatore, Salem and S. Arcot Districts with diaspora congregations in Rangoon, Penang and Colombo. European staff numbers 33, ordained Indian Ministers 42, Indian workers 88, organised churches 42, Baptised membership 23,376, Schools 321, pupils 16,559 (12,855 boys and 3,704 girls), and teaching staff 755. *Ag Secretary* Rev J Sandegren M.A., B D, Trichinopoly.

THE INDIA MISSION OF THE EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN SYNDOD OF MISSOURI, OHIO AND O.S. is located in North Arcot, Salem, and Tinnevely

Districts, in Travancore, and the Kolar Gold fields, with 18 missionaries, 3 nurses (American), 1 doctor (Indian), 1 Zenana worker, 1 American teacher in charge of Missionary Home for children, and 1 Lady educationalist. Besides the three Training Institutes there are one complete and one incomplete High Schools, and among the Elementary Schools three complete Higher Elementary. In addition to evangelistic and educational work, the Mission has now an up to date Dispensary and Lying in Hospital with 18 beds in Ambur and a Dispensary in Krish nagiri (Salem). *Secretary* Rev T Gutknecht, Nagercoil, S Travancore.

THE DANISH EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION—Re-established 1868 in South Arcot, working there and in North Arcot, on the Shevaroy Hills and in Madras, has a total staff of 214 Indian and 45 European workers, Communicants 1,050, Christian community 3,000, 1 High School, 2 Boarding Schools, 4 Industrial Schools, Elementary Schools 58, total scholars 3,484.

Chairman Rev J Bittmann, 38, Broadway, Madras.

THE SANTAL MISSION OF THE NORTHERN CHURCHES (formerly known as the India Home Mission to the Santals)—Founded in 1867, works in the Santal Parganas, Goalpara (Assam), Malda and Dinajpur. Work is principally among the Santals. The mission staff numbers 27, Indian workers 480, communicants 4,000, Christian community 23,000, organised churches 36, boarding schools 4, pupils 508, elementary schools 69, pupils 1,035, industrial schools 2, Orphanage 1, children 29. *Secretary* Rev P O Boddington, Dumka, Santal Parganas.

MISSIONS AND ENEMY TRADING ACT—In May 1918, the following notice regarding Missions was published in the "Gazette of India"—"The following missions or religious associations are declared companies under Act 2 (the Enemy Trading Act) of 1916—The Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Hermannsburg Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Schleswig Holst in Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Gosner Evangelical Lutheran Mission of the United Provinces and Behar and Orissa, the German Evangelical Lutheran Mission of Ranchi, Behar and Orissa. The Governor-General in Council notifies that the powers conferred under Section 7 of the said Act shall extend to the property, movable and immovable, of these missions or religious associations."

In June, 1919 the Government of India stated—Effect is already being given to the suggestion that enemy missions in India should be taken over by British societies. The properties and undertakings of hostile missions have been vested in the Provisional Custodian of Enemy Property with a view to their transfer to boards of trustees composed partly of non-official members nominated by the National Missionary Council of India with the approval of the Government of India and partly of Government officials, and these Boards of Trustees will in due course transfer the undertakings and properties to a missionary society to be selected by them with the approval of the Governor-General in Council.

Methodist Societies.

The Methodist Episcopal Church is the organization in the United States of America which grew out of the Wesleyan revival in England and her American colonies during the latter part of the eighteenth century. This Church began its work in India in 1856, at first confining its activities to what is now the United Provinces. From that centre it spread until the outposts of its work were found in Baluchistan, Burma, Malaysia, Netherlands Indies and the Philippine Islands. In 1920 a rearrangement of the mission field of the Church separated India, Burma and Baluchistan into what is now known as the Southern Asia division. Within this present field the Church now has a total baptized Christian community of 444,128, of whom 37,750 were added the year ending with 1924.

The avowed task of the Church has been the uplift of the depressed classes, and its work has been largely among that class. As a matter of fact, however, it has large numbers who came from the Mohammedans and the caste Hindus, and among such its influence is extending.

The educational work of the Church is extensive. It having in this area a total of 1,627 schools of all grades, including three colleges, twenty-two high schools, and numerous normal training and the logical institutions. The registered attendants in these schools number 46,760.

Special effort is made for the instruction and development of the young people of the Church, there now being 987 chapters of the Epworth League with 46,035 enrolled members, and 6,469 organised Sunday Schools with an enrolment of 20,963.

The publishing interests of the Church are represented in two presses at Madras and Lucknow, the former doing work in four vernaculars and the latter in six. The periodicals issued cover the interests of both the evangelistic and the educational field, the Indian Witness, the Junior Methodist and Methodist Education being in English while the *Kankab-i-Hind*, the *Rasul-i-Niswan* the *Bal Hiti Karsak*, and other periodicals for women and children are issued in several of the vernaculars, as are lesson helps of various grades for the Sunday Schools.

The governing body of the Church is the General Conference held quadrennially, in which the ten conferences now existing in India are represented by twenty-six delegates. The polity of the Church in India looks forward to complete independence under the general governing body, there at present being but about three hundred and fifty American men and women as compared to 480 ordained and 1,162 unordained Indian and Burmese workers. At present the area is divided into seventy-three districts each in charge of a superintendent and among whom are many Indians. The work is supervised by four Bishops, elected by the General Conference, and resident as follows: Bishop Frank W. Warne, Bangalore; Bishop John W. Robertson, Delhi; Bishop Frederick B. Fisher, Calcutta; and Bishop Brenton T. Badley, Bangalore.

The American Wesleyan Methodist Mission, Sanjan, Thana District Headquarters. Stations with missionaries, Danda Marol, via Nargol, Thana District Vapi (Daman Road Station). Surat District Pardi 6, Surat District. Six missionaries on field. Two on furlough. One under appointment. Four main stations. Two boarding schools. One industrial school. One Bible school. Six village schools. *Superintendent*, C. B. Harvey, Sanjan, Thana District.

The Reformed Episcopal Church of America (Methodist) at Lalitpur and Lucknow, U. P., has 2 Missionaries, 4 Outstations, 2 Orphanages and a membership of nearly 100.

THE WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY commenced work in India in 1817 (Ceylon in 1814). The Mission in India, apart from Ceylon, is organized into 8 District Synods with 2 Provincial Synods. There is a large English work connected with the Society, 20 ministers giving their whole time to Military work and English churches.

The districts occupied include 64 main stations in Bengal, Madras, Mysore, Bombay, Punjab Central Provinces, Hyderabad (Nizam's Dominions), United Provinces and Burma. The European staff numbers 98 with 61 Indian Ministers and 615 Indian workers, Communicants 15,688, and total Christian community 64,892. There are 8 large numbers of organized Churches many of which are self-supporting.

Educational work comprises 9 Christian Colleges, students, 1,998. 5 Theological institutions, students, 238, 10 High Schools, pupils, 4,524, 14 Industrial schools, pupils 400, 707 Elementary schools, with 23,684 scholars. In Medical work there are 8 hospitals, 6 dispensaries, 1,033 in-patients and 43,227 out-patients. The Society expended over £85,000 on its Indian Missions in 1922.

The Women's Auxiliary carry on an extensive work in the places occupied by the men's society. There are 71 women workers from Britain of whom 9 are qualified doctors. The Indian women workers number 274. There are 116 girls day schools with 13,377 pupils and 31 boarding schools with 1,979 boarders. There are several philanthropic institutions for the rescue and training of women. The Women's Auxiliary manage 12 hospitals and 3 dispensaries, which had 5,738 in-patients and 70,529 out-patients. The cost of the work to the Women's Auxiliary in 1922 was over £20,000.

Vice Chairman of General Synod, Rev D. A. Rees, Mysore.

The Woman's Foreign Missionary Society of the M. E. Mission is divided into 9 Conferences and is co-extensive with the main work of the Mission. 245 Lady Missionaries are engaged in Educational, Zenana, Evangelistic and Medical work. The Secretary for the Bombay Conference is Miss A. A. Abbott, B. A., Basim Bera.

THE FREE METHODIST MISSION of North America—Established at Yeotmal, 1893, operates in Berar with a staff of 19 Missionaries and 42 Indian workers. Organised churches 4, 1 Theological school and 5 Elementary schools, and 2 Anglo-Vernacular schools and Dispensaries 3. *Secretary*: Rev Elizabeth Morland, Wus, Berar.

THE SALVATION ARMY

For many years the operations of the Salvation Army in India were under the immediate direction of eight Territorial Commanders, in part responsible to Commissioner Booth Tucker, as Special Commissioner for India and in part to International Headquarters. The General recently decided to divide the country into four distinct Commands, each under its own Territorial Commissioner and directly responsible to International Headquarters.

Northern India—The area under this command is the 8 A work in the whole of the Punjab and the United Provinces with Headquarters at Lahore

In addition to an extensive evangelistic work in the Punjab, and in several centres in the United Provinces there are a number of Settlements for the Criminal Tribes in the United Provinces (where this important work was first introduced) and several also in the Punjab

In the Punjab is also situated an agricultural settlement consisting of a large village of 1,800 inhabitants who cultivate some 2,000 acres of land, in which they will gradually acquire proprietary rights, the Government having given it to the Salvation Army on easy terms. This is proving to be very successful

Other Industries include Weaving Schools, Agricultural Dairy and Fruit Farms Day and Boarding Schools, a Home for stranded Europeans, and for British Military Soldiers, a Hospital and Dispensaries

Village Centres occupied, 1,738, Officers, 359, Employees, 260, Social Institutions, 23

Territorial Headquarters 8 A, Ferozepore Road, Lahore, Punjab

Territorial Commander Lt Commissioner Jai Kumar (Toft)

Chief Secretary Brigadier Jeyadas (Hancock)

Western India—The three Territories of Bombay, Guzerat, and Maratha now form the Territory of Western India

Besides the distinctly evangelistic operations, there are established a large General Hospital—Thomas Emery Memorial—several Dispensaries, at which during the year about 30,000 patients are treated, over 240 Day and Boarding Schools, also a Boarding School and Hostel for Blind Children, a Home for Juvenile Criminals, an Industrial Home for Women, a British Soldiers' and Sailors' Farlough Home, Weaving and Silk Schools, a Factory for Weaving, Warping, and Reeling Machines, and a Land Colony having a population of some hundreds of Salvationists

Corps, 289, Outposts, 528, Officers, 634, c/o whom 589 are Indian, employees and teachers, 123; Social Institutions, 15

Territorial Headquarters 8 A., Moreland Road, Byculla, Bombay.

Territorial Commander Commissioner Horskins

Chief Secretary Lt Col Jaya Prakas (Gore)

Madras and Telugu Territory—This Territory comprises the city of Madras and work situated in the Nellore, Guntur and Kistna Districts of the Northern Circars of the Madras Presidency, also Bangalore

There are the following agencies at work—261 Corps and outposts, viz.,—places in which work is systematically done

95 Village Primary schools 4 Settlements for Criminal Tribes with a total population of 8,568 2 Industrial Schools for children of Criminal Tribes 1 Rescue Home 1 Silk Farm, where some 75 boys are being instructed in the various branches of sericulture

1 Trading Department, where cloth, leather goods furniture, carpets, silk, lace etc., the products of Industrial Institutions, are disposed of

Territorial Headquarters—The Salvation Army, Broadway, Madras

Territorial Commander Colonel N Muthiah, **Chief Secretary** Brigadier Charles F A Mackenzie (Anandham)

Southern India—A new Territory comprising all that vast area south of Pondicherry and the State of Mysore came into being on 1st April 1924, prior to that date it was part of what was known as the Southern Territory with Headquarters at Madras. The real centre of operations is in Travancore, where whole communities have become Salvationists, though there is also a very promising work in Cochin, and in the British Territory adjoining South Travancore. Year by year the work has increased till now the Salvation Army is working in upwards of 1,187 different villages

In the villages around Nagercoil over a thousand women have been taught lace-making and needle work and thus the home income is considerably helped. A Home of Rest for Sick Officers is situated at Wellington in the Nilgiri Mountains. The Catherine Booth Hospital at Nagercoil, under the skilful direction of Staff Captain (Dr) Noble has been the centre of the Medical Work in that part of India, where students and nurses are trained, and where thousands of patients receive attention every year. There are five Branch Hospitals attached to this main Hospital

There are 1,187 Corps and outposts, i.e., villages in which work is systematically carried on, 1,026 Officers and Teachers, 296 Day Schools, 8 Hospitals, 2 Boarding Schools, with a total constituency of 44,749

Territorial Headquarters The Salvation Army, Trivandrum, Travancore

Territorial Commander Lt-Colonel Mrs Troncoe

Laws and the Administration of Justice.

The indigenous law of India is personal and divisible with reference to the two great classes of the population, Hindu and Mahomedan. Both systems claim divine origin and are inextricably interwoven with religion, and each exists in combination with a law based on custom. At first the tendency of the English was to make their law public and territorial, and on the establishment of the Supreme Court at Calcutta in 1778 and the advent of English lawyers as judges, they proceeded to apply it to Europeans and Indians alike. This error was rectified by the Declaratory Act of 1780, by which Parliament declared that as against a Hindu the Hindu law and usage, and as against a Mahomedan the laws and customs of Islam should be applied. The rules of the Shastras and the Koran have been in some cases altered and relaxed. Instances can be found in the Bengal Sati Regulation Act of 1829, the Indian Slavery Act, 1843, the Caste Disabilities Removal Act of 1850, the Hindu Widows Remarriage Act, 1856, and other Acts and Codes. To quote the Imperial Gazetteer, "A certain number of the older English statutes and the English common law are to a limited extent still in force in the Presidency Towns as applicable to Europeans, while much of the old Hindu and Mahomedan law is everywhere personal to their native fellow subjects, but apart from these, and from the customary law, which is as far as possible recognised by the Courts, the law of British India is the creation of statutory enactments made for it either at Westminster or by the authorities in India to whom the necessary law giving functions have from time to time been delegated."

Codification

Before the transfer of India to the Crown the law was in a state of great confusion. Sir Henry Cunningham described it as "hopelessly unwieldy, entangled and confusing. The first steps toward general codification were taken in 1833, when a Commission was appointed, of which Lord Macaulay was the moving spirit, to prepare a penal code. Twenty-two years elapsed before it became law, during which period it underwent revision from his successors in the Law Membership, and especially by Sir Barnes Peacock, the last Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The Penal Code, which became law in 1860, was followed in 1861 by a Code of Criminal Procedure. Substantially the whole criminal law of British India is contained in these two Codes. One of the most eminent lawyers who ever came to India, Sir James Stephen, said "The Indian penal code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. It is practically impossible to misunderstand the code." The rules of Civil Procedure have been embodied in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Indian Penal Code has from time to time been amended. The Code of Civil Procedure was remodelled in 1908 and the Code of Criminal Procedure in 1898. These Codes are now in force.

Statute Law Revision

In October, 1921, a committee was appointed under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. A. P. Muddiman, I.C.S., to deal with the question of statute law revision. The functions of the Committee are to prepare for the consideration of Government such measures of consolidation and clarification, as may be necessary to secure the highest attainable standard of formal perfection in the statute law of India. In several branches of the law consolidation has long been overdue, and it is suggested that the preparation of a Bill consolidating the existing law relating to merchant shipping, with such amendments therein as are necessitated or rendered desirable by the enactment of the English statutes since 1864 on the same subject should form the first duty undertaken by the Committee. Under the conditions resulting from the establishment of the reformed Constitution, increasing importance will attach hereafter to the periodical examination and revision of the Statute Book and the Government of India hope that the Committee will take its place as a permanent feature of the legislative machinery of the country.

European British Subjects

Whilst the substantive criminal law is the same for all classes, certain distinctions of procedure have always been maintained in regard to criminal charges against European British subjects. Until 1872 European British subjects could only be tried or punished by one of the High Courts. It was then enacted that European British subjects should be liable to be tried for any offences by magistrates of the highest class, who were also justices of the peace, and by judges of the Sessions Courts, but it was necessary in both cases that the magistrate or judge should himself be a European British subject. In 1883 the Government of India announced that they had decided to settle the question of jurisdiction over European subjects in such a way as to remove from the code at once and completely every judicial disqualification which is based merely on race distinctions. This decision, embodied in the Ilbert Bill, aroused a storm of indignation which is still remembered. The controversy ended in a compromise which is thus summarised by Sir John Strachey ("India"). "The controversy ended with the virtual, though not avowed abandonment of the measure proposed by the Government Act III of 1884, by which the law previously in force was amended, cannot be said to have diminished the privileges of European British subjects charged with offences, and it left their position as exceptional as before. The general disqualification of native judges and magistrates remains, but if a native of India be appointed to the post of district magistrate or sessions judge, his powers in regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects are the same as those of an Englishman holding the same office. This provision however is subject to the condition that every European British subject brought for trial before the district magistrate or sessions judge has the right, however trivial be the charge, to claim to be tried by a jury of which

not less than half the number shall be Europeans or Americans. Whilst this change was made in the powers of district magistrates, the law in regard to other magistrates remained unaltered." Since 1836 no distinctions of race have been recognised in the civil courts throughout India.

After a discussion on this subject in the Legislative Assembly in September 1921 the following motion was adopted:—"That in order to remove all racial distinctions between Indians and Europeans in the matter of their trial and punishment for offences, a committee be appointed to consider what amendments should be made in the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, which differentiate between Indians and European British subjects and American and Europeans who are not British subjects in criminal trials and proceedings and to report on the best methods of giving effect to their proposals."

High Courts

The highest legal tribunals in India are the High Courts of Judicature. These were constituted by the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 for Bengal, Bombay and Madras, and later for the United Provinces and the Punjab superseding the old supreme and Sudder Courts. The Judges are appointed by the Crown; they hold office during the pleasure of the Sovereign, at least one-third of their number are barristers, one-third are recruited from the judicial branch of the Indian Civil Service, the remaining places being available for the appointment of Indian lawyers. Trial by jury is the rule in original criminal cases before the High Courts, but juries are never employed in civil suits in India.

For other parts of India High Courts have been formed under other names. The chief difference being that they derive their authority from the Government of India, not from Parliament. In Burma there is a Chief Court, with three or more judges; in the other provinces the chief appellate authority is an officer called the Judicial Commissioner. In Sind the Judicial Commissioner is termed Judge of the Sudder Court and has two colleagues.

The High Courts are the Courts of appeal from the superior courts in the districts, criminal and civil, and their decisions are final except in cases in which an appeal lies to His Majesty in Council and is heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. The High Courts exercise supervision over all the subordinate courts. Returns are regularly sent to them at short intervals and the High Courts are able, by examining the returns, by sending for proceedings, and by calling for explanations, as well as from the cases that come before them in appeal, to keep themselves to some extent acquainted with the manner in which the courts generally are discharging their duties.

Lower Courts.

The Code of Criminal Procedure provides for the constitution of inferior criminal courts styled courts of session and courts of magistrates. Every province, outside the Presidency towns, is divided into sessions divisions consisting of one or more districts and every

sessions division has a court of session and a sessions judge, with assistance if need be. These stationary sessions courts take the place of the English Assizes, and are competent to try all accused persons duly committed, and to inflict any punishment authorised by law, but sentences of death are subject to confirmation by the highest court of criminal appeal in the province. Magistrates' courts are of three classes with descending powers. Provision is made and largely utilised in the towns, for the appointment of honorary magistrates, in the Presidency towns Presidency magistrates deal with magisterial cases and benches of Justices of the Peace or honorary magistrates dispose of the less important cases.

Trials before courts of session are either with assessors or juries. Assessors assist, but do not bind the judge by their opinions, on juries the opinion of the majority prevails if accepted by the presiding judge. The Indian law allows considerable latitude of appeal. The prerogative of mercy is exercised by the Governor-General-in-Council and the Local Government concerned without prejudice to the superior power of the Crown.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the inferior civil courts varies. Broadly speaking one district and sessions judge is appointed for each district as District Judge he presides in its principal civil court of original jurisdiction, his functions as Sessions Judge have been described. For these posts members of the Indian Civil Service are mainly selected though some appointments are made from the Provincial Service. Next come the Subordinate Judges and Munsifs, the extent of whose original jurisdiction varies in different parts of India. The civil courts below the grade of District Judge, are almost invariably presided over by Indians. There are in addition a number of Courts of Small Causes, with jurisdiction to try money suits up to Rs 500. In the Presidency Towns, where the Chartered High Courts have original jurisdiction, Small Cause Courts dispose of money suits up to Rs 2,000. As in solvency Courts the chartered High Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras have jurisdiction in the Presidency towns in the mofussil similar powers were conferred on the District Courts by the Insolvency Act of 1906.

Coroners are appointed only for the Presidency Towns of Calcutta and Bombay. Elsewhere their duties are discharged by the ordinary staff of magistrates and police officers unaided by juries.

Legal Practitioners

Legal practitioners in India are divided into Barristers at Law, Advocates of the High Court, Vakils and Attorneys (Solicitors) of High Courts, and Pleaders, Mukhtars and revenue agents. Barristers and Advocates are admitted by each High Court to practise in it and its subordinate courts, and they alone are admitted to practise on the original side of some of the chartered High Courts. Vakils are persons duly qualified who are admitted to practise on the appellate side of the chartered High Courts and in the Courts subordinate to the High Courts. Attorneys are required to qualify before admission to practise in much the same way as in England. The rule that a solicitor must instruct counsel

prevails only on the original side of certain of the High Courts. Pleaders practice in the subordinate courts in accordance with rules framed by the High Courts.

Organisation of the Bar

At Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay there is a Bar Committee presided over, *ex officio*, by the Advocate-General. This body is elected by the barristers practising in each High Court, and its functions are to watch the interests of the Bar and to regulate its etiquette. At Allahabad, Lahore, Nagpore, and Rangoon a similar Bar Committee exists, but the electorate is extended to include the *wakils* or native pleaders, and the president is either the senior practising member of the Bar or the Government Advocate. In the larger Districts and Sessions Courts, an organisation representing the Bar is usually to be found, and in the subordinate Courts, including the Revenue Courts, similar machinery is generally in use. Pending an opportunity of detailed inquiries in India, these general descriptions must suffice.

Composition of the Bar

A considerable change is occurring in the composition of the Indian Bar. The following extract from an informing article in the *Times* (May 25, 1914) indicates the character and incidence of this development. During the last forty years, a striking change has taken place in the professional class. The bulk of practice has largely passed from British to Indian hands, while, at the same time, the profession has grown to an enormous extent. One typical illustration may be quoted. Attached to the Bombay High Court in 1871 there were 38 solicitors, of whom 10 were Indian and 28 English, and 24 advocates, of whom 7 were Indian and 17 English. In 1911, attached to the same High Court, there were 150 solicitors, of whom more than 130 were Indian and the remainder English, and 250 advocates, of whom 19 only were English and the remainder Indian.

Law Officers

The Government of India has its own law colleague in the Legal Member of Council. All Government measures are drafted in this department. Outside the Council the principal law officer of the Government of India is the Advocate-General of Bengal, who is appointed by the Crown, is the leader of the local Bar, and is always nominated a member of the Provincial Legislative Council. In Calcutta he is assisted by the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor. There are Advocates-General and Government Solicitors for Bombay and Madras, and in Bombay there is attached to the Secretariat a Legal Remembrancer and an Assistant Legal Remembrancer, drawn from the Judicial Branch of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of Bengal

consults the Bengal Advocate-General, the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor, and has besides a Legal Remembrancer (a Civil Servant) and a Deputy Legal Remembrancer (a practising barrister). The United Provinces are equipped with a civilian Legal Remembrancer and professional lawyers, as Government Advocate and Assistant Government Advocate. The Punjab has a Legal Remembrancer, Government Advocate, and a Junior Government Advocate, and Burma a Government Advocate, besides a Secretary to the Local Legislative Council.

Sheriffs are attached to the High Courts of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. They are appointed by Government, selected from non-officials of standing, the detailed work being done by deputy sheriffs, who are officers of the Court.

Law Reports.

The Indian Law Reports are published in four series—Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Allahabad, under the authority of the Governor-General in Council. They contain cases determined by the High Court and by the Judicial Committee on appeal from the particular High Court. These appeals raise questions of very great importance, and the Council of Law Reporting for England and Wales show their appreciation by printing the Indian Appeals in a separate volume, and have also compiled a digest of Indian Appeals covering the period 1874-1893. The other Provinces and States have series of reports issued under the authority either of the Judiciary or the State.

Legislative Power

The supreme power of Parliament to legislate for the whole of India cannot be questioned. In practice, however, this power is little used, there being a majority of officials on the Imperial Legislative Council—a majority deliberately reserved in the India Councils Act of 1909—the Secretary of State is able to impose his will on the Government of India and to secure the passage of any measure he may frame, regardless of the opinion of the Indian authorities. Legislative Councils have been established both for the whole of India and for the principal provinces. Their constitution and functions are fully described in detailing the powers of the Imperial and Provincial Councils (q.v.). To meet emergencies the Governor-General is vested with the power of issuing ordinances, having the same force as Acts of the Legislature, but they can remain in force for only six months. The power is very little used. The Governor-General-in-Council is also empowered to make regulations, having all the cogency of Acts, for the more backward parts of the country, the object being to bar the operation of the general law and permit the application of certain enactments only.

Bengal Judicial Department

Sanderson, The Hon'ble Sir Lancelot . . .
Chatterji, The Hon'ble Sir Nalin Ranjan, Kt.,
M.A., B.L.
Richardson, The Hon'ble Sir Thomas William,
I.C.S., Bar-at-Law
Walmaley, The Hon'ble Mr Hugh I.C.S. . .

Chief Justice,
Pulne Judge.
Ditto
Ditto

Rankin, The Hon Mr George Claus, Bar-at-Law
 Greaves, The Hon'ble Mr William Ewart
 Newbould, The Hon ble Mr B B
 Ghosh, The Hon Mr Charu Chander, Bar-at-Law
 Suckland, The Hon Mr Justice Philip Lindsay,
 Bar-at-Law
 Pearson, The Hon Mr Justice Herbert Grayhurst,
 Bar-at-Law
 Subhawardy, The Hon Mr Justice Zahhadur Rahim
 Zahid, Bar-at-Law
 Cuming, The Hon Mr Justice Arthur Herbert, I O S
 Ghosh, The Hon Mr Justice Bepin Behari
 Pantou, The Hon Mr Justice Edward Brookes
 Henderson
 Page, The Hon Mr Justice Arthur, Kt
 Mukharji, The Hon Mr Justice Manmatha Nath
 Chokner, The Hon Mr Justice Alfred James, I O S
 Thornhill, The Hon Mr Justice Thomas, Bar at Law
 Duval, The Hon Mr Justice Herbert Philip C I E, I O S
 Graham, The Hon Mr Justice John Fuller, I O S
 Chakrabarti, The Hon Mr Justice Dwarka Nath
 Das, S B, Bar-at-Law
 Mitter, B L, Bar-at-Law
 Gooding, G O
 James, Langford, Bar at-Law
 Duval, The Hon Mr H P, I O S.
 Khundkar, N A, Bar-at-Law
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 Sadhu, Rai Bahadur Tarak Nath
 Remfrey, Maurice
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 Ghatak N, M B
 Mitra, Jyotish Chandra
 Moses, O, Bar-at-Law
 Kirkham, Joseph Alfred
 Hodge, John, D, I O S
 Counsell, Frank Bertram
 Faulst, Peter Sydenham
 Kinney, Alexander
 Bonnerjee, K K Shelly, Bar at-Law
 Swinhoe D, Bar-at-Law
 Falkner, George McDonald
 Bose, B.D., Bar-at-Law

Puine Judge (On deputation)
 Ditto
 • Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto (On leave)
 Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto (On leave)
 Ditto
 Ditto (On leave)
 Ditto
 Ditto (Additional)
 Ditto (Acting)
 Ditto (")
 Ditto (")
 Ditto (")
 Ditto (")
 Advocate-General (On deputation)
 Officiating Advocate General
 Government Solicitor
 Officiating Standing Counsel
 Superintendent and Remembrancer of
 Legal Affairs
 Deputy Superintendent and Remem-
 brancer of Legal Affairs
 Senior Government Pleader
 Public Prosecutor, Calcutta.
 Registrar, Keeper of Records, Taxing
 Officer, Accountant-General, and
 Sealer, etc, Original Jurisdiction (On
 leave)
 Ditto (Offg)
 Master and Official Referee
 Officiating Registrar in Insolvency
 Clerk of the Crown for Criminal Sessions
 Secretary to the Chief Justice and Head
 Clerk, Decree Department
 Registrar and Taxing Officer, Appellate
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 Deputy Registrar
 Assistant Registrar
 Administrator-General and Official
 Trustee
 Official Receiver, sub pro tem.
 Coroner of Calcutta
 Official Assignee
 Editor of Law Reports

Bombay Judicial Department

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 Marten, The Hon. Sir Amberson B
 Pratt, The Hon. Mr Edward Millard, I O S
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 Fawcett, The Hon'ble Mr Charles Gordon Hill, I O S
 Coyaji, The Hon Mr H C
 Kincaid The Hon Mr C A, CVO
 Mirza Ali Akbar Khan M A, LL B The Hon Mr (Ag)
 Kemp, The Hon Mr Norman Wright, Bar-at-Law
 Taraporewalla, The Hon Mr V F
 Kanga, Jamshedji Behramji M A, LL B
 Stephen, James Murphy, I O S
 Sen, Kamlish Chandra, B.A., I O S

Bowen, J. O. G

Chief Justice
 Puine Judge.
 Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto
 Ditto (Additional)
 Advocate-General
 Remembrancer of Legal Affairs
 Assistant Remembrancer of Legal Affairs
 and Secretary to the Legislative
 Council of the Governor
 Government Solicitor and Public Prose-
 cutor (On leave.)

Bombay Judicial Department—*contd*

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Kemp, K. Mac I., Bar-at-Law
Mitchell, H. C. B.

Phirozshah Behramji Malbari, Bar-at-Law

Hirjibhai Hormasji Wadia, M.A.

Nasserwanji Dinshahji Gharda, B.A., LL.B.

Clerk of the Crown
Reporter to the High Court.
Administrator-General and Official
Trustee and Registrar of Companies
Prothonotary, Testamentary and Admiralty Registrar
Master and Registrar in Equity and
Commissioner for taking Accounts and
Local Investigations and Taxing
Officer
Deputy Registrar and Sealer, Appellate
Side, and Secretary to Rule Committee
Acting Registrar, Appellate Side.

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Raymond, Edward
Aston, Arthur Henry Southcoote, M.A., Bar at Law
Rupchand Ellaram
Lobo, C.M.

Judicial Commissioner
Additional Judicial Commissioner
Ditto
Ditto
Ditto (Temporary)
Ditto (Acting)

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Oldfield, The Hon. ble Mr. Francis Du Pre, I.C.S.
Spencer, The Hon. ble Mr. Charles Gordon, I.C.S.
Ayling, The Hon. ble Sir William Bock, I.C.S.
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Kumaraswami Sastri, The Hon. ble Diwan Bahadur C.V.
Krishnan, The Hon. O. Dewan Bahadur, M.A., Bar at Law
Devadoss, The Hon. Mr. Justice, M.D., Bar at Law
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Madhavan Nair, C., Bar at Law
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Wallace, The Hon. Mr. E.H., I.C.S.
Venkatarama Sastri, T.A.
Moresby, Charles
C.V. Ananta Krishna Iyer
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Irunarayana Achariyar, M.A.

Cornish, H.D., Bar-at-Law

Butler, Frank Gregory, I.C.S.
Madhava Menon, K.P., Bar at-Law

Chief Justice
Puisne Judge
Ditto
Ditto
Ditto
Ditto (On leave)
Ditto
Ditto
Ditto
Ditto
Ditto (Acting)
Ditto
Advocate-General
Government Solicitor
Government Pleader
Public Prosecutor
Editor, Indian Law Reports, Madras
Series.
Administrator-General, Official Trustee
and Custodian of Enemy Property
(On leave)
Registrar
Crown Prosecutor

Assam Judicial Department

Mallor Arthur

Jack, Robert Ernest

Ran, B.N.

Neogi, Hem Kumar

Secretary to Government, Legislative
Department and Secretary to the
Assam Legislative Council Superin-
tendent and Remembrancer of Legal
Affairs Administrator-General and
Official Trustee
District and Sessions Judge, Assam
Valley District.
Officiating District and Sessions Judge,
Sylhet and Cachar
Additional District and Sessions Judge,
Sylhet and Cachar.

Bihar and Orissa Judicial Department.

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Jwala Prasad, The Hon'ble Sir, Kt., Rai Bahadur	Puikne Judge
Adami, The Hon Justice Leonard Christian, I O S	Ditto
Pratapa Ranjan Das, The Hon. Mr., Bar-at-Law	Ditto
Mullick, The Hon'ble Sir Basanta Kumar, I O S	Ditto
Bucknill, The Hon Justice Sir John Alexander Strachey,	Ditto
Bar-at-Law	
Ross, The Hon Mr Justice Robert Lindsay, I O S	Ditto
Foster, The Hon Mr Justice Frederick Edward Burton,	Ditto, (Offg)
LL.B	
Kulwant Sahay, The Hon Mr	Ditto Ag Additional Judge
Allanson, Harry Llewelyn Lyons, I O S	Superintendent and Remembrancer of
	Legal Affairs
Seroop, A E.	Registrar (Offg)

Burma Judicial Department

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Young, The Hon Mr Charles Philip Radford, B.A	Judge.
Pratt, The Hon Mr Justice Henry Sheldon	Do. Mandalay
Head, The Hon Mr Justice Benjamin Herbert	Do
Rutledge, The Hon Mr Justice John Guy	Do
MacColl, The Hon Mr Hugh Ernest, I O S	Do (On leave)
Oung, The Hon. Mr Justice Maung May, M A, LL.M.	Do
Bar-at-Law	
Beasley, The Hon Mr Justice Horace Owen, Comptn,	Do
Bar-at-Law	
Lentalgne, The Hon Mr Justice B P. Bar at-Law	Additional Judge, Rangoon
Carr, The Hon Mr Justice William, I O S	Do Rangoon
Godfrey, The Hon Mr Justice J E Bar at Law	Acting Judge, Mandalay
Duckworth, The Hon Mr Justice, B D, B A I O S	Ditto ditto
Brown, The Hon Mr Justice H A, B A, I O S	Ditto Rangoon
Bar-at-Law	
Maung Thin, Bar at-Law	Administrator-General, Official Trustee
	Official Assignee and Receiver, Rangoon
Higginbotham, Edward, Bar-at-Law	Government Advocate
Barretto, Charles Lionel, Advocate	Government Prosecutor Moulmein
MacDougall, Raibeart MacIntyre, M A, I O S	Registrar, High Court, Rangoon

Central Provinces Judicial Department.

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Prideaux, F W A, O B E	Additional Judicial Commissioner
Haillifax H F, I O S	Do do
Kotwal, P S., Bar-at-Law	Do do
Kinkhede Rao Bahadur Madho Rao, B A, B.L	Temporary Additional Judicial Commissioner
Mitchell, D G, C I E, I O S	Legal Remembrancer
Dick, George Paris, C I E, Bar at Law	Government Advocate
Alay Baza, Balyid Bar-at-Law	Registrar
Abdul Latif Khan, B.A, LL.B	Deputy Registrar

N-W Frontier Province Judicial Department.

Pipon, P J G., O M G, C I E. M O, I O S.	Judicial Commissioner.
Umar Khatab	Registrar.

Punjab Judicial Department.

The Hon'ble Sir Rai Bahadur Shadi Lal, Bar at Law	Chief Judge.
Smith, The Hon'ble Mr H Scott, ICS	Judge.
Abdur Rauf The Hon. Khan Bahadur Sayyed Muham mad	Do
Le Rossignol, The Hon Mr Walter Aubin, ICS	Do
Broadway, The Hon Mr Alan Brice, Bar-at-Law	Do
Martineau, The Hon Mr Alfred Edward, ICS	Do
Harrison, The Hon Mr Michael Harman	Do
Campbell, The Hon Mr Archibald, ICS	Additional Judge
Fiorde, The Hon Mr Justice Cecil	Do
Moti Sagar, The Hon Mr R. B. Barr at Law	Do
Coldstream, John B.A., ICS	Legal Remembrancer
Jai Lal, Rai Bahadur	Government Advocate
Blacker, Harold Alfred Cecil, B.A.	Registrar
Noad, Charles Humphrey Cardon, B.A., Bar at Law	Assistant Legal Remembrancer and Administrator-General and Official Trustee

United Provinces Judicial Department

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Piggott, The Hon'ble Mr Theodore Caro, ICS	Puisne Judge (On furlough)
Walsh, The Hon Mr Cecil, Bar at-Law, M.A.	Ditto
Sulaiman, The Hon Justice Dr Shah Muhammad, Bar at Law	Ditto
Lindsay, The Hon Mr Benjamin, ICS	Ditto
Stuart, The Hon Mr Louis, C.I.E., ICS	Ditto
Kanhaiya Lal, The Hon Justice Rai Bahadur Pandit M.A., LL.B.	Acting Puisne Judge
Daniels, Hon Mr Justice S. R., ICS	Ditto.
Dalal, The Hon Mr Justice B. L. ICS	Ditto
Ryves, The Hon Mr Justice Alfred Edward B.A. Bar at Law	Additional Puisne Judge
Mukharji, The Hon Justice Rai Bahadur Lal (opala)	Ditto
J. E. Pedley ICS	Registrar
Porter, Wilfred King, Bar-at-Law	Law Reporter
Banarji, Lalit Mohan, M.A. LL.B.	Government Advocate.
Shankar Saran, B.A., Bar at Law	Assistant Government Advocate (Offg)

COURT OF JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER OF OUDH—LUCKNOW

Kanhaiya Lal The Hon Rai Bahadur, Pandit, M.A., LL.B.	Acting Puisne Judge, High Court Allahabad
Daniels Hon Mr Sidney Reginald J.P. ICS, Bar at Law	Ditto
Lyle, D.R., J.P. ICS	Second Additional Judicial Commissioner of Oudh (On combined leave).
Wazir, Hasan Salyid B.A., LL.B.	Officiating Judicial Commissioner of Oudh
Neave, H.R., J.P. ICS	Officiating 1st Additional Judicial Com- missioner of Oudh.
Kendall, C.H.B. C.H.B., J.P. ICS	Officiating 2nd Additional Judicial Commissioner of Oudh
Pandit Tika Ram Misra, M.A. LL.B.	Registrar
Nagendra Nath Ghosal, Rai Bahadur, B.A., LL.B.	Government Pleader

NUMBER AND VALUE OF CIVIL SUITS INSTITUTED

Administrations	Number of Suits Instituted.						Number of Suits of which cannot be estimated in money	Total Number of Suits Instituted	Total Value of Suits
	Value not exceeding Rs 10	Value Rs 10 to Rs 50	Value Rs 50 to Rs 100	Value Rs 100 to Rs 500	Value Rs 500 to Rs 1,000	Value Rs 1,000 to Rs 5,000			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(10)
1 Bengal	91,438	276,082	126,426	146,161	16,128	10,391	2,638	1,360	672,584
2 Bihar and Orissa	26,771	82,018	36,440	32,635	5,068	8,795	796	55	160,780
3 United Provinces	9,133	64,958	50,506	64,280	6,652	8,497	1,837	32	208,880
4 Punjab	10,932	46,238	40,677	56,986	12,974	7,927	1,326	394	177,184
5 Delhi	258	1,725	1,376	2,860	812	817	301	5	614,563
6 North-West Frontier Province	2,496	6,072	6,869	7,244	1,281	865	239	22	78,778
7 Burma	2,354	19,848	14,789	22,478	2,888	2,518	663	22	89,965
8 Central Provinces and Berar	4,685	33,983	26,047	36,183	5,177	3,668	547	162	81,732
9 Assam	8,743	17,217	8,915	10,115	934	455	63	8	65,286
10 Ajmer Merwara	760	3,253	1,901	1,915	191	201	21	3	13,887
11 Coorg	150	1,246	675	532	23	37	23	23	2,688
12 Madras	49,944	161,935	14,292	114,188	16,945	12,868	2,799	816	145,087
13 Bombay	7,098	46,427	34,310	55,310	10,813	8,701	1,470	2,480	167,109
14 British Baluchistan	342	1,837	1,177	1,218	167	151	21	237	6,647
TOTAL, 1921	212,499	752,504	424,410	562,240	82,848	60,271	12,621	7,096	2,104,484
1920	242,261	851,941	473,981	584,130	82,914	58,091	12,291	8,962	2,314,001
1919	252,768	861,173	460,938	569,434	73,974	52,773	11,589	7,055	2,232,702
1918	266,365	87,754	428,466	492,400	62,886	43,072	8,387	6,091	2,160,411
1917	296,225	919,308	466,612	517,131	61,140	80,980	7,638	6,649	2,316,878
1916	305,751	935,140	483,294	511,417	60,405	89,680	7,076	6,237	2,339,000
1915	309,565	900,766	481,683	476,916	56,453	87,934	6,763	6,148	2,293,468
1914	286,704	835,694	390,885	488,132	53,845	36,247	6,633	7,080	2,055,160
1913	289,745	861,323	395,546	483,932	51,981	34,066	6,224	7,800	2,070,117
1912	301,394	867,790	393,502	425,862	60,300	33,037	6,164	7,388	2,086,407
1911	299,542	858,388	387,657	466,486	47,408	31,563	5,956	6,936	2,043,336
1910	301,395	879,145	405,969	440,101	56,638	37,782	6,763	7,663	2,156,031
1909	294,997	845,946	376,742	390,775	48,654	30,806	5,600	7,356	2,090,546
1908	289,584	819,595	354,196	366,602	44,430	28,236	5,264	7,347	1,914,364
1907	300,357	803,368	335,739	344,351	40,707	26,186	4,869	6,322	1,867,899

* Details not given of 42 Bombay suits in 1906, 56 Madras suits in 1906, 96 in 1907, 74 in 1908, 92 in 1909, 376 in 1910, 71 in 1911, 64 in 1912, 22 in 1913, and 28 suits in 1914. 4 in 1918 and 4 in 1919. 270 Bengal suits in 1909, and 49 Delhi suits in 1913 and 84 in 1914.

(a) Excludes 21,206 Suits in "Revenue Courts."

(b) "6,437" against "Superior Courts."

THE INDIAN POLICE.

The Indian Government employ (1921-22) about 206,000 Officers and men in the Indian Police. In addition to these there are about 30,000 Officers and men of the military police, of whom more than half belong to Burma. The total cost of maintaining the Force has greatly risen in recent years on account of increases of pay and allowances made on account of the increased cost of living. The Budget Estimate for 1923-24 is Rs 90,78,000. In large cities the Force is concentrated and under direct European control in the mofussil the men are scattered throughout each District and located at various Outposts and Police stations. The smallest unit for administrative

purposes is the Outpost which generally consists of 3 or 4 Constables under the control of a Head Constable. Outpost Police are maintained to patrol roads and villages and to report all matters of local interest to their superior, the Sub-Inspector. They have no powers to investigate offences and are a survival of the period when the country was in a disturbed state and small bodies of Police were required to keep open communications and afford protection against the raids of dacoits. It is an open question whether they are now of much use. Each Outpost is under a Police Station which is controlled by an officer known as a Sub-Inspector.

Distribution of Police—The area of a Police Station varies according to local conditions. The latest figures available are —

	Average area per Police Station	Average number of Regular Civil Police per 10,000 of Population
	Square miles	
Bengal *	126	4.8
Assam	616	5.3
United Provinces	127	7.7
Punjab	203	10.3
North-West Frontier Province	179	19.8
Central Provinces and Berar	242	8.6
Burma *	487	13.4
Madras	144	8.0
Bombay *	252	15.0

* Excluding the towns of Calcutta, Bombay and Rangoon. The figures include the Railway police, but not Military police.

Organisation of Police.

The Police Station Officer (the Sub-Inspector) is responsible for the investigation of all cognisable crimes, that is to say, all offences in which the Police can arrest without a warrant from a Magistrate, which occur within his jurisdiction. He is also held responsible for the maintenance of the public peace and the prevention of crime. From the point of view of the Indian Ryot, he is the most important Police Officer in the District and may rightly be considered the backbone of the Force.

Superior to the Sub-Inspector is the Inspector who holds charge of a Circle containing 4 or 5 Police Stations. His duties are chiefly those of supervision and inspection. He does not ordinarily interfere in the investigation of crime unless the conduct of his subordinates renders this necessary.

The Inspector is usually a selected and experienced Sub-Inspector. Each District con-

sists of 2 Sub-divisional—of which is given to an Assistant Superintendent of Police, a European gazetted Officer. The Police Force in each District is controlled by a District Superintendent of Police, who is responsible to the District Magistrate (Collector or Deputy Commissioner) for the detection and prevention of crime and for the maintenance of the public peace, and, to his Deputy Inspector-General and Inspector-General, for the internal administration of his Force. Eight or ten Districts form a Range administered by a Deputy Inspector-General, an officer selected from the ranks of the Superintendents. At the head of the Police of each Province is the Inspector-General who is responsible to the Local Government for the administration of the Provincial Police.

Separate but recruited from the District Force is the Criminal Investigation Department, which is under the control of a specially selected European Officer of the rank and

standing of a Deputy Inspector-General. The Criminal Investigation Department, usually called the C I D, is mainly concerned with political inquiries, seditious cases and crimes with ramifications over more than one District or which are considered too important to leave in the hands of the District Police. It is a small force of Sub-Inspectors and Inspectors who have shown their ability and intelligence when working in the mutual aid forms in each Province a local Scotland Yard.

The larger Cities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras have their own Police Force, independent of the Inspector-General of Police, and under the control of a Commissioner and 2 or more Deputies. For Police purposes each city is divided into divisions. In Calcutta each division is in charge of a Deputy Commissioner of Police, in Bombay and Madras of a Superintendent, these officers being selected from the European ranks of the City Force. In Bombay however, the Superintendents are Gasetted Officers and two of them are Indians. Each division is sub-divided into a small number of Police Stations, the station being in charge of an Inspector assisted by Deputy Inspectors Indian Sub Inspectors and European Sergeants.

The Supreme Government at Delhi and Simla keeps in touch with the Provincial Police by means of the Director of Criminal Intelligence and his Staff. The latter do not interfere in the Local Administration and are mainly concerned with the publication of information regarding international criminals, inter provincial crime and Political enquiries in which the Supreme Government is interested.

Recruitment—The constable is enlisted locally. Certain castes are excluded from service and the formation of cliques by filling up the Force from any particular caste or locality is forbidden. In some Provinces a fixed percentage of foreigners must be enlisted. Recruits must produce certificates of good character and pass a medical test. They must be above certain standards of physical development. The constable rises by merit to the rank of Head Constable and, prior to the Police Commission, could rise to the highest Indian subordinate appointments. Since 1906, his chances of promotion have been greatly curtailed, this has certainly lowered the standard coming forward for service in the Force in the lower ranks.

The Sub-Inspector, until 1906, was a selected Head Constable, but Lord Curzon's Commission laid down that Sub-Inspectors should be recruited direct from a socially better class of Indians. In most Provinces, eighty per cent of the Sub-Inspectors are selected by nomination, trained for a year or 18 months at a Central Police

School, and, after examination, appointed direct to Police Stations to learn their work by actual experience. It is too early to judge this system by results, but it has no doubt great disadvantages and undetected crime in India is increasing rapidly.

An Inspector is generally a selected Sub-Inspector. Direct nomination is the exception, not the rule.

The Deputy Superintendent, a new class of officer, instituted on the recommendation of the Commission, is an Indian gasetted officer and is the native Assistant to the District Superintendent of Police. He is either selected by special promotion from the ranks of the Inspectors or is nominated direct, after a course at the Central Police School.

Prior to 1893, the gasetted ranks of the Force were filled either by nomination or by regimental officers seconded from the Army for certain periods. In 1893, this system was abandoned and Assistant Superintendents were recruited by examination in London. On arrival in India, they were placed on probation until they had passed their examinations in the vernacular, in law, and in riding and drill. The establishment of Police Training Schools in 1906 has done much to improve the training of the Police. Probationers, and selection by examination has given Government a better educated officer, but open competition does not reveal the best administrators and should be tempered, as in the Navy, by selection.

Internal Administration—The District Force is divided into 2 Branches—Armed and Unarmed. As the duties of the armed branch consist of guarding Treasuries, escorting treasure and prisoners and operating against dangerous gangs of dacoits, they are maintained and controlled on a military basis. They are armed and drilled and taught to shoot after military methods. The unarmed branch are called upon to collect fines magisterially indicted, serve summonses and warrants, control traffic, destroy stray dogs, extinguish fires, enquire into accidents and non-cognizable offences. The lower grades are clothed and housed by Government without expense to the individual. The leave rules are fairly liberal but every officer, European or Native, must serve for 30 years before he is entitled to any pension, unless he can obtain a medical certificate invaliding him from the service. This period of service in an Eastern climate is generally admitted to be too long and the efficiency of the Force would be considerably improved if Government allowed both the officers and men to retire after a shorter period of service.

STATISTICS OF POLICE WORK.

The undesirability of attaching undue importance to statistical results as a test of the merits of police work was a point upon which considerable stress was laid by the Indian Police Commission, who referred to the evils likely to result from the prevalence among subordinate officers of an impression that the advancement of an officer would depend upon his being able to show a high

ratio of convictions, both to cases and to persons arrested, and a low ratio of crime. The objection applies more particularly to the use of statistics for small areas, but they cannot properly be used as a basis of comparison even for larger areas without taking into account the differences in the conditions under which the police work; and, it may be added, they can at the best indicate only very

imperfectly the degree of success with which the police carry out that important branch of their duties, which consists in the prevention of crime. These considerations have been emphasized in recent orders of the Government of India. Subject to these observations,

the figures below may be given as some indication of the volume of work falling upon the police, and of the wide differences between the conditions and the statistical results in different provinces —

Administrations	Number of Offences reported	Number of Persons under Trial.	Persons whose cases were disposed of				Persons remaining under Trial at the end of the Year	
			Discharged or Acquitted	Convicted	Committed or Referred	Died, Escaped or Transferred to another Province		
Bengal	335,862	293,524	102,944	172,064	8,467	214	14,840	
Bihar and Orissa	100,349	112,027	62,150	40,123	1,710	154	7,890	
United Provinces	227,914	843,003	195,398	130,266	6,828	563	9,948	
Punjab	202,079	278,618	192,062	61,032	2,162	312	23,047	
North-West Frontier Province	24,224	34,726	19,203	13,677	643	40	1,163	
Burma	115,170	178,38	65,582	102,290	2,000	1,759	6,701	
Central Provinces and Berar	36,408	58,685	29,117	22,318	3,023	116	4,111	
Assam	45,055	42,802	26,583	13,291	581	59	2,348	
Ajmer-Merwara	6,846	11,553	5,126	5,546		93	788	
Coorg	5,014	4,840	2,765	1,864		21	190	
Madras	307,410	409,201	177,510	203,502	5,489	177	22,523	
Bombay	182,266	256,520	98,338	139,094	2,639	1,424	14,965	
British Baluchistan	8,771	18,168	5,597	4,621		622	2,328	
Delhi	8,156	7,592	3,703	3,581	36	1	471	
TOTAL, 1921	1,605,524	2,044,956	986,178	913,270	28,628	5,555	111,313	
TOTALS	1920	1,707,859	2,115,885	1,001,259	973,250	27,843	5,458	108,576
	1919	1,720,347	2,134,582	973,645	1,024,447	33,185	5,632	97,619
	1918	1,536,081	2,029,669	892,151	918,881	25,517	6,289	86,889
	1917	1,038,577	2,038,170	694,805	987,148	22,820	4,810	79,572
	1916	1,669,070	2,098,379	698,625	10,14,801	23,186	6,139	73,619
	1915	1,608,076	2,085,622	698,259	997,210	25,185	4,769	75,851
	1914	1,634,224	2,120,472	1,031,374	902,922	23,554	4,949	67,632
	1913	1,658,405	2,141,362	1,051,888	987,592	22,459	4,735	74,652
	1912	1,659,254	2,132,813	1,053,657	977,267	21,650	4,313	75,765
	1911	1,502,995	2,190,679	966,783	897,786	21,173	3,906	70,832
	1910	1,447,732	2,184,951	922,379	872,298	21,029	4,439	64,677
	1909	1,421,860	2,186,210	914,500	854,687	22,174	3,849	61,502
	1908	1,412,817	2,184,207	897,462	860,065	24,535	3,625	58,496
	1907	1,411,669	2,181,827	880,706	851,097	21,296	3,505	60,228

(a) Includes 1 person handed over to Military Authorities and 8 persons remanded for retrial in 1919

" 9 persons handed over to Military Authorities in each of the years 1917 & 1918 and 2 & 3 persons remanded for retrial in 1917 & 1918 respectively

" 8 " handed over to Military Authorities and 1 person remanded for retrial in 1916

" 10 " handed over to Military Authorities and 3 persons remanded for retrial in 1915

" 25 " (9 on dormant file, 16 handed over to Military Authorities) in 1914

" 13 " 17 " " to Military Authorities) in 1913

" 149 " (139 " 9 " " " " and 1 sent to Naval Authorities) in 1912

" 204 " (171 " 85 " " to Military Authorities) in 1911

" 128 " (117 " 11 " " to Military Authorities) in 1910

" 26 " (10 " 14 " " " " and 2 referred under Section 307, Criminal Procedure Code) in 1909.

(b) Excludes the commitment of 5, 10, and 4 persons quashed by the High Court in 1915, 1916 and 1917 respectively

(c) Excludes 3 persons remanded for retrial by the High Court and 1 referred to the Local Government

(d) Includes 10 persons sent to Military Authorities.

(e) Includes 2 persons discharged without trial

PRINCIPAL POLICE OFFENCES

CASES

Administrations.	Offences against the State and Public Tranquillity		Murder		Other serious Offences against the Person		Dacoity		Cattle Theft		Ordinary Theft		House-trespass and Housebreaking with Intent to commit Offence.	
	Reported	Conviction obtained	Reported	Conviction obtained	Reported	Conviction obtained	Reported	Conviction obtained	Reported	Conviction obtained	Reported	Conviction obtained	Reported	Conviction obtained
Bengal	2,450	805	512	40	5,186	1,130	789	76	1,091	510	28,344	4,974	45,232	2,195
Cantonment	160	82	26	4	837	218	4			16	6,366	1,631	1,631	292
Calcutta Town and Suburbs	1,392	890	245	38	2,760	532	869	30	910	303	16,840	8,131	22,401	1,157
Bihar and Orissa	1,832	851	269	247	7,307	2,400	1,348	281	4,557	1,094	29,745	6,245	54,562	4,714
United Provinces	2,056	661	811	292	7,286	1,984	2,277	73	3,436	928	10,460	2,414	24,380	2,414
Punjab	27	7	8		186	40	8		48	24	697	284	724	95
Delhi	182	83	712	273	1,661	677	429	57	192	56	1,247	362	2,385	326
N. West Frontier Pro	903	429	770	170	10,328	3,065	444	96	5,803	1,019	19,616	6,508	11,513	8,733
Burmah	43	25	16	11	366	150	15	1			1,841	652	431	153
Rangoon	727	265	309	102	2,360	681	263	46	1,720	709	24,313	2,775	20,838	2,045
Central Provinces and Berar	806	275	85	33	1,298	354	61	12	336	136	4,707	1,021	6,090	636
Assam	14	6	1		50	20	20		30	8	183	55	98	21
Cooch	2,045	742	1,052	218	5,014	1,477	900	151	4,636	1,029	24,099	5,854	15,506	2,761
Madras	1,298	890	574	185	4,326	1,232	574	120	3,654	1,104	14,625	4,899	13,366	2,179
Bombay	263	102	54	21	814	347	12	7			6,313	2,899	1,899	416
Bombay Town & Island	15,937	5,088	6,046	1,637	50,492	14,300	5,559	951	26,435	8,196	189,907	43,662	220,813	23,178
TOTAL, 1921	11,932	4,850	5,715	1,363	51,114	14,955	4,073	769	27,680	8,674	201,068	49,376	208,050	22,999
1920	11,478	4,641	5,634	1,456	49,575	13,822	3,867	1,234	31,636	10,425	230,780	48,390	256,232	23,507
1919	10,984	4,378	5,271	1,427	47,792	13,626	3,594	847	22,294	6,122	194,105	43,070	230,129	21,186
1918	11,234	4,575	4,856	1,428	50,445	13,834	3,610	808	22,194	6,667	179,427	40,065	230,907	21,389
1917	11,440	4,651	4,773	1,388	51,459	15,277	3,298	733	26,354	7,340	179,549	41,502	217,295	21,663
1916	11,698	4,763	1,807	4,757	51,795	15,199	3,790	785	28,832	6,248	188,284	43,672	236,509	23,045
1915	11,706	4,740	1,484	4,924	52,532	15,396	3,807	727	27,829	7,929	178,524	39,694	216,817	21,296
1914	12,172	4,798	1,309	4,471	53,948	15,453	4,494	839	27,291	7,496	174,727	37,695	205,680	20,014
1913	12,414	4,716	1,307	4,430	52,397	14,763	2,519	463	27,234	7,171	176,091	35,361	199,480	20,178
1912	11,873	4,456	1,281	4,163	49,305	14,129	2,454	367	25,692	6,769	166,304	37,501	196,274	20,065
1911	11,700	4,599	1,062	4,031	47,750	13,749	2,160	369	25,692	6,769	166,304	37,501	196,274	20,065
1910	11,700	4,599	1,062	4,031	47,750	13,749	2,160	369	25,692	6,769	166,304	37,501	196,274	20,065
1909	11,919	4,614	1,143	3,865	44,690	12,947	2,524	468	27,637	7,710	166,451	40,872	207,283	21,296
1908	12,417	4,797	1,203	4,014	48,838	12,976	2,984	659	29,450	8,927	194,246	43,446	236,290	24,971

* Including some cases of cattle theft

JAILS

Jail administration in India is regulated generally by the Prisons Act of 1894, and by rules issued under it by the Government of India and the local governments. The punishments authorised by the Indian Penal Code for convicted offenders include transportation, penal servitude, rigorous imprisonment (which may include short periods of solitary confinement), and simple imprisonment. Accommodation has also to be provided in the jails for civil and under-trial prisoners.

The origin of all jail improvements in India in recent years was the Jail Commission of 1889. The report of the Commission, which consisted of only two members, both officials serving under the Government of India, is extremely long, and reviews the whole question of jail organization and administration in the minutest detail. In most matters the Commission's recommendations have been accepted and adopted by Local Governments, but in various matters, mainly of a minor character, their proposals have either been rejected *ab initio* as unsuited to local conditions, abandoned as unworkable after careful experiment or accepted in principle but postponed for the present as impossible.

The most important of all the recommendations of the Commission, the one that might in fact be described as the corner stone of their report, is that there should be in each Presidency three classes of jails: in the first place, large central jails for convicts sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment; secondly, district jails at the head-quarters of districts; and, thirdly, subsidiary jails and lock-ups "for under-trial prisoners and convicts sentenced to short terms of imprisonment." The jail department in each province is under the control of an Inspector-General; he is generally an officer of the Indian Medical Service with jail experience, and the Superintendent of certain jails are usually recruited from the same service. The district jail is under the charge of the civil surgeon, and is frequently inspected by the district magistrate. The staff under the Superintendent include, in large central jails, a Deputy Superintendent to supervise the jail manufactures, and in all central and district jails one or more subordinate medical officers. The executive staff consists of jailors and warders, and convict petty officers are employed in all central and district jails, the prospect of promotion to one of these posts being a strong inducement to good behaviour. A Press Note issued by the Bombay Government in October, 1915, says—"The cadre and emoluments of all ranks from Warder to Superintendent have been repeatedly revised and altered in recent years. But the Department is not at all attractive in its lower grades. The two weak spots in the jail administration at the moment are the insufficiency of Central Prisons and the difficulty of obtaining good and sufficient warders."

Employment of Prisoners.—The work on which convicts are employed is mostly carried on within the jail walls, but extramural employment on a large scale is some-

number of convicts were employed in excavating the Jhelum Canal in the Punjab. Within the walls prisoners are employed on jail service and repairs, and in workshops. The main principle laid down with regard to jail manufactures is that the work must be penal and industrial. The industries are on a large scale, multifarious employment being condemned, while care is taken that the jail shall not compete with local traders. As far as possible industries are adapted to the requirements of the consuming public departments, and printing, tent-making, and the manufacture of clothing are among the commonest employments. Schooling is confined to juveniles, the experiment of teaching adults has been tried, but literary instruction is unsuitable for the class of persons who fill an Indian jail.

The conduct of convicts in jail is generally good, and the number of desperate characters among them is small. Failure to perform the allotted task is by far the most common offence. In a large majority of cases the punishment inflicted is one of those classed as "minor." Among the "major" punishments fetters take the first place. Corporal punishment is inflicted in relatively few cases, and the number is steadily falling. Punishments were revised as the result of the Commission of 1889. Two notable punishments then abolished were shaving the heads of female prisoners and the stocks. The latter, which was apparently much practised in Bombay, was described by the Commission as inflicting exquisite torture. Punishments are now scheduled and graded into major and minor. The most difficult of all jail problems is the internal maintenance of order among the prisoners, for which purpose paid warders and convict warders are employed. With this is bound up the question of a special class of well behaved prisoners which was tried from 1905 onwards in the Thana Jail.

Juvenile Prisoners.—As regards "youthful offenders"—i.e., those below the age of 15—the law provides alternatives to imprisonment, and it is strictly enjoined that boys shall not be sent to jail when they can be dealt with otherwise. The alternatives are detention in a reformatory school for a period of from three to seven years, but not beyond the age of 18, discharge after admonition, delivery to the parent or guardian on the latter executing a bond to be responsible for the good behaviour of the culprit, and whipping by way of school discipline.

The question of the treatment of "young adult" prisoners has in recent years received much attention. Under the Prisons Act, prisoners below the age of 18 must be kept separate from older prisoners, but the recognition of the principle that an ordinary jail is not a fitting place for adolescents (other than youthful habituals) who are over 15 and therefore ineligible for admission to the reformatory school, has led Local Governments to consider schemes for going beyond this by treating young adults on the lines followed at Borstal, and considerable progress has been made in this direction. In 1908, a special class for selected juveniles and young adults was established at the Dharwar

jail in Bombay, in 1908 a special juvenile jail was opened at Alipore in Bengal, in 1909 the Miktila jail in Burma and the Tanjore jail in Madras were set aside for adolescents, and a new jail for juvenile and 'juvenile adult' convicts was opened at Bareilly in the United Provinces, and in 1910 it was decided to concentrate adolescents in the Punjab at the Lahore District jail, which is now worked on Borstal lines. Other measures had previously been taken in some cases, a special reformatory system for 'juvenile adults' had, for example, been in force in two central jails in the Punjab since the early years of the decade and 'Borstal enclosures' had been established in some jails in Bengal. But the public is slow to appreciate that it has a duty towards prisoners, and but little progress has been made in the formation of Prisoners' Aid Societies except in Bombay and Calcutta, though even in those cities much remains to be done.

Reformatory Schools.—These schools have been administered since 1899 by the Education department, and the authorities are directed to improve the industrial education of the inmates, to help the boys to obtain employment on leaving school, and as far as possible to keep a watch on their careers.

Transportation.—Transportation is an old punishment of the British Indian criminal law, and a number of places were formerly appointed for the reception of Indian transported convicts. The only penal settlement at the present time is Port Blair in the Andaman Islands.

Commission of Enquiry 1919.—A committee was appointed to investigate the whole system of prison administration in India with special reference to recent legislation and experience in Western countries. Its report published in 1921, was summarised in the Indian Year Book, 1922 (pages 670-671). A number of reforms were advocated but, owing to financial stringency, it has not yet been possible to introduce some of the more important of them.

Fines and Short Sentences.—Those sections of the Indian Penal Code, under which imprisonment must be awarded when a conviction occurs, should be amended so as to give discretion to the court. Sentences of imprisonment for less than twenty-eight days should be prohibited.

The Indeterminate Sentences.—The sentence of every long term prisoner should be brought under revision, as soon as the prisoner has served half the sentence in the case of the non-habitual, and two-thirds of the sentence in the case of the habitual, remission earned being counted in each case. The revision should be carried out by a Revising Board, composed of the Inspector General of Prisons, the Ses-

sions Judge and a non official. In all cases, the release of a prisoner on parole should be made subject to conditions, breach of which would render him liable to be remanded to undergo the full original sentence. The duty of seeing that a prisoner fulfils the conditions on which he was released should not be imposed upon the police or upon the village headman, but special officers, to be termed parole officers, should be appointed for the purpose. These parole officers should possess a good standard of education, though not necessarily a university degree, and should both protect and advise the released prisoner and report breaches of the conditions of release.

Transportation and the Andamans.—If any fresh attempt at colonisation is made, it should be in an entirely new locality. A fresh attempt at colonisation in the Middle Andaman is not recommended. The retention of the settlement at Port Blair on the present lines is not recommended. The entire abandonment of the Andamans as a place of deportation is not recommended. Deportation to the Andamans should cease, except in regard to specially dangerous prisoners and any others whose removal from Indian jails is considered by the Government to be in the public interests. The existing restrictions as to age and physical condition of prisoners sentenced to transportation to the Andamans should, unless special medical grounds exist in any particular case, cease to apply. The Indian Penal Code should be amended by the substitution of rigorous imprisonment for transportation. In provinces where the available prison accommodation will not permit of the immediate cessation of deportation of all but selected prisoners, the star class should be the first, and the habitual the last, to be detained in Indian jails. No female should in future be deported to the Andamans, and those now there should be brought back to India and distributed among the Provinces to which they belong. In those Provinces where the jails are insufficient to detain prisoners now deported, additional accommodation should be provided as soon as possible.

Criminal Tribes.—The first essential of success in dealing with the criminal tribes is the provision of a reasonable degree of economic comfort for the people. It is therefore of paramount importance to locate settlements where sufficient work at remunerative rates is available. Large numbers of fresh settlers should never be sent to a settlement without first ascertaining whether there is work for them. Commitment to settlements should, as far as possible, be by gangs not by individuals. It is desirable to utilise both Government and private agency for the control of settlements.

Jail Population.

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The variations of the jail population in British India during the five years ending 1922 are shown in the following table.—

	1922	1921	1920	1919	1918
Jail population of all classes on 1st January	126,917	118,250	120,183	122,158	115,589
Admissions during the year	639,001	593,348	578,109	696,668	605,242
Aggregate	765,918	711,598	698,242	818,726	720,831
Discharged during the year from all causes	631,628	584,681	579,992	698,591	598,673
Jail population on 31st December	134,290	126,917	118,250	120,135	122,158
Convict population on 1st January	106,117	100,541	101,617	100,220	95,468
Admissions during the year	185,091	178,056	168,572	200,442	166,303
Aggregate	291,209	276,597	270,189	300,662	261,771
Released during the year	173,313	167,403	166,184	195,164	156,378
Transported beyond seas	1,514	537	1,556	1,208	1,471
Casualties, &c	3,244	2,832	2,563	3,584	4,590
Convict population on 31st December	114,817	106,117	100,541	101,617	100,220

More than one-half of the total number of convicts received in jails during 1922 came from the classes engaged in agriculture and cattle tending, about 150,000 out of 185,000 are returned as illiterate.

The percentage of previously convicted prisoners was 13.21 as against 13.37 in 1921 while the number of youthful offenders fell from 417 to 366. The following table shows the nature and length of sentences of convicts admitted to jails in 1920 to 1922.—

Nature and Length of Sentence	1922	1921	1920
Not exceeding one month	38,028	38,661	38,706
Above one month and not exceeding six months	72,141	71,362	70,745
„ six months „ „ one year	37,177	32,356	31,915
„ one year „ „ five years	25,147	25,257	21,550
„ five years „ „ ten „	4,422	3,240	2,796
Exceeding ten years	645	428	227
Transportation beyond seas—			
(a) for life	2,193	1,439	1,277
(b) for a term	4,219	437	628
Sentenced to death	1,111	876	750

The total daily average population for 1922 was 120,788 the total offences dealt with by criminal courts was 890, and by Superintendents 126,967. The corresponding figures for 1920 were 99,641,735 and 127,595 respectively.

The total number of corporal punishments showed an increase viz., from 234 to 330. The total number of cases in which penal diet (with and without solitary confinement) was prescribed was 7,227 as compared with 6,037 in the preceding year.

Total expenditure increased from Rs 1,07,54,616 to Rs 1,94,20,232 and total cash earnings decreased from Rs 28,67,629 to Rs 26,34,877 there was, consequently an increase of Rs 28,98,937 in the net cost to Government.

The death rate increased from 20.36 per mille in 1921 to 22.13 in 1922. The admissions to hospital were higher, and the daily average number of sick rose from 28.32 to 39.42. The chief causes of death were tubercle of the lungs, dysentery and pneumonia.

The Laws of 1924

BY

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The Indian Cotton Cess (Amendment) Act—This Act amends the principal Act in two particulars. First, it provides for the levy of cess on cotton exported by land from British India to any foreign territory (sections 3 and 4). Secondly the power to collect the cess throughout the Presidency, which was hitherto vested only in the Collector of Bombay has been decentralised, and now vests in any of the District Collectors within whose district the Mill may be situated (section 2).

The Cantonments Act—The law governing Cantonments was to be found in two measures (1) the Cantonment Act of 1910 and (2) the Cantonment Code of 1912. To find out the law on a particular point, one had to look into both the measures. This was not very convenient to the executive officers, it was simply puzzling to laymen. The legislature has therefore, boded down the two enactments, and replaced them by the present consolidated Act of legislature. The main changes effected in the law are that the Government of the home affairs of every Cantonment is more municipalised than before. The old and familiar Cantonment Committee has disappeared and "Cantonment Board" has been constituted in its place. The members of the new board will, in some measure, be elected. Our friend, the Cantonment Magistrate, has gone for good, his place is taken by an "executive officer," but the new officer has been relieved of all judicial powers or functions. The Cantonment fund has now become the local fund vested in the Cantonment authority. The Military Authorities do still retain special powers as regards the health, welfare and discipline of troops. In short, new Cantonment Boards will be miniature municipalities or local fund boards. The Act starts off with definitions which are largely copied out from Municipal Acts (section 2). The Second Chapter aims at definition and delimitation of Cantonments. The Cantonment Authorities and Cantonment Boards are treated of in the next Chapter. There shall be a Cantonment authority for every Cantonment (section 12), and so also, an executive officer, appointed by Government (section 17). In some of the Cantonments there shall be also Cantonment Boards, which shall consist of (a) Commanding Officer of the Cantonment, (b) a First Class Magistrate, (c) the Health Officer, (d) the Executive Engineer, (e) Military Officers not more than four in number, and (f) as many elected members as to equal the members under (b) and (c) (section 14). The duration of a Cantonment authority is three years (section 15). Every member of it has to take an oath of allegiance on first taking office (section 18). The Commanding Officer of the Cantonment is the President (section 20), though the Vice-President

is to be by election (section 21). The duties of the President, Vice-President and the Executive Officer are defined (sections 22—24). Detailed provisions are made for election of members (sections 26—31). The qualifications or otherwise of members and servants are next described (sections 32—36). The rest of the Chapter is taken up with provisions for procedure at meetings (sections 37—55). Detailed provisions have been made for sale and possession of spirituous liquors and intoxicating drugs (sections 56—59). Chapter V contains rules for imposition and collection of taxes. Savings from the taxes go to make up the Cantonment fund which is defined in S. 106, which in its administration and vesting is likened to a local fund. It is within the power of the Cantonment authorities to enter into and perform all contracts under the Act (sections 112—115). The duties and discretionary functions of the Cantonment authority are more than ever likened to municipal obligations and enumerated in sections 116 and 117. The work that the Cantonment authorities may be expected to do is then described. The suppression of nuisances (section 118), the elimination of stray dogs (section 119), the regulation of traffic (Section 120) and the prevention of fire, etc. (sections 121 to 127) are the main amongst their functions. They are also charged with sanitation and the prevention and treatment of diseases. These include Conservancy and Sanitation (sections 130—144), burial and burning grounds (sections 145—149), prevention of infectious and contagious diseases (sections 150—170), hospitals and dispensaries (sections 171—176), control of traffic for hygienic purposes (section 177). It is also the function of these bodies to regulate construction of buildings (sections 179—190) to look after streets (sections 191—193), and to attend to boundaries and trees (sections 194—197). The regulation of markets (sections 198—201), slaughterhouses (sections 202—208), trades and occupations (sections 209—211) and import of cattle and flesh (section 216) form the subjects of their attention. The questions of water-supply (sections 217—226) and drainage (sections 227—234) are next dealt with. The Cantonment authorities are also armed with powers to remove and exclude any person from Cantonments to suppress sexual immorality (sections 235—240). Provision is also made for defining their powers and procedure is finally mapped out. A scale of penalties is laid down, and a scheme of appeals is provided for (sections 241—279). The Cantonment authorities, like their prototypes of municipalities, are given very wide powers to frame bye-laws on numerous subjects (sections 280—285). Thus, this Act furnishes a comprehensive Code of rules for the municipal Government of Cantonments.

Immigration into India Act—This is an Act of reciprocity aimed at those possessions of the Crown that do not give reciprocal advantages to Indian immigrants. It enables the Governor General in Council to make rules to secure that persons, not being of Indian origin domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges as regards entry into and residence in British India, than are accorded by the law and administration of such possession to persons of Indian domicile (section 3).

Central Board of Revenue Act—As recommended by the Indian Retrenchment Committee, 1922-23, this Act provides for the creation of a Central Board of Revenue, which not only absorbs within itself the present Board of Inland Revenue but also sweeps in Customs, Salt, Opium, Excise and Stamps so far as the Central Government is concerned.

Indian Penal Code Amendment Act—For the offences of kidnapping from lawful guardianship and buying and selling minors for purposes of prostitution, the age limit of the minor concerned was fixed at 16. It is now raised to 18 years. In other words, the protection as regards those offences is afforded to minors up to 18 years of age.

Criminal Tribes Act—This is purely a consolidating measure. It repeals and replaces five Acts of legislation. The local Government is competent to declare any tribe, gang or class a criminal tribe (section 3). The members of the tribe so declared are liable to be registered by a District Magistrate (section 4), and the register is to remain in the custody of the District Superintendent of Police (section 4). A member of the declared tribe may be called upon (a) to report himself at fixed intervals, and (b) to notify his place of residence (section 10). The Local Government have not only the power to restrict movements of criminal tribes (section 11), but also to vary specified area or place of residence (section 12) or to restrict or settle criminal tribe in another province (section 13). It has also the power of placing the tribe in settlement (section 16) or to place their children in Schools and to apprentice them (section 17). Wide rule-making powers are given by section 20, and penalties for breach are amply provided for (sections 21-24). A registered person found beyond the prescribed limits is liable to be arrested without warrant (section 25). Every village headman and village watchman is under an obligation to give information to authorities concerned of the failure of any person to give information on the departure of any registered member (section 24). No Court has jurisdiction to question the validity of notifications issued under the Act (section 29).

The Repealing and Amending Act—This is a measure of usual ventilation. It removes words and phrases that have become useless or redundant in existing Acts of legislation either by efflux of time or by virtue of other repeals and amendments.

The Indian Finance Act—Early this year, the Legislative Assembly of India threw out the draft of this enactment and declined to pass it into law. The Governor-General,

therefore, found it necessary to certify it under the powers reserved to him in that behalf. It keeps in tact the scale of certain taxes levied by the Finance Act of 1923. The inland postal rates and the rates of Income-Tax remain as they were.

The Sea Customs (Amendment) Act—This amendment carries out the recommendation made by the Indian Fiscal Commission that customs duty should be levied also on goods belonging to Government.

The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act—This Act remedies a leakage discovered in the Indian Tariff Act. It enables Government of India to levy customs duties on any articles imported or exported, as the case may be, by land from or to any territory outside British India which is declared to be foreign territory for the purposes of the Act (section 3).

The Indian Coinage (Amendment) Act—Under the present Coinage Act, whenever Government found counterfeits of any coin issued by it except the gold coin, it had the power to call in the coin. This meant that the coin ceased to be issued from Government treasuries and currency offices, but still the coin retained its capacity for circulation among the public. A new section (section 15A) is now added under which the Government can also deprive any coin of its legal tender. This means that the caller in coin loses its monetary value for internal circulation, though its possessor can get its money value from a Government Currency Office.

The Income Tax Amendment Act—Experience discovered four loopholes of escape in the provisions of the Income Tax Act. Clubs or Associations, which so far escaped taxation, are now brought under the Act. Similarly, private Provident Funds are now made amenable to the provisions of the Act. Section 25 of the Act has been so amended as to provide for the assessment of a business profession or vocation which was in existence at the commencement of the Act but on which no tax was charged under the Income Tax Act of 1918. A period of six months has been provided for an application by the assessee to the High Court for the issue of a mandamus under Section 66 (3) of the Act.

Indian Soldiers (Litigation) Act—This Act amends Section 11 of the Act of 1918, by substituting "is or has been" for "is."

Stamps (Specified Instruments) Act—In 1923 the Stamp Act was amended as regards Promissory Notes. Formerly, all such promissory notes were stamped with one anna stamp. Under the amendment, all promissory notes up to Rs. 250 in value must be stamped with one anna stamp, but those in value ranging from Rs. 250 to 1,000 were to be stamped with two-anna stamps (that is, the revenue stamps of 0 1 0 or 0 0 6 issued by Post Office), and all promissory notes above Rs. 1,000 in value became chargeable with four annas stamps (i.e., Revenue Stamps). The Act came into force on October 1, 1923. It would be too much to expect that the provisions became known to the man in the street whom it largely affected. A very large number of promissory notes continued to be passed on one anna

stamps irrespective of the value. They all became invalid and irremediable under the Amended Act. This Act is, therefore, passed to validate all such promissory notes passed between October 1, 1923 and December 31st, 1923.

The steel industry (Protection) Act—With a view to provide for the fostering and development of the steel industry in India, this Act has been passed. It enables the Governor-General of India in Council to levy protective duty of such articles of steel manufactured abroad and imported into British India as might render ineffective the protection granted to similar articles manufactured in this country (section 2). It also provides for the grant of bounties on steel rails and fish plates, at the following rates—Rs 32 per ton on manufactures completed up to April 1, 1925; Rs 26 at the same rate on those completed in the next year, and Rs 20 at the same rate on articles completed in the year following (section 3). It also provides for bounties of sums not exceeding seven lakhs of rupees in a year, for iron or steel wagons manufactured in this country (section 4).

Indian Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act—It has been held by the High Court of Bombay in *Emperor v. Sherston Baker* (BOMBAY LAW REPORTER, Vol. XXIV, page 50) that as the Act contained no provisions, the rule made by the Bombay Government regarding annual re-registration of motor vehicles was *ultra vires*. The Act is now so amended as to legalise the renewal of registration of motor vehicles on payment of requisite fees.

Indian Post Office (Amendment) Act—Recently the Indian Postal Department has introduced into this country the use of stamping machines. It enables the user of the machine to impress postal articles with a given number of impressions direct from a stamping machine in lieu of affixing postage stamps. This facilitates the work of persons who have a large number of letters to post. The object of this Act is to invest the machine impressions with the sanctity of postage stamps and to protect them from counterfeiting.

Imperial Bank of India (Amendment) Act—When the Alliance Bank of India failed some time ago, the Imperial Bank of India rushed to its rescue and proposed a scheme for the relief of its constituents. This, the Imperial Bank was unable to do, and sanction for the step was obtained from the Government of India. Even then the action of the Imperial Bank was called into question by a suit filed in the High Court of Bombay, but the suit failed in the Court of Appeal, and the action

was justified. A new Section (18A) has now been added to the Act, which empowers the Imperial Bank to intervene effectively, in financial crisis, for the purpose of either averting the winding up of any banking concern, facilitating the winding up of any such concern not only against its securities, but also against its assets generally.

Indian Criminal Law (Amendment) Act. The protection of minor girls against immoral surroundings has long been engaging the attention of the Legislature. The scope of Section 372 and 378 of the Indian Penal Code, which refer to selling or buying minors for purposes of prostitution, is much enlarged. It is no longer penal to sell or buy a person for the aforesaid purposes though the purpose of prostitution may not be carried out till such person attains majority. Two explanations are added to Section 372. The first one lays down that when the selling is to the keeper of a brothel it will be presumed, unless the accused prove the contrary, that the sale was with the intent that the minor would be used for the purposes of prostitution. A similar explanation is added to Section 373 also. The powers which Magistrates possess of restoring custody of abducted females, is now made to extend to minors of the age of sixteen (section 552 of the Criminal Procedure Code).

The Land Customs Act—There was so far no All India Act on land customs. Bombay had its local Act XXIX of 1857 and Madras had its own VI of 1844. Both these Acts were very old and experience had discovered a number of defects in them. The two local Acts are repealed and replaced by one all comprehensive India Act. Recently, a Central Board of Revenue has been constituted at Delhi. It will take charge of the land customs for the whole of India, and check effectively the extensive smuggling that has been going on for some time past over the land frontier in India. The machinery provided by the Act is first the appointment of Land Customs Officers (section 3), and secondly, establishment of land customs stations and determination of routes (section 4). It imposes the necessity on every person of taking out a permit who wishes to pass across frontier goods dutiable or not (section 5). Personal luggage of a person is entitled to pass free of duty (section 6). Any person who attempts to pass undutiable goods across a frontier is liable to pay a fine of Rs 50, and one attempting to smuggle dutiable goods can be penalized with a fine extending to Rs 1,000 (section 7). The goods, except personal luggage, cannot be allowed to cross a land frontier on public holidays or on days notified by the Chief Customs Authority (section 8).

Labour.

Various causes have combined to give added importance to the great group of human activities concentrated under the generic term of Labour. India is still a predominantly agricultural country and more than seventy per cent of its people are dependent on the soil for their livelihood. Nevertheless a process of industrialisation has gone steadily forward. Calcutta and Bombay are great manufacturing cities. Whilst the jute mills dominate Calcutta and the cotton mills Bombay, there has grown up round these industries a substantial body of other manufactures. Another considerable manufacturing centre has developed at Cawnpore, with cotton, wool and leather factories. The textile industry of Bombay has overflowed into the mofussil, and Ahmedabad and Sholapur are considerable centres of manufacture with a lesser one at Broach. In the Central Provinces the cotton mills of Nagpur are famous throughout India. The Province of Bihar and Orissa is the centre of the great coal mining trade, having absorbed the bulk of the coal mines formerly included in the Province of Bengal. It also embraces the most remarkable example of scientific industrialism in India in the works of the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur, where in what was jungle fifteen years ago a considerable city is springing up, which will produce over a million tons of steel a year, and house subsidiary industries which combined with the iron and steel works will probably maintain a city of a quarter of a million in the near future. The railway works of the North Western Railway form the core of the industrialism of the Punjab, where other manufactures, notably of cement, are developing. The industrial expansion in India may be judged from the number of factories coming under the operation of the Indian Factories Act of 1911 as amended by the Act of 1922 which amounted to 5,144 for the whole of British India. The number reported as working during the year was 5,026 or 98 per cent. The average daily number of persons employed amounted to over a million and a quarter and rose from 1,361,000 in 1921 to 1,266,000 in 1922. At the moment of writing no official figures are available in respect of the statistics for the whole of British India but it may safely be predicted that the number of factory workers at the beginning of this year must be very near a million and a half. The Governments of India are now each faced with a vivid and growing industrial question.

Social Consciousness

Side by side with this industrialization there has grown an increased social consciousness of the responsibility of the community towards Labour. The Government of India passed its first Factory Act in 1881 and amended it in 1891. But experience showed that these Acts permitted considerable abuses and largely as the result of the agitation raised by *The Times of India* in Bombay in 1905 against the excessive hours worked in the Bombay textile mills inquiries were set afoot which

resulted in the passing of a new Act which limited the hours of labour in 1911. With the constitution of the League of Nations, India as a signatory thereto became a participant in the decisions of the League on Labour questions. India was represented at the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919 and it became obligatory on her to enact legislation giving effect to the decisions of the Conference. Another International Labour Conference was held at Genoa in 1920 to consider a number of questions relating to seamen, such as the hours of labour, manning scales, accommodation, the provision for finding employment and other cognate questions and the Third and Fourth Sessions of the Conference were held at Geneva in 1921 and 1922. The Fifth Session of the Conference assembled on 22nd Oct 1923 and dealt with only one item of importance—factory inspection. The Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference was held in Geneva from the 10th June to the 6th July 1924. Forty countries were represented at the Conference. The agenda of the Conference comprised (1) Development of facilities for utilisation of workers' leisure, (2) Equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards compensation for accidents, (3) Weekly suspension of work for twenty-four hours in glass manufacturing processes where tank furnaces are used, and (4) Night work in bakeries. India was represented at all of these Conferences. In 1922 India was admitted as one of the eight countries of industrial importance after protracted examination of the grounds of her claim by experts appointed by the League of Nations. India, therefore, assumes responsibility for giving effect to the decisions of these Conferences. There has been a considerable extension of what is known as Welfare Work, and although this so far depends on the individual activities of employers of labour, the work is progressing well. Further there is the nascent Trade Union movement in India. This movement lies rather more on the surface than its deep roots, but it flares up in times of labour unrest and is nominally at all events focussed in The All India Trade Union Congress. The frequency of strikes, and the lack of any means to hasten a solution have given rise to careful investigation of the possibility of establishing Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration. The increase of industrial unrest in the winter of 1920-21 led to the stimulation of public interest in labour questions. The fact that several of the more protracted strikes occurred in public utility services strengthened the demand that some efforts should be made towards a solution of the problem. In nearly every strike or lock-out of importance which has occurred in the last three years there has been a fairly strong demand from some section of the public for reference of the points at issue to arbitration. The last few years have therefore seen a remarkable change in the attitude of the State and the community towards Labour, which under the more democratic constitution which now obtains is assured of a hearing in the Legislature.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY AND INSPECTION.

The conditions of factory labour until 1913 were regulated by the Indian Factories Act of 1881, as amended in 1891. The chief provisions of the amended Act were Local Governments were empowered to appoint inspectors of factories, and certifying surgeons to certify as to the age of children. A mid-day stoppage of work was prescribed in all factories, except those worked on an approved system of shifts, and Sunday labour was prohibited, subject to certain exceptions. The hours of employment for women were limited to 12, with intervals of rest amounting to at least an hour and a half, their employment between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. was prohibited, as a general rule, except in factories worked by shifts. The hours of work for children (defined as persons below the age of 14) were limited to seven, and their employment at night time was forbidden, children below the age of nine were not to be employed. Provision was made for the fencing of machinery and for the promulgation of rules as to water supply, ventilation, the prevention of over crowding, etc.

Hours Fixed

The next Factory Act was finally passed into law as Act XII of 1911.

The new Act extended the definition of "factory" so as to include seasonal factories working for less than four months in the year, shortened the hours within which children, and, as a general rule, women, may be employed, and further restricted the employment of women by night by allowing it only in the case of cotton-ginning and pressing factories. It also contained a number of new provisions for securing the health and safety of the operatives, making inspection more effective, and securing generally the better administration of the Act. The most important feature of the Act, however, was the introduction of a number of special provisions applicable only to textile factories. The report of the Factory Commission showed that excessive hours were not worked except in textile factories. The Act for the first time applied a statutory restriction to the hours of employment of adult males by laying down that, subject to certain exceptions "no person shall be employed in any textile factory for more than twelve hours in any one day." It is also provided in the case of textile factories that no child may be employed for more than six hours in any one day, and that (subject to certain exceptions, among which are factories worked in accordance with an approved system of shifts) no person may be employed before 5-30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. (the new limits laid down generally for the employment of women and children).

The Act of 1922

The acceptance by India of her obligation under the International Labour Conference of Washington in 1919 necessitated the further amendment of the Factory Act in 1922.

In the following pages it is intended to give the present law on the subject by combining

the act of 1911 with that of 1922. The Amendment Act of 1922 came into force on 1st July 1922, and it extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas.

Hours of Employment

Rest periods in factories—In every factory there shall be fixed,—

(a) for each person employed on each working day—

(i) at intervals not exceeding six hours, periods of rest of not less than one hour, or

(ii) at the request of the employees concerned, periods of rest of not less than half an hour each so arranged that, for each period of six hours work done, there shall be periods of rest of not less than one hour's duration in all, and that no person shall work for more than five hours continuously, and

(b) for each child working more than five and a half hours in any day, a period of rest of not less than half an hour.

(2) The period of rest under clause (b) shall be so fixed that no such child shall be required to work continuously for more than four hours.

Weekly Holiday—No person shall be employed in any factory on a Sunday, unless—

(a) he has had, or will have, a holiday for a whole day on one of the three days immediately preceding or succeeding the Sunday, and

(b) the manager of the factory has previous to the Sunday or the substituted day, whichever is earlier, given notice to the Inspector of his intention so to employ the said person and of the day which is to be substituted and has at the same time affixed a notice to the same effect in the place mentioned in section 36.

Provided that no such substitution shall be made as will result in any person working for more than ten consecutive days without a holiday for a whole day.

Employment of Children—With respect to the employment of children in factories the following provisions shall apply—

(a) no child shall be employed in any factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted under section 7 or section 8 showing that he is not less than twelve years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate,

(b) no child shall be employed in any factory before half past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening,

(c) no child shall be employed in any factory for more than six hours in any one day.

Employment of Women—With respect to the employment of women in factories the following provisions shall apply—

(a) no woman shall be employed in any factory before half-past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening,

(b) no woman shall be employed in any factory for more than eleven hours in any one day

Prohibition of Employment of Persons in two Factories on Same Day—No person shall employ, or permit to be employed, in any factory any woman or child or save in such circumstances as may be prescribed, any other person whom he knows, or has reason to believe, to have already been employed on the same day in any other factory

Hours of Employment to be fixed—The manager of a factory shall fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in such factory, and no person shall be employed except during such hours

Limitation of Working Hours per Week—No person shall be employed in a factory for more than sixty hours in any one week

Limitation of Working Hours per Day—No person shall be employed in any factory for more than eleven hours in any one day

Exceptions

Where it is proved to the satisfaction of the Local Government—

(a) that any class of work in a factory is in the nature of preparatory or complementary work which must necessarily be carried on outside the limits laid down for the general working of the factory, or

(b) that the work of any class of workers is essentially intermittent, or

(c) that there is in any class of factories any work which necessitates continuous production for technical reasons, or

(d) that any class of factories supplies the public with articles of prime necessity which must be made or supplied every day, or

(e) that in any class of factories the work performed by the exigencies of the trade or by its nature, cannot be carried on except at stated seasons or at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces,

the Local Government may, subject to the control of the Governor General in Council, by notification in the local official Gazette, exempt on such conditions, if any, as it may impose.

The system of inspection is being steadily improved by the appointment of more whole-time inspectors with good technical qualifications in the principal industrial centres

Further legislation is contemplated dealing with other important issues. A Bill is in preparation for the registration and protection of Trades Unions and the Government of India hope to be able to introduce a Bill early in 1924.

The Government of India have also decided to repeal the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act of 1859 with effect from 1st April 1924.

The Indian Mines Act 1923—The Indian Mines Act, 1923, received the assent of the Governor-General on the 23rd February 1923. It extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas, and comes into force on the first day of July 1924. By this Act the definition of a mine was made clear, and the weekly hours of employment were limited to 60 hours for work above ground and 54 hours for work below ground.

INDUSTRIAL HOUSING

In most industrial centres in India the question of proper and adequate housing is engaging the attention of all public bodies and governments to an increasing extent. Employers themselves are becoming increasingly alive to this burning question and whenever finances permit tenements are constructed for the housing of the workmen. In cases where housing is provided the amounts charged for rent are just sufficient to cover the interest charges on the capital outlay. In Bombay City, where the housing question was one of great difficulty a few years ago, the City Improvement Trust and the Development Directorate of the Government of Bombay have done much useful work in endeavouring to solve the problem. The scheme originally outlined by the Development Directorate for Industrial Housing aimed at a construction programme of 50,000 tenements providing accommodation for a quarter million people and to be completed within a period of eight years. This scheme was conceived in the boom period when labour conditions in Bombay were probably abnormal. By the end of September 1924 the Directorate had 5,120 tenements completely ready for occupation out

of which about 3,900 were let. The total number of chawls completely ready at the time when this section was compiled was 68, but 60 additional chawls with a provision of 4,800 tenements were also completed except for drainage and water supply. The Directorate have four schemes in progress at present consisting of 211 chawls containing 16,880 tenements. These are expected to be completed by the end of the year 1925. Government have decided that until these are completed no additional land is to be taken up for Industrial Housing and that no new schemes are to be embarked upon without Government approval.

The average economic rent of the chawls works out at Rs 14-8-0 per month per tenement without a *Nakasi* and at Rs 15-8-0 per month per tenement with a *Nakasi*. The average maximum rent fixed for the present, per month, for each tenement, with and without a *Nakasi* is Rs. 11 and Rs. 10 respectively. On this basis there is a loss of Rs. 24 per tenement and this is being met from the cotton cess.

The City Improvement Trust in Bombay have also made very good progress in the direction

of providing industrial housing. The Trust had a total number of 5,800 tenements ready at the end of March 1924 out of which 5,400 tenements were let for living purposes, 103 as shops, 51 as godowns and 15 as schools. 81 tenements were reserved for occupation by Mucodams, for offices and stores, and as Superintendents Quarters. The floor area of each tenement inclusive of a small verandah varied from 125 square feet to 176 square feet but the majority of the tenements were provided with the maximum floor space allowed. Three additional chawls providing a total of 811 tenements with a further increase in the floor space to a maximum of 185 square feet per tenement are expected to be completed by the end of 1924. The average rent for a tenement in an

Improvement Trust Chawl works out at Rs. 5-10 but the actual rents vary from Rs. 3-12-0 to Rs. 11-5-0. The maximum permissible population in adults for a total of 5,511 tenements has been fixed at 23,404. The actual population living in these tenements in January 1923 was 18,322 or 16,362 when equalised to adults. The average population living in these chawls during the year ending 31st March 1924 amounted to 21,953.

When it is considered that the number of industrial workers living in these chawls by the end of the year 1925 will amount to nearly 100,000, the progress made in connexion with keeping down the death rate of these classes in Bombay must be regarded as considerable.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Complete statistics in connexion with Industrial Disputes are not available for the whole of India. The increasing importance that is being attached to the weapon of strike by the workmen in this country may be gathered from the figures given below in respect of the industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency for which statistics have been collected during the year ending 31st March 1924. This was the

worst year in the history of Industrial Relations in the Presidency. Although the number of disputes only amounted to 64, the number of factories and industrial establishments affected was 199, the approximate number of workpeople involved 261,933 and the number of working days lost 10,237,923. The following table shows the number of disputes by localities and classes of concerns —

Locality	Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills	Railway Workshops	Railway Others	Others	Total
Bombay	42	2	2	11	57
Ahmedabad	20			1	21
Sind			1	4	5
Gujarat	2		1		3
Total	64	2	4	16	86

Out of these 86 disputes, four were general strikes two of which call for special mention on account of their magnitude.

The general strike in Ahmedabad which affected 56 out of 61 cotton mills in that locality commenced on the 1st of April and continued till the 4th June. The reasons of the strike were (1) the announcement that the millowners in Ahmedabad would reduce wages by 20 per cent. with effect from 1st April 1923 and (2) the alleged non payment by many mills of the bonus on the precise terms agreed on by arbitrators to whom a settlement of this question was referred. The number of workpeople affected was 43,113 and the total time lost amounted to 2,370,933 working days. This strike lasted for 64 days, the men were almost completely defeated and on the 4th June a compromise was arrived at by the terms of which (1) wages were to be reduced by 15 1/2 per cent. instead of by 20 per cent. and (2) the question of the interpretation of the last bonus award was to be again referred to arbitration. The President of the Millowners' Association also gave an assurance that wages would not be reduced again for at least six months from the date of the compromise.

The other and perhaps the largest of all industrial disputes in the Presidency was the general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay City at the beginning of the year

1924. It had its origin in the no bonus decision of the Millowners in Bombay. The men had been paid a bonus regularly for five years and had come to regard its payment as an annual affair. In view of its regularity it also came to be considered as deferred pay. The bonus was usually paid in the middle of January in each year along with the pay due for the month of December. When the bonus was not paid at pay time in January, the operatives of one mill demanded the payment of bonus on the 17th January and on its being refused went on strike. The strike fever soon spread and in about a week almost all cotton mills in Bombay had to close down. On the 22nd February 1924 His Excellency the Governor of Bombay appointed a Committee of Enquiry with the Hon. Sir Norman Macleod Kt., Chief Justice of the High Court in Bombay, as Chairman to enquire into the dispute. The terms of reference were (1) to consider the nature and basis of the bonus which was granted to the employees in the cotton mills of Bombay since 1919 and to declare whether the employees established any enforceable claim, customary legal or equitable, and (2) to enquire into the profits made in each year since 1917 with a view to comparing these profits with the profits made in the year 1923 and to report on the contention of the millowners that the grant of a bonus such as was given in previous years was not justified by the profit

of the mill industry as a whole in 1923. The findings of the Committee on these points were submitted to Government on the 11th March, and were (1) that the mill workers had not established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable to the payment annually of a bonus, and (2) that the results of the working of the mill industry as a whole for the year 1923 were such as to justify the contention of the mill

owners that the profits did not admit of the payment of a bonus. The strike, however, did not terminate till the 25th March when work was resumed in almost all the mills although with considerably reduced staff due to the fact that there was an almost general exodus of all up-country workers to their homes before the strike ended.

The number of workmen affected and the number of working days lost classified by localities and classes of concerns are set out in the two tables below —

Number of Workmen Affected

Locality	Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills	Railway Workshops	Railway Others	Others	Total
Bombay	202,298	5,560	181	5,068	213,107
Ahmedabad	46,220			25	46,245
Sind			91	929	1,020
Gujarat	1,328		223		1,551
Total	249,846	5,560	495	6,022	261,923

Number of Working Days Lost

Locality	Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills	Railway Workshops	Railway Others	Others	Total
Bombay	7,667,667	9,770	333	14,214	7,691,984
Ahmedabad	2,378,456			00	2,378,516
Sind			162	6,781	6,943
Gujarat	45,064		1,316		46,380
Total	10,121,187	93,770	1,811	21,055	10,237,823

The next table shows the cause of disputes by localities —

Locality	Number of disputes assignable to the following causes.			
	Pay	Dismissal or reinstatement of individual	Bonus	Conditions of work, discipline, etc
Bombay	33	16	3	5
Ahmedabad	5	7	1	8
Sind	4			1
Gujarat	3			
Total	45	23	4	14

Disputes regarding remuneration occupied the predominant position but disputes in respect of individuals which include both demands for dismissal of a particular individual and demands for the reinstatement of an individual by the employer account for a considerable number of disputes.

The following table summarises the results of disputes classified according to localities —

Results by Causes of Disputes

Locality	Result		
	Entirely favourable to the worker	Mainly favourable to the worker	Entirely unfavourable to the worker
Bombay	4	6	47
Ahmedabad	4	1	16
Sind	1	1	3
Gujarat		2	1
Total	9	10	67

It will be seen that in the Bombay Presidency as in other countries the majority of disputes ended unfavourably to the strikers. Out of

86 disputes, only 19 were settled in favour of the employees while 67 or nearly 78 per cent were settled in favour of the employers.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

Of recent years much attention has been paid to the settlement of industrial disputes. The baffling character of such disputes is that they are so often sporadic, breaking out without warning, grievances being formulated after striking instead of before. When such strikes occur there is no organised body of workers with whom to negotiate. The Government of Bengal took the leading part and in March 1921 appointed a committee which laid stress on the value of Works Committees and favoured the institution of Conciliation Courts to deal with disputes in public utility services. It also

favoured the appointment of a panel on which the Local Government could draw when constituting a Board to enquire into any dispute. The Bombay Government which had already explored the ground informally, appointed a similar committee in November 1921, which reported in February 1922. As this Committee surveyed the position in some detail, and its report constitutes the latest contribution to the discussion its recommendations are summarised below because they reflect the existing situation and are applicable with modifications to suit local conditions, to most industrial centres in India.

SUMMARY OF THE REPORT OF THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES COMMITTEE

The Industrial Situation—Industry in the Bombay Presidency is mainly confined to the three centres of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur with a factory population of some 200,000, 55,000 and 20,000, respectively.

Of the workers of Ahmedabad and Sholapur 44,000 and 20,000, respectively, are dependent on the textile trade. Those in Bombay may be divided into—

- (1) Textile operatives
- (2) Transportation service workers (including Railways and Docks)
- (3) Gas and electric light workers municipal employees, Mint and Government Press workers, customs, postal, telegraph and telephone employees and inferior Government employees generally

The Operatives—The general body of this working population was accurately described by Mr C N Wadia, C.I.S., in 1919, as 'agriculturalists first and agriculturists last.' They come to Bombay—as a rule without their families—and work till they have funds enough to

return to their villages. In the textile trade and amongst the general labourers almost all the operatives except the 'jobbers' and gangmen are of this migratory class. These remarks apply with almost equal force to the industrial population of Ahmedabad and Sholapur. In the workshop and in semi-clerical employment where skill or some education is required, there is however being formed a more permanent class of workmen who can almost speak of Bombay as their home. The standard of literacy is exceedingly low, not more than five per cent of the operatives class being able to read and write their own vernacular.

Characteristics of Strikes—Certain characteristics are common to most of these strikes—

- (a) The frequency of the strike without notice
- (b) The absence of any clearly defined grievance before striking.
- (c) The multiplicity and sometimes the extravagance of the claims put forward after the strike has begun.

(d) The absence of any effective organisation (except perhaps at Ahmedabad) to formulate the claims of the operatives and to secure respect for any settlement which may be made

(e) The increasing solidarity of employers and employed and the capacity of the operatives to remain on strike for considerable periods despite the lack of any viable organisation

The Prevention of Strikes—Amongst the employers of labour there are strong organisations and the present tendency is for them to become more and more representative, but employers' associations have not yet evolved any standard scales of wages and individual employers are usually ignorant of how their rates compare with the wages given by others. The uncorrelated raising of wages in one factory is almost invariably seized upon as a grievance in other factories of the same class, and instances of strikes caused in this way are within the memory of all. The attempts made to standardise wages on a definite principle have hitherto been largely ineffective.

Trade Unions—Amongst this heterogeneous labour force, there have in Bombay and Ahmedabad, gradually developed the beginnings of a Trade Union movement. In most cases the Unions are little more than strike committees consisting of a few officers and perhaps a few paying members around whom the rest rally in times of trouble. After work is resumed the union dwindles, and in most cases disappears. According to data published by the Labour office, Bombay, in the *Labour Gazette*, the number and membership of trade unions known to be actually in existence in the Bombay Presidency for the quarter ending September 1924 were as follows:—Bombay City and Island 8 unions with a membership of 21,659, Ahmedabad 7 unions with a membership of 17,200, and in other parts of the Presidency 6 unions with 8,883 members. The totals for the Presidency were, therefore, 21 unions with 47,242 members in September 1924 as compared with 19 unions and 41,646 members in September 1923.

The evolution of any means of preventing or adjusting strikes and trade disputes in such a floating and illiterate body, lacking any homogeneity, is exceedingly difficult and we put forward such recommendations as we make with full recognition of their indecisive character. In the forefront of these recommendations we place a wise and statesmanlike attitude towards the nascent Trade Union movement.

We are fully aware that the early days of a Trade Union movement are often full of difficulty. Strike committees arise calling themselves Trade Unions and demanding the privileges of Trade Unions without any means of discharging the responsibilities thereof. Sympathetic friends unconnected with the industry or any industry, and consequently knowing nothing of the special difficulties involved, spring into notoriety. Strike leaders appear claiming the right to bargain but with no power to make the bargain respected. But these are the growing pains of Trade Unionism, it is far better to treat than to inflame them. We therefore express the very sincere

hope that there will be, neither on the part of the state, nor of industry, any hostility to the free evolution of the Trade Union movement.

As soon as a genuine Trade Union organisation emerges it should be officially recognised as the channel of communication between employers and employed. We are strongly in favour of the compulsory registration of Trade Unions under a broad and generous Act. Such registration should ensure at least strict adherence to the elements essential to any substantial association of a definite code of rules, regular office bearers properly elected and an accurate register of subscribing members. But we are strongly opposed to conferring on Trade Unions any special privileges outside the ordinary law of the land or, on the other hand, any special responsibilities.

Most of our witnesses have agreed that Works Committees promise to discount that absence of personal relationship between operatives and employers, which is inevitable in large factories owing to the numbers of the men employed. We also agree that they may have an educative value among the operatives themselves.

Welfare Work—Next to Works Committees we place the large group of humanitarian activities known as Welfare Work. Here we wish to make an explanation. We were greatly impressed by the evidence which declined to accept the term 'Welfare' as accurately defining these energies and classed them as 'efficiency' work because they had such a direct reaction on the physical contentment and efficiency of the operatives, that economically they justified the expenditure thereon.

The Settlement of Industrial Disputes.—So far we have devoted our attention to a consideration of the means which will contribute to the prevention of industrial disputes, it remains to suggest the methods of settlement, when such disputes either develop irreconcilable differences between capital and labour or else become a menace to the community.

There are some who hold that the State has no right to intervene in industrial disputes. To that position we cannot subscribe.

But we are agreed that no outside agency, and in particular the agency of the State, should be used until all other means have been employed and failed, or unless it is invited by one or other of the parties to the dispute, or unless the situation is such that peace, order and good government are prejudiced. If such conditions should arise, then there should be formed an Industrial Court of Inquiry, to be followed, if necessary, by an Industrial Court of Conciliation. We deliberately place the function of inquiry first and separate from the role of conciliation, for we desire to avoid the facile opportunism which seeks to patch up an industrial dispute by proposing a compromise between the views of the two parties without going down to the economic principles which are at stake.

Constitution of the Court—The constitution of the Court should be as follows:—

(a) A chairman selected by the members of the Court from a panel maintained in the Labour Office,

(b) Three members representing the employers in the industry concerned,

(c) Three members representing the operatives in the industry concerned.

A bare majority of our number is of opinion that the public should not be represented on a Court dealing with an industrial dispute, but should be represented when the Court is inquiring into a dispute affecting a Government Department or a public utility company or corporation. Whilst we are divided on this point, we are unanimous in the conclusion, that when a Government Department, or public utility company, or corporation is concerned in an industrial dispute demanding the constitution of an Industrial Court the general public should be represented in equal proportion to the parties directly concerned. The constitution of such a Court would

then be —

(i) A chairman chosen from the panel

(ii) Three representatives of the Government Department, or public utility company or corporation concerned

(iii) Three representatives of the operatives

(iv) Three representatives of the general public

The special reasons which have induced us to recommend the representation of the general public in such cases, are that the whole cost of any increase in wages is at once passed on to the public either in increased charges for an essential public service or else in a diminished revenue to the State, which is taxation in another form. We recommend that the representatives of the general public should be selected from the panel of Chairmen.

TRADE DISPUTES LEGISLATION

The valuable suggestions made by the Committee have been considered both by the Government of Bombay and by the Government of India. On the 14th March 1923 the Hon. Sir Maurice Hayward, Home Member of the Bombay Government, made a statement in the Bombay Legislative Council to the effect that details were being worked out by the Government of Bombay in connection with the drafting of a Bill to give effect to the recommendations of the Committee, and that, as soon as Government were satisfied on these points, legislation would be introduced in the Local Council as early as possible after the sanction of the Government of India had been obtained. The big strike which occurred in the Bombay Cotton Mills on the question of the Bonus Dispute at the beginning of the year 1924, precipitated affairs and the Government of Bombay decided to introduce a Bill in the Local Council to provide legislation on this subject in the second session of the Council which met at Poona in July 1924. In accordance with this decision the Government of Bombay drafted a Bill for this purpose and this was published in the *Bombay Government Gazette* of the 30th May 1924. The Bill was a simple one and was meant in the first instance to cover manual and clerical employment. Persons working in the capacity of members of His Majesty's forces and Government servants were excluded. The main object of the Bill was the appointment of a Court of Enquiry to which any trade dispute that either existed or was apprehended could be referred to on the motion of the Governor in Council. The function of such courts was to enquire into the causes and circumstances of each such trade dispute and to make reports, interim or final, as the Court thought fit. The proceedings of these Courts of Enquiry were to be conducted either in public or in private as might be determined by a particular court. A second object of the Bill was to make provision for Voluntary Arbitration. Where a trade dispute existed or was apprehended the Governor in Council was to be empowered (1) to take such steps as might seem expedient for the purpose of enabling the parties to a dispute to meet together with a view to the amicable settlement of the dispute, or, if both parties consent, (2) to refer the matter

for settlement to the arbitration of one or more persons appointed by him, or (3) refer the matter for settlement to a Board of Arbitration consisting of one or more persons nominated by or on behalf of the employers concerned, an equal number by or on behalf of the employees concerned, and an independent chairman to be nominated by the Governor in Council. Panels were to be constituted from which the members of such Boards could be nominated from time to time.

In July 1924, the Government of India informed the Government of Bombay that as they considered that this subject was one for All-India legislation, the Government of India were themselves preparing a Bill for early introduction in the Legislative Assembly and that the Local Government should not introduce the Bill which it contemplated doing in its own Council.

The Government of India, prepared a Bill to make Provision for Enabling the Investigation and Settlement of Trade Disputes and this was published in August 1924. This Bill may be considered as being very wide and comprehensive in scope and extent. It covers all workmen including employees of the Government of India and of any Local Government. An important distinction is made between the general body of workmen by dividing these into employees in Public Utility Services and other employees. In the case of public utility services and in those services specially notified as such by the Governor General in Council, it is provided that it shall not be lawful for any employer to declare or enforce a lockout or for any workman to take part in a strike on account of any dispute unless due notice of the proposed lockout or strike has been sent to the prescribed officer. Such strikes or lockouts are not permitted until the expiry of thirty days after notice has been served in cases where no order has been made for reference of the dispute to a Board and until the expiry of ninety days after notice has been served in cases where such an order has been made or until the expiry of seven days after the publication of a report by a board whichever of the two dates may be earlier.

There is no separate provision in the Bill for Courts of Enquiry, Board of Arbitration or for Conciliation. The functions of these two separate institutions in Industrial Disputes legislation are vested in the Government of India Bill with one body which is to be called the Board of Investigation and Conciliation. The members of these Boards are to be selected from permanent panels of (1) representatives of employees, (2) representative of employers,

and (3) persons to be appointed as Chairmen. The Government of India and each Local Government are to construct their own panels. The functions of these Boards are to endeavour to bring about a settlement of any dispute by a thorough investigation of the circumstances and causes of each dispute. This Bill is expected to be introduced in the Legislative Assembly in the first session to be held in Delhi in the year 1925.

TRADE UNION LEGISLATION

On the 1st March 1921 Mr N. M. Joshi moved the following resolution regarding the Registration of Trade Unions in the Legislative Assembly—

"This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he should take steps to introduce, at an early date in the Indian Legislature such legislation as may be necessary for the registration of trade unions and for the protection of trade unionists and trade union officials from civil and criminal liability for *bonafide* trade union activities.

The Government of India accepted this Resolution after amending it in the following form—

"This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that it should take steps to introduce as soon as practicable, in the Indian Legislature, such legislation as may be necessary for the registration of trade unions and for the protection of trade unions."

In September 1921, the Government of India asked all Local Governments to address all public bodies, employers' and workers' associations and prominent persons within their respective territories to furnish their views, firstly, on the principle of such legislation, and, secondly, on the objects aimed at in similar legislation with particular reference to (1) Compulsory or optional registration, (2) the extent to which objects should be specified, (3) recognition of strikes, (4) the extent to which the domestic affairs of trade unions should be brought under the law, (5) recognition of political objects, (6) recognition of picketing, (7) age qualification, (8) protection of Trade Unions from Civil and Criminal Liability, (9) management of Unions, and (10) Trustees and Trust Funds.

The Government of India after examining the views of the Local Governments and the replies received from various bodies and persons prepared a Bill to Provide for the Registration of Trade Unions and in certain respects to Define the Law Relating to Registered Trade Unions in British India. This Bill has been circulated to the Local Governments for the purpose of obtaining the views of public bodies and employers and employees associations before it is introduced in the Legislative Assembly.

With regard to the question of registration, the Government of India are of opinion that optional registration affords the only sound basis for legislative action. The main anxiety of many of the advocates of compulsory registration

appeared to be to place restrictions on trade unions, whereas the objects which Government have in mind is to grant to trade unions a position in the eyes of the law which shall be at once definite and privileged. Compulsion would necessarily involve penalties for evasion and as the penalisation of the Unions that did not register would be both unjust and unequitable it has been decided to confine the privileges which such legislation will allow to registered unions only. These privileges include a considerable measure of immunity from civil suits and criminal prosecutions directed against trade unions and other members. Officers and members of trade unions who induce workmen to break their contracts with their employers will be saved from being sued in the Civil Courts and protection will be afforded from criminal liability by amending the law relating to conspiracy.

No direct restrictions have been placed in the draft bill on the objects which a trade union may pursue but it will be left to the Registrar to refuse registration to an organisation which chooses to claim the title of a Trade Union without including in the sphere of its activities *bonafide* trade union objects. The question of the inclusion of political objects among those upon which funds can be expended received careful consideration, and, following the great majority of the replies received, the Government of India decided to exclude such objects from the list of objects which Trade Unions would be able to draw up to define the scope of their activities. This, Government believe, will not prevent trade unions or their leaders from advocating political policies, but it will ensure that funds contributed primarily for trade union purposes are not expended on causes in which the bulk of the members have little interest.

The Bill makes adequate provision for safe guarding the rights and investments of members by ensuring (1) a regular audit of the funds of registered unions, and (2) a proper and effective control of their own affairs by the workers themselves by making compulsory a proper representation of the members of such trade unions on their executive committees. As regards picketing, the Government of India have not seen the necessity of imposing any general restriction on picketing and the Bill, therefore, does not make picketing which may be confined to systematic persuasion, and which does not degenerate into intimidation, illegal.

This Bill introduced in the Delhi Session of the Legislative Assembly held early in 1925.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 received the assent of the Governor-General on the 8th March 1923. The Act extends to the whole of British India including British Baluchistan and the Southall Parganas and came into force on the first day of July 1924. It contains two distinct parts Chapter II which lies outside the general scheme for compensation, contains provisions modifying the ordinary law in respect of employers liability and making it easier for injured workmen to sue their employers for damages in the Civil Courts. These clauses apply only to workmen, who come under the workmen's compensation provisions, so that, although they omit the limit to damages which governs their counterpart in England, they are not likely to be much used. Ten classes of workmen are covered by the bill. Some of these, such as members of fire brigades, telegraph and telephone lineamen, sewage workers and tramwaymen, are small, and as the definition of seaman is limited to those employed on certain inland vessels, only a very small proportion of Indian seamen will benefit by the bill. The five important classes are the workers in factories, mines, docks and on railways, practically all of whom are included, and those engaged in certain types of building work, notably the construction of industrial and commercial buildings, and any other buildings which run to more than one storey. The most important classes excluded altogether are agricultural workers and domestic servants. Non manual labourers getting more than Rs. 300 a month are excluded, except on the railways. Power is taken to include other hazardous occupations by notification from time to time. Compensation is to be given, as in the English Act, for personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of employment. It is also to be given for diseases in certain cases. The provisions for diseases have been so framed that if a certain class of workman contracts a scheduled disease, it will usually be extremely difficult for the employer to defeat a claim for compensation. On the other hand, other workmen will find it equally difficult to get compensation for disease, as they will have to prove that the disease arises "solely and directly" from the employment. The diseases scheduled at present are anthrax, lead poisoning and phosphorus poisoning, but the list is made capable of extension.

Scales.—The scales for compensation are more generous in every way than those originally suggested by Government, they are based on the unanimous recommendation of a Committee which met in June. Adults (i.e., persons over 15) and minors are distinguished through out and compensation is subject to upper limits in every case. For death the relatives receive 36 months' wages of the deceased workman, subject to a maximum of Rs. 2,500 if he was an adult

For a minor who is killed, the compensation payable is the fixed sum of Rs. 200. If a workman is completely disabled for life, he gets 42 months' wages if he is an adult and 84 months' wages if he is a minor, subject in each case to a maximum of Rs. 8,500. If he sustains permanent injuries that do not completely disable him, he gets proportions of the above sums, and for certain clearly recognisable injuries, like the loss of limb, these proportions are specific. Thus a workman, who lost his right arm below the elbow would receive 60 per cent of the sums specified above, subject to a maximum of Rs. 2,100. If his pay was Rs. 80 monthly, the sum would come to Rs. 756. All these payments are lump sums. Of much greater importance are the provisions for the minor and more common injuries. Statistics based on experience of industry generally in other countries indicate that 50 per cent of injuries from accidents cause disablement for not more than ten days, 44 per cent cause disablement lasting more than 10 days, but ultimately disappearing, 5 per cent result in permanent injuries and 1 per cent end fatally. A large proportion of cases will be excluded by the provision that no compensation is to be paid on account of the first ten days of disablement. The great majority of the remaining cases will fall under the scale for temporary disablement. The rate of payment for temporary disablement is half wages for adults and two-thirds wages for minors, subject to a maximum of seven years, and for minors, two-thirds wages or whole monthly wages after they have attained the age of 15 years, subject in each case to a maximum amount of Rs. 30, and to a maximum period of 5 years. This maximum of 5 years is not of great importance, as experience shows that the number of such cases which last more than six months is insignificant. During the first six months of these payments they can only be committed to a lump sum if both parties agree, after payments have gone on for six months, either party can apply for commutation. In its treatment of the difficult question of dependents the Indian bill allows only husbands and wives, parents and minor children to claim compensation and it makes the compensation a fixed sum independent of the number of those relations. The administration of the Act and the settlement of disputes is entrusted to special Commissioners, with a very simple procedure wide powers and restricted opportunities for appeals. The successful operation of the act depends largely upon the choice of suitable officers as Commissioners. All local Governments and administrations have, therefore, been addressed by the Government of India to consider the question of the appointment of Commissioners under Section 20 (1), of the Act.

WAGES IN AGRICULTURE.

There is much discussion, with no very definite conclusions, as to whether wages have kept pace with the cost of living. Conditions vary so markedly between Province and Province that it is difficult to give exact figures. Different Provincial Governments publish, from time to time, the results of Quinquennial Cen-

suses into the wages of labourers mainly in agriculture. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay published a Report in 1924 of an Enquiry into the Wages in Agriculture which gave the average daily earnings of three classes of agricultural labour, viz., skilled labour, ordinary labour, and field labour, in each of

the 26 districts of the Bombay Presidency, separately for urban areas and rural areas, and for each of 28 years from 1900 to 1922. The wages prevailing in other provinces for similar types of labour do not compare unfavourably with wages in the Bombay Presidency for any particular year for which a comparison is made. This statement requires an important qualification. It is not meant that the money amounts actually paid are similar. The rates of wages in different provinces vary according to the extent of their industrialisation and money wages in Provinces which are mainly agricultural are on a lower level than the money wages in Provinces which are highly industrialised i.e. in Bombay and Bengal. But there is no doubt whatever that wages have risen markedly in all parts of India during the last ten years and that the general condition of the Indian labourer has improved. The construction of a real wage index number is not always indicative of the general material condition of any group of workers. The utility of such an index number is only confined to a particular comparison with any given date, and provided always that the two sets of figures showing money wages and the cost of living at two particular dates are accurately compiled the real wage index number at the later date as compared

with the condition of the workman at the former date gives an accurate reading of the position of his purchasing power in comparison with that date. Indian publicists constantly aver that the condition of the Indian labourer to-day is worse than ever it was before. The true fact is that since wages and prices are both variables, "real wages" being a function of two variables, could only remain at the same level if the two factors vary proportionately. But this does not happen and wage changes always lag behind price changes. When prices rise real wages rise only slowly to the original level, and when prices fall real wages fall slowly. Consequently the labourer is sometimes better off and sometimes worse off. Comparison of conditions in India to-day with the pre-war year show that during this particular period the condition of the Indian labourers has undoubtedly improved. This is amply proved by the figures given below showing the index numbers of daily average wages of skilled labourers, ordinary labourers and field labourers, for urban areas and for rural areas for the Bombay Presidency.

Agricultural Wages (Nominal)

Index Numbers for the Bombay Presidency (including Sind) 1913=100

Year	Urban Areas			Rural Areas		
	Field labour	Ordinary labour	Skilled labour	Field labour	Ordinary labour	Skilled labour
1921	170	184	180	150	148	166
1922	189	192	195	170	162	179
1923	200	200	196	171	171	189

The construction of accurate real wage figures to correspond with the index numbers of nominal wages given above is not possible on account of the inapplicability of any general cost of living index number for a particular group of workers in a particular centre to the Presidency as a whole. But it is possible, however to calculate the rise or fall in the purchasing power of agricultural labourers in terms of the six principal food grains—Rice, wheat, jowari, bajra, tur dal and gram. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay has compiled composite index numbers for annual averages by

taking the monthly prices of each of these six foodgrains in each of the 26 districts of the Presidency. If these index numbers are applied to the nominal wage index numbers given above, a set of real wage index numbers is arrived at showing the purchasing power of agricultural labourers for the whole Presidency. These figures are of considerable interest.

Agricultural Wages (Real)

Real Wage Index Numbers for Bombay Presidency in terms of purchasing power for foodgrains only 1913=100

Year	Urban Areas			Rural Areas		
	Field labour	Ordinary labour	Skilled labour	Field labour	Ordinary labour	Skilled labour
1921	88	91	89	78	73	82
1922	107	108	110	97	92	101
1923	144	144	141	123	123	135

The above figures show that the condition of all agricultural labourers in India must have been bad with the high prices of 1921 three years ago. In 1923, prices fell considerably whereas wages showed a large increase. The result of this is apparent—a considerable improvement in real wages and a general improvement in the condition of the labouring classes. Some modification of the apparent rise in real wages would however be obtained if the prices of clothing and other non food articles were taken into the calculation. But this modification would not reduce the 1923 Index Numbers to below 100.

In the Cotton Mill Industry—An enquiry was held by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay into Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry for August 1923 which covered a total number of 251,219 workpeople in 186 mills in the Bombay Presidency and in the States within its territorial limits. The important results of this enquiry were (1) a decline in the number of children employed owing to more rigorous factory inspection under the new Factory Act, (2) an absenteeism figure as high as 10.4 per cent. for all work people, 9.2 per cent. for men, 14.7 per cent. for women, 9.8 per cent. for time workers, and 11.2 per cent. for piece workers.

(3) the average monthly earnings per head in August 1923 as compared with May 1921 were at the same level in Bombay, slightly over in Ahmedabad and lower in Sholapur, Baroda State and Other Centres in the Presidency. (4) the potential monthly earnings for all work people in the Presidency would have amounted to Rs. 32.1-0 per head per month had all work people worked for a full working month of 2 days at the rates of average daily earnings which prevailed in August 1923—the difference between this and the actual monthly earnings amounting to Rs. 3-8-0 or 12 per cent. (5) the total Wages Bill in the cotton mill industry in August 1923 amounted to Rs. 72,22,000 for the number of workpeople covered in the enquiry, (6) the average hours of labour per day amounted to 10 hours and 5 minutes for men, 9 hours and 35 minutes for women and 5 hours for half timers or children, (7) the number of holidays recommended in the Bombay Mills by the Millowners' Association during the year 1923 amounted to 37, and (8) except in Sholapur no bonuses were paid for service in the year 1923.

The following table shows the daily average earnings, per capita, of workpeople in different occupations classified according to age and sex groups—

		Bombay City	Ahmedabad	Sholapur	Baroda State	Other Centres
Mean—		Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
Jobbers	{ Time	2 15 2	2 1 6	1 10 10	2 4 11	1 14 8
	{ Piece	4 1 0	4 2 10	2 12 4	2 8 10	2 13 10
2 loom weavers	Piece	1 11 3	1 10 5	1 9 4	1 5 2	1 8 2
Mule Side Pieceers	{ Time	1 4 9	1 1 4	0 14 5	1 0 10	0 12 4
	{ Piece	1 7 2				1 0 7
Ring Side Pieceers	Time	1 0 4	0 15 6	0 11 1	0 12 4	0 10 7
Ring Followers	Time	0 14 4	0 11 10	0 8 2	0 7 3	0 9 3
Rulers	Piece	0 12 4	0 12 9		0 9 7	0 8 7
Winders	Piece	0 13 4	0 13 8	0 9 8	0 10 2	0 8 8
Drawing Frame Tenters	Piece	1 3 0	1 0 3	0 11 7		
Slubbing Frame Tenters	Piece	1 5 3	1 3 0	0 12 10	0 13 10	0 14 1
Intermediate Frame Tenters	Piece	1 3 11	0 13 11	0 12 3	0 14 10	0 13 6
Boying Frame Tenters	Piece	1 2 7	0 11 11	0 10 7	0 12 10	0 12 8
Women—						
Ring Spinning Side Pieceers	Time	0 15 2	0 14 11	0 9 10	0 13 2	0 12 8
Ring Spinning Followers	Time	0 12 7	0 11 0	0 7 9	0 8 5	
Rulers	Piece	0 12 6	0 12 7	0 6 0	0 12 4	0 7 4
Winders	Piece	0 13 3	0 11 10	0 6 6	0 7 7	0 9 1

		Bombay City	Ahmedabad	Sholapur	Baroda State	Other Centres
		Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
<i>Big Lads*—</i>						
Ring Spinning Side Boys	Time	0 14 2	0 12 7	0 9 9	0 5 7	0 3 7
Spinning Boys	Time	0 11 5	0 10 11	0 8 1	0 7 8	0 8 4
Roving Frame Tenters	Time	0 11 4	0 10 11	0 7 11	0 7 4	0 6 7
<i>Children—</i>						
Spinning †	Time	0 6 10	0 5 9	0 4 8	0 4 10	0 4 5
Roving	Time	0 6 9	0 5 9	0 5 2	0 5 0	0 4 9

* By "Big Lads" is generally meant boys between the ages of 15 and 18 but the term also includes men who are not considered as sufficiently bodied to be employed as men

† Children are workers, boys and girls, more than 12 years and under 15 years of age

OFFICIAL ORGANISATION.

When the importance of the labour movement forced itself on the attention of the Government it was found necessary to establish an organisation to deal with it. There was created with the Government of India a Labour Bureau, which collects information on Labour conditions, keeps in touch with Labour organisations in other countries, and systematically gathers statistics regarding strikes, lock-outs, wages and cost of living. Several of the Local Governments have set up special machinery for dealing with Labour issues, and there are Labour officers with the Governments of Bengal and Madras whilst the Bombay Government, on the advice of the informal committee whose recommendations have been mentioned above, constituted a special Labour Office in the Secretariat.

In a resolution of Government in the Home Department, dated 29th April 1921, the functions of the Labour Office were set out as follows—

(i) **LABOUR STATISTICS AND INTELLIGENCE**—These relate to the conditions under which labour works and include information relating to the cost of living, wages, hours of labour, family budgets, strikes and lock-outs, and similar matters.

(ii) **INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES**—As experience and knowledge are gained and the activities of the Labour Office develop, it will promote the settlement of industrial disputes when these arise, and

(iii) **LEGISLATION AND OTHER MATTERS RELATING TO LABOUR**—The Labour Office will advise Government from time to time as regards necessary new legislation or the amendment of existing law. The Labour office publishes

Gazette which is a journal for the use of all interested in obtaining prompt and accurate information on matters specially affecting labour in India and abroad. The address of the Labour office is—

The Old Custom House,

Mint Road, Bombay,

Director—Mr G Findlay Shirras, M.A., F.S.S. (Hony), J.P., I.C.S., M.L.O.

Officiating Director—Mr L. J. Sedgwick, F.S.S., I.C.S.

Investigators—Mr S. R. Deshpande, B.A., U. Litt (Oxford) Mr N. A. Meherban, B.A., Mr B. L. Umarvadia, B.A.

Lady Investigators—Mrs K. Wagh, Miss G. Pimpalkhare

LABOUR ASSOCIATIONS

ALL-INDIA TRADE UNION CONGRESS

Chairman—Mr D. R. Thengdi, Engineer, Nagpur (C. P.)

Secretaries—Mr F. J. Ginnwalla C-o Messrs Rustonji and Ginnwalla 5 Rutherford Street, Fort, Bombay, Mr N. C. Sen, 98 Beltholla Road, Kallighat, Calcutta

CENTRAL LABOUR BOARD FOR BOMBAY.

President—F. J. Ginnwalla, B.A.

123, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay

Secretary—S. H. Jhabwalla, B.A.,

123, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay

The names and addresses of the officials of other trade unions in the Bombay Presidency are published regularly every quarter by the Labour

Domestic Servants.

The relationship of master to servant in India is a subject to which attention is frequently directed in the Press by complaints about the alleged deterioration of domestic servants and the hardships to which employers are subjected by the boycotting action of discharged servants. The remedy most commonly propounded for misbehaviour on the part of servants is registration with a view to checking the use of false testimonials, or "chits," and to enabling masters to obtain certain information as to the character of the persons they employ. This mode of procedure is of German origin, for the old Prussian Servants' Ordinances (*Gesindeordnungen*) were supplemented in 1854 by a law, applying only to agricultural labourers and domestic servants, which punishes breach of contract, and since then various State laws dealing with domestic servants have been passed in Germany. The conditions are not, however, analogous for the servant keeping class in India is proportionately larger than in Europe, as also is the number of servants kept by each individual.

The first attempt in the East to deal with the problem by legislation was made in Ceylon. The act dealing with the registration of domestic servants in that Colony is comprised in Ordinance No 28 of 1871. It extends to all classes of domestic servants, hired by the month or receiving monthly wages, and the word "servant" means and includes head and under-servants, female servants, cooks, coachman, housekeepers and house and garden coolies. The Act came into operation in 1871 and empowered the Governor to appoint for the whole of the Island or for any town or district, to which the Ordinance is made applicable, a registrar of domestic servants, who is to be under the general supervision and control of the Inspector-General of Police. A registry is kept by the registrar of all domestic servants employed within his town or district, and he has to enter therein the names of all the servants, the capacities in which they are employed at the time of such registration, the dates of their several engagements and such memorandum of their previous services or antecedents as they may desire to have recorded in the register. But the registrar must, previous to his entering all these details, satisfy himself as to the credibility of the statements made to him. Any person, who may not have been a domestic servant before, but who is desirous of entering domestic service, has to submit an application to the registrar, and if the registrar is satisfied that there are reasonable grounds to believe that the applicant is a fit and proper person to enter domestic service he shall enter his name in the register, recording what he has been able to learn respecting the person's antecedents together with the names of any persons who are willing to certify as to his respectability. If the applicant is unable to produce satisfactory or sufficient evidence as to his fitness for domestic service, the registrar may grant him "provisional" registration, to be thereafter converted into "confirmed" registration according to the result of his subsequent service. If the registrar is satisfied that the applicant is not a fit and proper person he should withhold registration altogether, but in such a case he must report his refusal to register to the Inspector-General of Police.

Every person whose name has been registered in the general registry is given a pocket register containing the full particulars of the record made in the general registry. No person can engage a servant who fails to produce his pocket register or whose pocket register does not record the termination of his last previous service, if any.

On engaging a servant the master has to enter forthwith in the pocket register the date and capacity in which such servant is engaged and cause the servant to attend personally at the registrar's office to have such entry inserted in the general registry. Similarly, in case the master discharges a servant he must insert in the pocket register the date and cause of his discharge and the character of the servant. Provided that if for any reason he be unwilling to give the servant a character or to state the cause of his discharge he may decline to do so. But in such a case he must furnish to the registrar in writing his reasons for so refusing. If the servant on dismissal fails to produce his pocket register the master must notify that fact to the registrar. Whenever any fresh entry is made in the pocket register the servant is bound to attend the registrar's office to have such an entry recorded in the general registry. Every servant whose name is registered shall if he subsequently enters service in any place not under the operation of the Ordinance, attend personally at the nearest police station on his entering or leaving such service and produce his pocket register to the principal officer of police at such station in order to enable the police officer to record the commencement or termination of the service. The police officer has then to communicate it to the registrar of the town or district in which such servant was originally registered.

Various penalties of fine as well as of imprisonment are imposed for violation of any of the acts required to be done or duties imposed by the Act on the various persons mentioned below. As respects masters if they fail to fulfil any of the duties imposed on them by the Act they expose themselves to a liability of their being fined to the extent of Rs 20. Similarly a servant, who fails to fulfil any of the duties imposed on him by the Act is liable to pay a fine not exceeding Rs 20. But in case he gives any false information to the registrar or to any other person on matters in which he is required by this Ordinance to give information, he is liable to a fine not exceeding Rs 50 or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding 3 months. A fee of 25 cents is charged to the master on engaging a new servant, a like fee of 25 cents is charged to the servant on his provisional registration, or on registration being confirmed, or for registration of previous service or antecedents. But in case of loss or destruction of the pocket register the servant has to pay one rupee for the issue of a duplicate pocket register.

A similar Ordinance (No 17 of 1914) has been introduced in the Straits Settlements, where its operation has been limited to such local areas as may be declared by the Governor in Council, and its application within such areas has been restricted to the class of householders who are expected to derive the benefit of the provisions

Routes between India and Europe.

The Indian port for the direct journey to and from Europe is Bombay. There are ordinarily five lines of steamers by which the journey to and from the West via Bombay can be performed, either by sea all the way, or—and in some cases only—by sea part of the way and by rail across Europe. They are the P & O, the Anchor Line, the City and Hall Line, the Lloyd Triestino and the British India line. The Natal line steamers are available for Western passages only, the steamers sailing round the Cape on their Eastward voyages. There are ordinarily other services between Calcutta and

the West, by steamers sailing round Ceylon, and several lines connect Colombo with Europe. Of the latter the Orient, the Messageries Maritimes, the Bibby Lines, N Y K, Australian Commonwealth, & Royal Dutch Lines are the chief besides the P & O. The Bibby and Henderson services extend to Rangoon. The new railway between India and Ceylon greatly increases the importance of the Colombo route for Southern India. The shortest time between London and Bombay is 15 days via Marseilles. The following are the fares which are convertible at approximately current rates of exchange —

Peninsular and Oriental S. N. Co

FARES FROM BOMBAY OR KARACHI		1st Saloon			2nd Saloon.	
		A Rate £	B Rate £	C Rate £	A Rate £	B Rate £
Free passages (single and return) are granted between Karachi and Bombay by British India Steamer						
To Plymouth or London by sea, Single		90	80	70	60	54
" " Return		157	140	122	105	93
To Marseilles, Single		82	72	62	56	50
" Return		143	126	108	98	80
To " Malta or Gibraltar, Single		86	76	66	58	52
" " Return		150	133	115	101	91
FROM CALCUTTA		70			56	.

By the **British India S N Co.** fares to London by sea from Bombay or Madras are — single 1st saloon £86, 2nd saloon £52. Return £116 and £91. Bombay to Marseilles £80, and 2nd saloon £48. Return £105 and £84.

By the **Anchor Line** fares to Liverpool from Bombay or Karachi are — 1st saloon £80 single and £105 return. To Marseilles — £56 and (return from Liverpool) £101.

By **Hillerman's "City" and "Hall Lines"** fares from Bombay or Karachi to Liverpool, 1st saloon are —

Single £64, return £112
2nd saloon single £43, return £84
From Bombay or Karachi to Marseilles, 1st saloon single £60, return £105
2nd saloon single £45, return £79
Calcutta to London
1st saloon single £68, return £119
2nd saloon single £52, return £91

By **Bibby Line** fares from Rangoon to London

1st saloon single £76
1st saloon return £132
Rangoon to Marseilles 1st saloon single £68

Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon return £120

The **Bibby Line** fares from Colombo are as follows —

Colombo Marseilles single £58
Colombo Marseilles return £101
Colombo London single £86
Colombo London return £115
Colombo Marseilles returning from Liverpool, or, London returning from Marseilles £109
The **Bibby Line** steamers carry 1st class passengers only

By **Henderson Line** fares from Rangoon to Liverpool, 1st saloon are — single £95, return (available for 4 months) £100, (available for 2 years) £117

By **Lloyd Triestino Line** fares from Bombay or Karachi to Brindisi, Venice or Trieste are — 1st class £62, 2nd class £52. Return rates available for 2 years at one and three-fourth fares.

The **Lloyd Triestino** in conjunction with the **Marittima Italiana** are now running in addition to the above a fortnightly service between Bombay Naples and Genoa, fares as above.

INDIAN TRAIN SERVICE.

The distances and railway fares from Bombay to the principal centres of other parts of India are as follow —

	Miles	1st Class	2nd Class
Delhi, B B & C I Railway, via new Nagda-Mutta direct route	865	Rs a 106 8	Rs a 52 12
Delhi, G I P Railway, via Agra	957	105 8	52 12
Simla via Delhi	1,137	151 14	77 7
Calcutta, G I P from Bombay, via Jubbulpore & Allahabad	1,849	150 14	75 8
Calcutta, G I P from Bombay, via Nagpur	1,223	142 14	71 8
Madras, G I P from Bombay, via Raichur	704	112 0	55 15
Lahore, via Delhi	1 162	142 10	71 5

THE SUEZ CANAL

At the General Meeting of the Suez Canal Company, held in June, 1924, the Chairman said that the progress of the shipping traffic which they had recorded since 1919 continued last year, and the net tonnage was nearly 10 per cent more than that of 1923. This constant improvement occurring in spite of economic circumstances of all kinds which had affected the post-war years was a remarkable fact, a splendid testimony to the soundness of the under taking.

Under the double influence of the growth of traffic and of the increased proceeds from the transmission of funds from Egypt and England to France, the profits for the year had proved to be considerably larger than those of the previous year, enabling the board to consider an important increase of the dividends. Accordingly they proposed to fix the net income on each share of the capital at 430f. This was a satisfactory result, but, as was stated last year, it should be borne in mind that the increased dividend, as compared with the figure reached ten years ago, was nothing but the equivalent, and they might say, the expression of the depreciation of the franc. Now this depreciation, the manifest excessiveness of which all of them had deplored, very fortunately tended to be reduced. Thus it was important to provide against the effects that the stabilization of the franc might have on their nominal receipts. For this reason the board thought they should put to the extraordinary reserve created in 1920 a sum of 20 millions for the future, even if the rate of exchange of the pound sterling should become lower, would thus be rendered more secure.

Conforming to the liberal principles which had always been held, they, in view of the growth of traffic during the year, had lowered the transit dues by 25 centimes as from January 1. They were, in fact, still convinced

still weighed heavily on the maritime transport industry, and consequently favouring thereby the development of navigation, they had served the shareholders own interests not less than those of the shipowners.

Financial Position—The total receipts for the year 1923 amounted to 419,250,419 65f., showing, as compared with those of the year 1922, an increase of 113,794,810 93f.

The excess of receipts over expenditure in 1923 after deductions for depreciation and other charges, was 285,690 893f. and with the balance from the previous year the total available for distribution was 257 797,319f. After the payment of the proposed dividends the sum remaining is 23,735,347f., of which 20,000,000f. is to be added to the Extraordinary Reserve Fund constituted in 1920. The balance to be carried forward is therefore 3,735,347f.

Transit and Navigation—The number of vessels which passed through the canal in 1923 was 4,621, representing 22,730,162 tons gross. Vessels flying the British flag number 2,339, with a net tonnage of 14,264,214. Dutch vessels were the second largest users of the canal, their number was 451 and net tonnage 2,178,058. French vessels came third in the list with 259 and net tonnage 1,294,400. Fourth place in point of tonnage was taken by German vessels, of which there were 247, with net tonnage 1,218,691. Italian vessels numbered 256, with net tonnage 1,042,764.

Among British users, the P and O group of companies occupied the first place, with 2,421,000 tons, the Elderman lines the second place with 1,726,000 tons. The British Tanker Company was third, with 1,559,000 tons, and Messrs Alfred Holt and Co (Ocean Steamship Company and China Mutual Steam Navigation Company) fourth with 1,506,000 tons. The number of passengers who passed through the canal in 1923 was 246,331, as compared with 275 031 for the previous year.

Improvement Schemes.—It was announced in 1914 that from and after January 1st, 1915, the maximum draught of water allowed to ships going through the Suez Canal would be increased by 1ft, making it 80ft English.

The maximum permissible draught of ships using the Canal was 24 4 feet in 1870, in 1890 ships drawing 25 4 feet could make the passage, and during the following 24 years the increase has been at the average rate of about 1 foot every six years, thus bringing the maximum draught authorised to 29 feet.

The scheme of improvement adopted by the Company on the recommendation of the International Consultative Committee of Works, the British representatives on which are Sir William Matthews and Mr Anthony Lister, is a comprehensive one, and the details suggest that it will meet the needs of the big ship.

A 40 feet Channel.—The declared policy of the Canal Company in regard to the deepening of the Canal is to offer a slightly greater depth of water than that available in ports east of Suez. It is claimed that, with the exception of Sydney, there is no eastern port which at low tide has a greater depth of water than that now provided in the Canal throughout the full length of nearly 105 miles. In any case the work in hand should meet the needs of any ship likely to be built for the eastern trade during the next few years.

When the Canal was opened in 1869 the width was 72 feet and the depth about 28 feet 2 inches. In June, 1913, the width at a depth of 32 feet 8 inches had been increased to a minimum of

147 feet 6 inches over a length of about 86 miles and to a width of 328 feet over a distance of about 30 miles. The latest scheme makes provision for a depth of 40 feet throughout and for a widening up to 196 feet 8 inches in the south section, and the cutting of an appropriate number of sidings in the north and central sections, where a minimum width of 147 feet 6 inches is believed to be sufficient for the requirements of the immediate future.

The work of enlarging the capacity of the Canal presents no special difficulty on the engineering side. A good deal of sand is occasionally driven into the channel at Port Said during storms, but a remedy for this will be found in extension of the west breakwater by about 2,700 yards at a cost of over £6,000,000. The construction of this extension, which has been in hand for the past two years, is making satisfactory progress. The Suez Roads are being adequately dredged in accordance with an agreement between the Egyptian Government and the Company.

Almost up to the end of 1915 the works for extending the jetty to the west of Port Said, works of capital importance for the protection of the entry to the Canal, were pushed on uninterruptedly. In November, however, for want of hydraulic lime, the manufacture of artificial rocks for this jetty was interrupted. The submarine foundations in stone and rubble of the new jetty were, as a matter of fact, completed to a length of 2,500 metres, the protective blocks were laid for 1,040 metres, and cemented for over 800 metres. The protection of the Channel is thus secured, and there is no need for any apprehension as to its future.

Travel in India.

Thirty years ago a tour in India was possible only to the wealthy, the leisured and those who had friends in the country. The cost of the journey was very high, the methods of transportation were very slow, and the facilities for travel were so indifferent that he was a bold man who consigned himself to the mercies of the country without a sheet of letters of introduction. Now the mail which is posted in London on Thursday night, reaches Bombay in 14 days, and the passenger can travel by the same route and with the same speed as the mail. A dozen lines have covered the sea route between Europe and India and Ceylon with a plethora of regular services. The Indian Railways provide facilities on the trunk lines unsurpassed by the *trains-de-luxe* of Europe, and the Indian hotel has grown into a really comfortable caravan serai,

In the touring season, which extends from November to March, there is the attraction of a perfect climate. It is never very hot, in the North indeed it is really cool, it is always fine and fresh and bracing. If there is one country in the world to which that elusive term applies, here we have it at the season when the tourist arrives the real "Indian summer." Then there is its infinite variety. India is in no sense a nation and never will be. Its peoples are wide as the Polos asunder, each has its own art, its own architecture, its own customs and its own civilisation. A certain superficial resemblance runs through each, beneath lies a never-ending variety which age cannot wither nor custom stale.

The Grand Tour.—People come to India for the first time so often ask—Where shall I go? Well, wherever else the tourist may go whatever else he should leave out, he should

omit nothing on the Grand Tour. It is the foolish custom nowadays to sneer at those who follow the beaten tracks, but the visitor who shuns any part of the orthodox journey across India misses what nothing else can repay. Bombay is by far the most convenient point of departure, for here "the world end steamers wait," here is one of the finest cities in the British Empire, and here the traveller can best complete his outfit and arrangements. From Bombay stretch northwards the two great trunk lines of India. One, the **Bombay Baroda & Central India Railway**, leads through the pleasant garden of Gujarat to Ahmedabad, the ancient Moslem capital of the Province containing fine examples of Mahomedans and Jain architecture, thence to Abu for the famous Jain temples of Dilwara, and on to Ajmere, Jaipur and Agra. The other by the **Great Indian Peninsula Railway** carries the tourist over the Western Ghats by a superb mountain railway to Gwalior, whose rock fortress rises like a giant battlement from the plain, and so on to Agra. Of the glories of the Taj Mahal, Agra Fort, and the deserted city of Fatehpur Sikri it were supererogatory to speak. Another easy stage leads to Delhi that amazing collection of cities, dominated by the little Ridge where British valour kept the mutinous hordes at bay, and finally drove them from the city by a feat of arms unsurpassed in history. Then from Delhi the East Indian line leads comfortably to Benares, Lucknow and Calcutta with the opportunity of an excursion to Cawnpore, if the spirit moves

The great charm of the Grand Tour is that it reveals the best that India can show. This route has the additional advantage that it fits in with any dispositions which the time and purse of the traveller may permit. No one who can spare the time should fail to push northwards from Delhi to Peshawar, where the fower of the army keeps watch and ward over the Khyber, and up the dread Pass to the eyrie where the fort of Ali Masjid bars the way to all invaders. Calcutta is the best starting point for Darjeeling, though unfortunately the magnificent mountain panorama visible from there is often obscured at this season by mists. Then from Calcutta two alternatives open. A fine service of mail steamers leads to Burma, and one of the unforgettable memories of the East is a voyage down the Irrawaddy from Bhamo or Mandalay to Prome. Again, either direct from Calcutta, or *via* Burma, is an easy route to Madras and by way of Madras and Trichinopoly, with their peerless Hindu temples, back to Bombay, or on through Tuticorin to Colombo. But indeed the possibilities of expanding this tour are endless. Bombay is the best centre for the rock temples of Elephanta, Kamberi, Karli, Ellora and Ajanta. Calcutta is only a short distance from Puri the one Indian temple where there is no caste, and perhaps the most remarkable Hindu temple in the country. From Calcutta also start the river steamers which thread the steamy plains of Bengal and run to the tea gardens of Assam.

SPECIMEN TOURS.

A number of specimen tours in India are given below. They are taken from one of Messrs. Thos. Cook & Son's publications, from which firm further information may be obtained. The traveller will also find he can obtain assistance from the principal Shipping Agents and Railway Companies, or from Messrs. Cox & Co., Messrs. Grindlay & Co., and Lloyd's Bank.

	1st Class	2nd Class Rail, 1st Class Steamer.
FROM BOMBAY TO CALCUTTA.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces to Calcutta (including side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling)</i>	Rs. s.	Rs. s.
TOUR I. —From Bombay per B B & C I Railway <i>via</i> Ahmedabad, Abu Road (for Mount Abu), Ajmer, Jaipur, Delhi, Agra, Cawnpore, Lucknow and Benares to Calcutta, thence to Darjeeling, and back to Calcutta.	806 12	154 2
TOUR II. —From Bombay per G I. P. Railway <i>via</i> Itanri, Gwalior, Agra, Delhi, Tundla Junction, Cawnpore, Lucknow and Benares to Calcutta, thence to Darjeeling, and back to Calcutta.	309 9	155 7

	1st Class.	2nd Class Rail, 1st Class Steamer
FROM BOMBAY TO COLOMBO		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces, Calcutta and Southern India to Colombo (including side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling)</i>		
TOUR III.—From Bombay as in Tour No I (via B B & C I Ry, Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence via Khurda Road, for Puri (Jugganath), Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madras, Danushkodi and Talaimannar to Colombo	513 2	250 0
TOUR IV.—From Bombay as in Tour No II (via G I P Ry, Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence as in Tour No III to Colombo (via Southern India)	515 15	250 6
<i>Via the North-West Provinces, Calcutta (including Darjeeling), Burma and Southern India</i>		
TOUR V.—From Bombay as in Tour No I (via B B & C I Ry, Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon, Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon, British India Steamer to Madras, Rail via Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madras to Danushkodi, Steamer to Talaimannar and Rail to Colombo	710 0	463 0
TOUR VI.—From Bombay as in Tour No II (via G I P Ry, Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, thence as in Tour No V to Colombo	722 0	469 0
FROM BOMBAY TO RANGOON		
<i>Via the North West Provinces and Calcutta to Rangoon (including a tour in Burma, also including a side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling)</i>		
TOUR VII.—From Bombay as in Tour No I (via B B & C I Ry, Jaipur and the North West Provinces) to Calcutta side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon, Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon	526 0	320 0
TOUR VIII.—From Bombay as in Tour II (via G I P Ry, Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon. Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy, Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon	529 0	322 0
FROM CALCUTTA TO BOMBAY		
<i>Via the North West Provinces</i>		
TOUR IX.—From Calcutta via Benares, Lucknow, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Delhi, Bawari, Jaipur, Ajmer (for Udaipur), Abu Road (for Mt. Abu), Ahmedabad and Baroda to Bombay	205 0	103 0
TOUR X.—From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Delhi, Bawari, Jaipur, Ajmer (for Udaipur), Abu Road (for Mt. Abu) Ahmedabad and Baroda to Bombay	192 0	96 0
TOUR XI.—From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Gwalior and Itarsi to Bombay	169 0	84 8
TOUR XII.—From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Delhi, Muttra, Agra, Gwalior and Itarsi to Bombay	191 0	95 8

	1st Class	2nd Class Rail, 1st Class Steamer
CIRCULAR TOUR FROM CALCUTTA.		
TOUR XIII —From Calcutta <i>via</i> Benares, Lucknow, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Bandikui, Jaipur, Delhi, and Allahabad to Calcutta	Rs 235 0	Rs 117 8
<i>Extensions, Via Southern India to Colombo</i>		
TOUR XIV —From Bombay <i>via</i> Poona, Hyderabad, Wadi, Rajchur, Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Danushkodi, and Talaimannar to Colombo	296 0	104 0
TOUR XV —From Bombay <i>via</i> Poona, Hyderabad, Wadi, Guntakal, Bangalore, Erode, Trichinopoly, Madura, Danushkodi, and Talaimannar to Colombo	205 0	103 0
<i>Extensions to above Tours</i>		
From Ajmer to Udaipur and return	46 4	23 2
From Abu Road to Mount Abu and return, one seat in motor (This excursion is strongly recommended, the scenery being very beautiful)	27 0	.
From Delhi to Lahore and return <i>via</i> Umballa and Amritsar	75 9	37 13
From Delhi <i>via</i> Bhatinda, Ferozepore to Lahore returning <i>via</i> Amritsar Umballa to Delhi	75 9	37 13
From Calcutta to Darjeeling and return	104 4	52 4
From Colombo to Kandy and return	18 4	10 3
From Kurda Road to Puri (Jagannath) and return	7 12	8 14

(All fares subject to change without previous notice)

HOTELS IN INDIA, BURMA, CEYLON AND MALAYA.

AGRA—Cecil Laurie's Great Northern, Metro pole	MURREE—Viewforth
AMMADABAD—Grand	MUSGOORIE—Cecil, Charleville, Hakman's
ALLAHABAD—Central, Grand	Grand, Savoy
BANGALORE—Cubbon, West End	NAINI TAL—Grand, Metropole, Royal
BENARES—Clark's, de Paris	PESHAWAR—Deans Hotel
BOMBAY—Apollo, Carlton, Grand, Majestic, Taj Mahal, Watson's	POONA—Connaught House, Napier, Poona
CALCUTTA—Continental, Grand, Great Eastern, Spence's	RAJPORE—Carlton
CAWNPORE—Civil and Military	RAWALPINDI—Flashman's
COONPOOR—Glenview	SECUNDERABAD—Montgomery's
DARJEELING—Grand (Rockville), Mount Everest Park	SIMLA—Cecil, Grand
DELHI—Cecil, Elysium, Maidens	SRINAGAR (Kashmir)—Nedou's
GWALIOR—Grand	SHIVAPURI—Shivapuri
GULMARG (Kashmir)—Nedou's	UDAIPUR—Udaipur
JAIPUR—Jaipur, Kaiser Hind, New	
JUBBULPORE—Jackson's	Burma
KARACHI—Carlton, Bristol, Killarney, North Western	RANGOON—Allandale, Minto Mansions, Royal
KHANDALLA—Khandalla	MANDALAY—Gambles Hotel
KODAIKANAL—Lakeview	
KURSEONG—Clarendon	Ceylon
LAHORE—Falkus's, Nedou's	ANURADHAPURA—Anuradhapura
LANOUILL—Hamilton	BANDARAWELA—Bandarawela Grand
LUCKNOW—Carlton, Civil and Military, Hiltons Royal	COLOMBO—Bristol, Galle, Grand Oriental
MADRAS—Connemara, D'Angella	GALLE—New Oriental
MAHARAJESWAR—Race View, Frederick's	HATTON—Adam's Peak
MATHERAN—Granville, Rugby	KANDY—Queen's, Suisse
MOUNT ABU—Rajputana, Skeltonia	NUWARA ELIYA—Carlton, Grand, Maryhill
	St Andrew's
	Malaya
	IPOR—Station
	KUALA LUMPUR—Empire, Station
	PENANG—Eastern and Oriental, Rummymede,
	SINGAPORE—Adelphi, Europe, Raffles, Sea View

The New Capital.

The transfer of the Capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Delhi Durbar on December 12, 1911. It had long been recognised as necessary, in the interests of the whole of India, to de-provincialise the Government of India, but this ideal was unattainable as long as the Government of India was located in one Province, and in the capital of that Province—the seat of the Bengal Government—for several months in every year. It was also desirable to free the Bengal Government from the close proximity of the Government of India which had been to the constant disadvantage of that Province. To achieve these two objects the removal of the capital from Calcutta was essential. Its disadvantages had been recognised as long ago as 1868, when Sir Henry Maine advocated the change. Various places had been discussed as possible capitals, but Delhi was by common consent the best of them all. Its central position and situation as a railway junction, added to its historical associations, told in its favour, and, as Lord Crewe said in his despatch on the subject, "to the races of India, for whom the legends and records of the past are charged with so intense a meaning, this resumption by the Paramount Power of the seat of venerable Empire should at once enforce the continuity and promise the permanence of British sovereign rule over the length and breadth of the country."

The foundation stone of the new capital were laid by the King Emperor on December 15, 1911, the finally selected site being on the eastern slopes of the hills to the south of Delhi, on the fringe of the tract occupied by the Delhis of the past. The land chosen is free from liability to flood, has a natural drainage, and is not manworn. It is not cumbered with monuments and tombs needing reverent treatment and the site is near the present centre of the town of Delhi. A Committee consisting of Surgeon-General Sir C. P. Lukis, Mr. H. T. Keeling, C.S.I., A.M.I.C.E., and Major J. O. Robertson, I.M.S., was appointed to consider the comparative healthiness of the site and of an alternative one to the North of the existing city. Their report, dated 4th March, 1913, states that "the Committee, after giving full consideration to the various points discussed in the above note, is bound to advise the Government of India that no doubt can exist as to the superior healthiness of the southern site, the medical and sanitary advantages of which are overwhelming when compared with those of the northern site."

The Town Plan and Architecture.—A report by a Town-Planning Committee, with a plan of the lay-out, was dated 20th March, 1913. Work was begun in accordance with it and its main lines have been followed throughout. The central point of interest in the lay-out, which gives the motif of the whole, is Government House, and two large blocks of Secretariats. This Government centre has been given a position at Raisina hill near the centre of the new city. Sir Edwin Lutyens is the architect for Government House and Mr. Edward Baker for the Secretariats. The former building will

cost approximately Rs. 140 lakhs and the two groups some Rs. 124 lakhs. To the east of the forum, and below it, will be a spacious foreground defined by trees and linked on to the great main avenue or parkway which leads to the main station. Across this main axis will run an avenue to the railway station. Other roads run in different directions from the entrance to the forum. The axis running north-east towards the Jama Masjid will form the principal business approach to the present city. At the railway station a place will be laid out around which will be grouped the administrative and municipal offices, the banks, the shops and the hotels. The main roads or avenues range from 70 feet to 150 feet in width with the exception of the main avenue east of the Secretariat buildings where a parkway width of 1,175 feet has been allowed. The principal avenues in addition to the main avenues are those running at right angles to the main east to west axis. For a temporary capital, for the use of the Government of India during the period of the building of the new capital an area was selected along the Alipur Road, between the existing civil station of Delhi and the Ridge. The architecture and method of construction are similar to those adopted in the exhibition buildings at Allahabad in 1910, but the buildings will outlast the transitional period for which they are intended. They will subsequently be an asset of some value.

In October, 1912, by proclamation, there was constituted an administrative enclave of Delhi under a Chief Commissioner. This enclave was entirely taken from the Delhi district of the Punjab and its total area is 573 square miles. On the basis of the Census of 1911, the population of the area originally included in the Province was 3,98,289 and of the new area 14,552, or a total of 4,12,821. The population of the Municipal town of Delhi was 2,29,144. The plans of the New Capital allow for a population within it of 70,000. Its present population is approximately 40,000. Sites have been allotted for forty Ruling Princes and Chiefs to build houses for their own occupation during their visits to the New City.

There was, as regards architecture, a prolonged "battle of the styles" over Delhi. Finally, to use the language of the architect, it has been their aim "to express, within the limit of the medium and of the powers of its users, the ideal and the fact of British rule in India, of which the New Delhi must ever be the monument." The inspiration of the designs is manifestly Western, as is that of British rule, but they combine with it distinctive Indian features without doing violence to the principles of structural fitness and artistic unity.

Cost of the Scheme.—It was at first tentatively estimated that the cost of the new capital would be four million sterling and that sum was given in the original despatch of the Government of India on the subject. Various factors have since then increased the cost, the chief of these being the immense rise in prices since the war, and the Legislative Assembly were informed by Government on 23rd March,

1921, that the revised estimates then amounted to 1,807 lakhs of rupees. This amount includes allowances for building new Legislative Chambers and Hostel for Members of the Indian Legislature, which were not allowed for in the earlier estimates. The New Capital Enquiry Committee, in its report published in January 1923 estimated the total expenditure at Rs 1,292 lakhs including Rs 42 lakhs for loss by exchange. This figure still stands.

The Project Estimate contains certain items such as land, residences, water supply, electric light and power, and irrigation on which recoveries in the form of rate or taxes will, in addition to meeting current expenditure, partially at any rate cover the interest on the capital outlay whilst there are other items on which some return on account of the sale of houses, general taxes and indirect receipts may be expected.

Progress of the work.—The construction of New Delhi has made satisfactory progress, having regard to the curtailment of the Budget allotment, in consequence of the war and the return of officers and other establishments to their civil work has made possible a considerable speeding up of constructional operations provided money can be provided to pay for them. The Secretariate are so far advanced that there were transferred to them from Calcutta in October 1924 the offices of the Accountant General, Central Revenue. The residential buildings for Government officers and staff of various grades have been completed and the Engineers hope to have the Secretariate and Parliament house ready for occupation in 1925 and Government House in 1926.

Opinion of the Legislature.—Considerable discussion regarding the new works took place in the Assembly in 1921. The following unofficial resolution has carried—“This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that in the interests of economy and of general convenience alike the execution of the programme of New Delhi works may be expedited and the necessary funds provided or raised so that the Secretariat and Legislative buildings and connected works including residences may be completed as early as practicable.”

A non-official Member in the Legislative Assembly on 28th September, 1921, at Simla, moved a recommendation to Government “to appoint a Committee to inquire into the possibility of establishing a permanent Capital of India in a place possessing salubrious and temperate climate throughout the year.” This proposal was ridiculed by several of his non-official colleagues and was eventually rejected without a division.

H.B.H. the Duke of Connaught, on 12th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of a large group of parliamentary buildings on a site close to the south east of the Secretariate. The buildings will be an imposing pile circular in shape, consisting in the main of three horseshoe-shaped Chambers for the Chamber of Princes, Council of State and Legislative Assembly respectively and surmounted by a large dome over a Central Library connecting all three Chambers.

All India War Memorial.—H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught on 10th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of an All India War Memorial at the southern end of the Central Vista. The place chosen is a fine position in the centre of the circular Prince's Park.

The Memorial will take the form of a triumphal arch spanning Kingsway, the avenue running down the centre of the Vista. It will generally be similar to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris, but will be simpler in a way which will probably increase its grandeur and dignity. The monument will reach a height of 160 feet and the inner height of the arch will be 87 feet 6 inches and its breadth 70 feet. Over the arch on both fronts will appear in capital letters the single word INDIA and this will be flanked on each side by the initials MCM (i.e., 1900) whilst immediately below them on the left-hand will be the initials XIV (i.e., 14) and on the opposite side the figures XIX (i.e., 19). Above the Arch will be a circular stone bowl 11 feet in diameter. This is intended to be filled with burning oil on great anniversaries and other occasions so that there will be a shining fire by night and a column of smoke by day. The memorial is solely Indian in purpose and will bear the names of Indian regiments only.

Educational Institutions.—It was proposed during 1914 that a higher college for Chiefs should be established at Delhi and in this connection a conference of Chiefs and Political Officers was held at Delhi at which the Viceroy presided. The proposal is still under consideration. To implement it would require a capital outlay of Rs 12½ lakhs.

The Government of India further in the Spring session of their Legislature in 1922 introduced and carried a Bill for the establishment of a unitary, teaching and residential university of Delhi, the buildings for which would be erected in the new capital. It is intended to provide a local university on the model recommended for Dacca University by the Calcutta University Commission.

The provision of funds for the complete realisation of the university must be a matter of time and it was, therefore, decided to commence work with the existing colleges in their present buildings and to permit them gradually to modify their organisation. Dr H. S. Gour, M.L.A., was in 1922 appointed first Vice-Chancellor of the new university and the initial work of organisation was quickly effected by the Executive Council. Unfortunately the inability of the Government of India to allot considerable funds was a severe handicap. It was hoped that H. R. the Viceroy would be able to lay the foundation stone of the university buildings in November, 1922, but this proved impracticable, and the site for the new buildings required has not yet been settled. Government and the University Authorities are examining this point in consultation, particularly with reference to question whether to build in the new capital or to utilise buildings that may become available elsewhere.

Freemasonry in India.

In 1728 a dispensation was granted by the Grand Lodge of England to Geo. Pomfret, Esq., authorising him to "open a new Lodge in Bengal." Of this dispensation nothing further is known but under Capt. Farwinter, who in the following year succeeded him as Provincial Grand Master of India, Lodge was established in 1730, which in the Engraved Lists is distinguished by the arms of the East India Company, and is described as "No 72 at Bengal in the East Indies." The next Provincial Grand Masters were James Dawson and Zeph. Gee, who held office in 1740 after whom came the Hon. Roger Drake, appointed 10th April 1755. The last named was Governor of Calcutta at the time of the attack made on the settlement by Surajah Dowlah in 1756. Drake missed the horrors of the Black Hole by escaping and was accused of deserting his post, but, though present at the retaking of Calcutta by Admiral Watson and Olive, it is improbable that he resumed the duties of his masonic office after the calamity that befell the settlement.

The minutes of the Grand Lodge inform us that William Mackett, Provincial Grand Master of Calcutta, was present at the meeting of that body, November 17th, 1760, and we learn on the same authority that at the request of the "Lodges in the East Indies" Mr. Cullis Smith was appointed P. G. M. in 1762. At this period it was the custom in Bengal "to elect the Provincial Grand Master annually by the majority of the votes of the members present from amongst those who passed through the different offices of the (Prov.) Grand Lodge and who had served as Dep. Prov. Grand Master." This annual election as soon as notified to the Grand Lodge of England was confirmed by the Grand Master without its being thought an infringement of his prerogative. In accordance with this practice, Samuel Middleton was elected (P. G. M. circa) in 1767, but in passing it may be briefly observed that a few years previously a kind of roving commission was granted by Earl Ferrers in 1762-64 to John Bluvitt, Commander of the "Admiral Watson, Indianman" for East India where no other Provincial Lodge is to be found. Middleton's election was confirmed October 31st 1768 and, as the dispensation forwarded by the Grand Secretary was looked upon as abrogating the practice of annual elections, he accordingly held the office of P. G. M. Unfortunately the records of the P. G. L. date back only to 1774 and thus much valuable information is lost to us. This Grand Lodge continued working until 1792 when it ceased to meet. It seems that the officers were selected from only two Lodges much to the dissatisfaction of the other Lodges, and resulted in most of the dissatisfied bodies seceding and attaching themselves to the Athol or Ancient Grand Lodge. In 1813 at the Union both the Ancients and Moderns in Calcutta combined and gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge of England and have since been working peaceably under the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which was revived in that year and in 1840 created a District Grand Lodge.

Madras.—The earliest Lodge in Southern India (No. 322) was established in Madras in 1763. Three others were also established about 1766

In the same year Capt. Edmund Paley appointed P. G. M. for Madras and its Dependencies and in the following year another Lodge was established at Fort St. George. In 1788 the Athol (or Ancient) invaded this District and in 1782 established a Provincial Grand Lodge and both these Provincial Grand Bodies continued working peaceably side by side until the union. Indeed, though not generally known, these two Grand Bodies made an attempt at coalition long before any such movement was made by their parent bodies, the Grand Lodge of England, and the Ancient Grand Lodge, and Maken in his History of Freemasonry in Madras states that in a great measure they succeeded. At the Union in 1813 all the bodies in Madras gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge. One event worthy of note was the initiation in 1776 at Trichinopoly of the eldest son of the Nawab of Arcot, Undat-ul Amari, who in his reply to the congratulations of the Grand Lodge of England stated "he considered the title of English Mason as one of the most honourable that he possessed." This document is now stored in the archives of the United Grand Lodge.

Bombay.—Two Lodges were established in this Presidency during the 17th century, Nos. 234 at Bombay in 1758 and 569 in Surat in 1793, both of which were carried on the lists until the union when they disappeared. A Provincial Grand Master, James Todd, was appointed but there is no record that he exercised his functions and his name drops out of the Freemasons' Calendar in 1799. In 1801 an Athol Warrant was granted (No. 322) to the 78th foot which was engaged in the Maratha War under Sir Arthur Wellesley. In 1818 Lord Moria was asked to constitute a Lodge to be known by the name of St. Andrew by eight Masons residing there and also to grant a dispensation for holding a Provincial Grand Lodge for the purpose of making the Hon. Mountstuart a Mason, he having expressed a wish to that effect. The Petitioners further requested "that his name might be inserted in the body of the warrant, authorising them to instal him after being duly passed and raised a Deputy Grand Master of the Decan. Of the reply to this application no copy has been preserved. Lodge Benevolence was established in Bombay in 1822.

In 1823 a Military Lodge "Orion in the West" was formed in the Bombay Artillery and installed at Poona as No. 15 of the Coast of Cornwall. It seems from Lane's records that in 1830 it was discovered that this Lodge was not on the records of the United Grand Lodge of England. A Warrant was subsequently issued bearing date 19th July 1833. According to the early proceedings of this Lodge, members were examined in the Third Degree and passed to the chair in the Fourth Degree for which a fee of three gold mohurs was charged. In the following year a second Lodge was established at Poona by the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which however left no trace of its existence. In 1835 the civilian element of "Orion" seceded and formed the "Lodge of Hope" also at Poona No. 801.

Here "Orion" unrecognised at home, aided in the secession of some of its members, who

obtained a warrant, on the recommendation of the parent Lodge, from the Grand Lodge of England. Two years later it was discovered that no notification of the existence of "Orion-in-the-West" had reached England, nor had any fees been received, although these including quarterages had been paid into the Provincial Grand Lodge, Coast of Coromandel. It was further ascertained that in granting a warrant for a Bombay Lodge the Provincial Grand Master of Coromandel had exceeded his powers. Ultimately a new warrant No 598 was granted as already stated in 1888. Lodge "Perseverance" was started in Bombay No 818 in 1828. Up to this time the jurisdiction of the Grand Lodge of England in India had not been invaded, but in 1836 Dr James Burnes was appointed by the Grand Lodge of Scotland, P. G. M. of Western India and its Dependencies. No Provincial Grand Lodge however was formed until 1st January 1838. A second Scottish Province of Eastern India was started which on the retirement of the Marquis of Tweeddale was absorbed within the jurisdiction of Dr Burnes, who in 1846 became Provincial Grand Master for all India (including Aden) but with the proviso, that this appointment was not to act in restraint of any future sub-division of the Presidencies. Burnes may be best described as being in 1836, in ecclesiastical phrase as a Provincial Grand Master "in partibus infidelium" for whatever Lodges then existed throughout the length and breadth of India were strangers to Scottish Masonry. But the times were propitious. There was no English Provincial Grand Lodge in Bombay and the Chevalier Burnes, whose nature had endowed with all the qualities requisite for Masonic Administration, soon got to work and presented such attractions to Scottish Freemasonry that the strange sight was witnessed of English Masons deserting their mother Lodges, to such an extent that these fell into abeyance, in order to give support to Lodges newly constituted under the Grand Lodge of Scotland. In one case indeed, a Lodge "Perseverance" under England went over bodily to Scotland, with its name, jewels, furniture, and belongings, and the charge was accepted by Scotland. This Lodge still exists in Bombay and now bears No 838 on the Register of Scotland. From this period, therefore, Scottish Masonry flourished, and English Masonry declined until the year 1848 when a Lodge St. George No 807 on the Rolls of the Grand Lodge of England was again formed at Bombay, and for some years was the solitary representative of English Masonry in the Province. In 1844 Burnes established a Lodge "Rising Star" at Bombay for the admission of Indian gentlemen the result of which is seen at the present day. Thus the seed planted at Trichinopoly in 1776 by the initiation of Andat-ul-Amari has borne fruit, resulting in the initiation of thousands of Indian gentlemen of all castes and creeds, and which has gone far to establishing that mutual trust between West and East, a distinguishing characteristic of Speculative Freemasonry. A Provincial Grand Lodge was re-established in Bombay in 1860, and converted into a District Grand Lodge in 1871.

The Grand Lodge of England—All three Constitutions of the United Kingdom, the United Grand Lodge of England, the Grand Lodge of Ireland and the Grand Lodge of Scotland hold jurisdiction in India. By far the largest is the first, the next largest is the third and the number

of Lodges under Ireland is as yet small. The Grand Lodge of England divides its rule under Five District Grand Masters independent of each other and directly subordinate to the Grand Master of England by whom they are appointed

Bengal.

- 81 Lodges Rt Wor Bro Hon'ble Mr W J Reid, C.S.I., I.C.S., Dy D.G.M.C.D. Stewart, Assist D.G.M.H.E.Holme

Madras

- 81 Lodges A.Y.G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E. V.D., I.C.S.

Bombay

- Rt. W. Bro H.E. Sir L.O. Wilson P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G., D.S.O. PGD (Eng.)

Punjab

- 31 Lodges Rt. W. Bro Major-Genl Sir George Fletcher McMunn, K.C.B., K.O.S.I., D.S.O., District Grand Master

Burma.

- 16 Lodges. Rt W Bro James McKenna, C.I.E., District Grand Master

The Grand Lodge of Scotland exercises its rule through a Grand Master of all Scottish Freemasonry in India, who is elected by the Brethren subject to confirmation by the Grand Master Mason of Scotland. Maj Gen W.E. Jennings, C.I.E., the present incumbent of the office, controls 69 Lodges. Under him the several districts are in charge of the following Grand Superintendents—

- Genl Sir Cland Jacob G. Supdt., Northern India
Col C.E. Luard " " Central "
Col C.H. Richards " " Southern "

The Grand Secretary is R.W. Bro Arthur W.B. Wise, J.P., 17, Murrumb Road, Fort, Bombay

The Grand Lodge of Ireland granted a warrant to establish a Lodge at Kurnal in 1837, but it was short lived. An attempt was made in 1869 to establish a Lodge in Bombay, but on the representation of the Grand Secretary of England, to the Deputy Grand Secretary of Ireland, that it would be objectionable to create a third masonic jurisdiction in the Province, there being two already, viz. English and Scottish, the Grand Lodge of Ireland declined to grant the warrant. In 1911, however, a warrant was sanctioned for the establishment of Lodge "St Patrick" and since that year two other Lodges have sprung into being.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland has no District Grand Master in India at present, the Lodges corresponding direct with the Grand Lodge in Dublin. There are ten Lodges, 4 in Calcutta, 3 in Ceylon and 3 in Bombay.

Royal Arch Masonry—Under England, the District Grand Master in any District is nearly always created also Grand Superintendent, his Deputy as Second and another Companion as Third Principal.

Under Ireland there is no local jurisdiction and under Scotland the office is elective subject to confirmation.

The five English Districts are constituted as under —

Bengal.

- 27 Chapters Grand Supdt Hon Mr W J Beld, C.S.I.

Madras

- 15 Chapters A Y G Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., I.O.S.

Bombay

- 23 Chapters M Lx Comp Major General H A V Cummins, C.B.C.M. G Grand Super intendent.

Punjab

- 18 Chapters Lt Genl Sir George Fletcher McMunn, K.O.B., K.C.S.I., D.S.O., P.A. G. Soj (Eng), Grand Superintendent

Burma

- 6 Chapters James McKenna, C.I.E., Grand Superintendent.

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The present Grand Superintendent of R. A. Masonry under Scotland is the Hon Maj.-Gen W R Jennings, C.I.E., and there are 29 Chapters. There is one Irish Chapter in Calcutta.

Royal Arch Masonry under Scotland has a separate constitution to Craft Freemasonry. The District Grand Chapter of India is at present ruled by M B Camp H P Gibbs under whom there are about 80 Chapters in India. The Grand Secretary of all Scottish Freemasonry in India is also District Grand Scribe E of Scottish R. A. Masonry.

Mark Masonry—Under England, Mark Masonry is worked under the Grand Mark Lodge of England and Wales, and divided into separate Districts, but in most cases the District Grand Master is also District Grand Mark Master.

Bengal

- 26 Lodges D G M Landale Johnstone, I.O.S., D D G M C D Stewart

Bombay

- 15 Lodges Rt W Bro W A Haig Brown, J.P., Hon Mag, D Grand Master

Madras

- 13 Lodges A Y G Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., I.O.S.

Punjab

- 4 Lodges Rt W Bro Major Genl Sir George Fletcher McMunn, K.C.B., K.C.S.I., D.S.O., D Grand Master

Burma

- 6 Lodges Rt. W Bro James McKenna, C.I.E., District Grand Master

The Mark degree is incorporated with the Royal Arch degree in Irish Chapters. Mark degree is worked in some 8 O Lodges, but mostly in R. A. Chapters, in which the Excellent R. A. M. and other degrees can be obtained. 8 O Chapters insist upon candidates being Mark Master Masons before exaltation. Mark degree in Craft Lodges is conferred by the Rt Wor Master in 8 O Craft does not recognise the ceremony of Rt. W Mark Master. This is confined strictly to Chapters. Such Chapter has a Lodge of M. M. M. working under its charter. Separate charters for Mark Lodges are only issued by the G Chapter of Scotland.

Other Degrees—There are many side degrees worked in India, of the Ancient and Accepted Rite, no degree higher than the 18° is worked in India under England, but under Scotland the 30° is worked. The Knight Templar Degree is also worked in several places under both English and Scottish jurisdiction. There are fourteen 18th Degree Chapters working in India.

Roman Eagle Conclave No 43, Bombay

St Mary's Commandery No 43, Bombay

R. A. Mariner, 72, 514 and 662, Bombay

R. A. Mariner, 61, 81, 82 and 106, Madras

Secret Monitor, 14, 21, 39, 37, 40 and 42, Madras

Benevolent Associations—Each District works its own benevolent arrangements which include the Relief of Distressed Masons, educational provision for the children of Masons and maintenance provision for widows in poor circumstances.

All information will be given to persons entitled by the District Grand Secretary in each District. The names and addresses of District Grand Secretaries are given below—

D G S, Bengal.

C J Mackay, 19, Park Street, Calcutta.

D G S, Bombay

Khan Bahadur Palanjil N Davar, P.D.G.W. Kodak House, Fort, Bombay

D G S, Burma

J Meyer, D.G.S., E.C., Rangoon

D G S, Madras

B Mopurappah, Freemasons' Hall, Egmore, Madras

D G S, Punjab.

Jas J Evans P.D.G.W. Freemasons' Hall, Lahore

Scottish Constitution—For information regarding the Benevolent Funds application should be made to Arthur W S. Wise, J.P., 17 Murzban Road Bombay

Scientific Surveys.

Botanical Survey—The Botanical Survey Department of the Government of India is under the control of the Director who is assisted by three other officers. They are engaged in the examination and identification of plants and the study of floras. The Director is also in charge of the cinchona plantations in Burma.

In connection with the general question of post-war industrial policy, the Government of India decided in 1916 that every effort should be made to extend the area under cinchona in India, and deputed Colonel A. T. Gage, late Director of Botanical Survey of India, to explore land suitable for cinchona cultivation. As a result of his recommendations made in 1918 large areas in the Tavoy District of Burma were reserved for cinchona cultivation, and the first plantations were started there in 1920. A programme was adopted for planting 500 acres annually which would produce 90,000 lbs per annum from 1928 onwards. Owing unfortunately to excessive rainfall in 1921-22 this plantation was entirely washed away, and the Tavoy scheme had to be abandoned. A fresh area was selected, however, in the Mergui District of Burma, and plantations were started there in 1922. The cultivation of cinchona is reported to be progressing satisfactorily in this area.

At the instance of the Retrenchment Committee the area to be planted during the first four years has been limited to 250 acres per annum, which will give an annual outturn of more than 45,000 lbs from 1930. The Governments of Bengal and Madras are also at the instance of the Government of India extending their cinchona plantations, and it is proposed that Bengal should continue its sequence of planting 200 acres every year with cinchona, Madras 230 acres and the Government of India 250 acres annually. The total estimated outturn from this area is 1,20,000 lbs as against a total Indian consumption of 1,60,000 lbs.

The actual demand for the drug in India is difficult to estimate. Eight million cases of malaria fever go to the hospitals and dispensaries every year. If each of these is treated with 110 grains of quinine, which may be taken as the minimum for the cure of a paroxysm, the demand for hospital and dispensary treatments alone would be 125,000 pounds a year. Patients do not get as much of the drug as they ought because the cost of quinine is prohibitive. It is estimated that there are 100,000,000 sufferers from malaria who do not attend the hospitals. The potential demand is therefore somewhere between 125,000 pounds and 1,500,000 pounds. When the Italian Government, in 1903 made quinine a State industry and cheapened its retail price consumption in that country enormously increased and malaria mortality was reduced from 15,000 to 3,000 a year. The Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India says in his latest annual report that "It may be said that there is no question of the effective treatment of malaria in India until consumption of quinine approximates 500,000 pounds."

Geological Survey—The ultimate aim of the Geological Survey of India is the preparation of a geological map of India upon the accuracy of which the solution of most geological problems ultimately depends. Maps accompany the reports on the various areas in the publications of the Department and a large amount of information is made available to the public. Such maps represent pioneer work which enables prospectors and mining engineers to cut short their preliminary investigations and to start where the Geological Survey has left off. During the preparation of the geological map and the general survey of the country mineral deposits of importance are frequently discovered. Such discoveries are published without delay and every endeavour is made to induce private firms to take up the exploitation of the mineral discovered. Collections of minerals, rocks and fossils are accumulated and exhibited in the public galleries of the Indian Museum. The Geological Survey also undertakes the examination and identification, without fee, of any minerals, rocks and fossils sent in by private observers. The publications of the Survey include the Memoirs, Records and Palaeontologia Indica.

Zoological Survey—A scheme for the formation of a Zoological Survey on the basis of the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum, Calcutta, came into force in July, 1916. The proposals as sanctioned by the Secretary of State mainly are as follows—The headquarters of the Survey will be the Indian Museum. The scheme regarding the Zoological Survey entails the breaking up of the organisation now known as the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum into two parts, one of which will become a Government department under the title of the Zoological Survey of India, and will be primarily concerned with zoological investigation and exercise such advisory functions as may be assigned to it by Government, while the other part will remain as the office of the Trustees of the Indian Museum and will be organised for the present on the lines laid down in the existing by-laws of the Museum. It will be the duty of the Zoological Survey to act as guardians of the standard zoological collection of the Indian Empire, and as such to give every assistance in their power both to officials and to others, in the identification of zoological specimens submitted to them, arranging, if requested to do so, to send collections to specialists abroad for identification in cases in which no specialist is available in India. The Director of the Survey was Dr. Anandale until last April when he died—within a month of receiving the honour of Fellowship of the Royal Society. Dr. Baini Prasad is acting President in his place.

Mammal Survey—The Survey was instituted in the year 1912 with the object of making as complete a study as possible of the occurrence and distribution of Mammals in India, Burma and Ceylon, and with the further object of supplementing the collection of Indian Mammals at the Bombay Natural History Society's

Museum and at the British Museum as well as at the Natural History Museum in India, the primary object of the Survey being the furtherance of our knowledge of Indian Mammalian Fauna. Up to 1891 Naturalists in India had to rely for information on Dr Jerdon's 'Mammals of India' published in 1874. In 1884 R. A. Sterndale published his *Natural History of Indian Mammals* a purely popular work which did not add much to Jerdon's book. In 1891 a memorial prepared by Dr Slater, Hon Secretary to the Zoological Society and signed by Darwin, Hooker, Huxley, and other well known scientists, was presented to the Secretary of State for India. The memorial recommended that a series of Volumes dealing with the Fauna of India should be prepared and Dr. Blanford should be appointed its Editor. The memorial resulted in the publication in 1888-1890 of the Volume on Mammals in the 'Fauna of British India' Series and since 1891 this volume has been the standard work on *Indian Mammals*. Blanford's book was however based on the information then available and the shortcomings of the book have been revealed in the light of more recent research. Further knowledge in regard to distribution and classification and the discovery of new species have rendered Blanford practically obsolete.

To remedy this defect, at the instigation of the authorities of the British Museum, the Bombay Natural History Society decided to institute what is now known as the Mammal Survey. Mr W S Millard, then Hon Secretary of that Society, issued in an appeal to its members to enable the Society to engage the services of trained European collectors so as to make a systematic collection of the mammals of India, Burma and Ceylon. The response to the appeal resulted in over a lakh of rupees being raised between 1911 and 1920, partly by subscriptions from the Society's members, contributions from Indian Princes, and grants from the Indian Government, the Government of Burma, Ceylon, Malay States, and the Provincial Governments. Subscriptions were also received from a few Learned Societies and Institutions in England and America. By the outbreak of the war the Survey had been carried on over large areas of the country, the districts covered being—in Western India a portion of Sind, the whole of Gujarat, Kutch and Kathiawar; the Southern Maharatta country and Kanara in Southern India, in Coorg and Mysore, in the centre large tracts of the Central Provinces and some districts of Bengal and Behar. In Northern India the Society's collectors had worked over Kumaon, Darjeeling and Sikkim and the Bhutan Duars. In Burma, collections were made along the Chindwin river, in Central Burma and in the Shan States, Pegu and a portion of Tenasserim. The whole of Ceylon was also systematically surveyed.

The material, which up to the outbreak of War comprised some 17,000 specimens, was forwarded to the British Museum where the collections were scientifically worked out by the late Mr R. C. Wroughton, formerly Inspector General of Forests, Mr Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., Curator of Mammals at the British Museum, Mr Martin C Hinton and others. The results of their researches were published in a series of scientific papers in the journal of the

Bombay Natural History Society. The enormous mass of material then collected resulted in the discovery of large numbers of new forms and species and by increasing our knowledge of the distribution of Indian Mammalia has enabled the revision of Blanford's Mammalia to be undertaken and early in 1921 the Secretary of State for India commissioned Mr R. C. Wroughton, since deceased, and Mr M. C. Hinton to undertake the work and it is hoped that the first volume of the new edition of the Mammalia will be issued in 1925.

When demobilization rendered it possible the work of the Survey which had been in abeyance during the war was resumed and a collector Mr C. Primrose, was sent to Anam and the Mengul Archipelago and Mr Oldfield Thomas has written very appreciatively of his work among those islands. Mr Primrose then began working inland but owing to the impracticability of continuing his work in Burma during the monsoon, he was transferred to Gwalior where Mr H. H. the Maharaja kindly accorded permission to work in his territories.

After working a portion of the Eastern Ghats the next move was to the Kangra District in the North West Himalayas and then on to the Punjab Salt Range. Two other collectors worked in Southern India. Permission was once more obtained from the Nepal Government for a collector to resume the Survey work in that country. The work in Nepal was brought to a successful close early this year with a representative collection of interesting mammals and birds.

The Survey now has only one collector who is collecting in the foot hills of Himalayas and the Pindari Valley.

The Board of Scientific Advice.—This Board in accordance with a recommendation of the Indraprastha Retrenchment Committee is in abeyance. It consisted of the heads of the Meteorological, Geological, Botanical, Forest and Survey Departments, representatives of the Agricultural and Civil Veterinary Departments, and other scientific authorities whose special attainments may be useful. It was established in 1902 to co-ordinate official scientific inquiry, to ensure that research work is distributed to the best advantage, and to advise the Government of India in prosecuting practical research into those questions of economic or applied science on the solution of which the agricultural and industrial development of the country so largely depends. The programmes of investigation of the various departments were annually submitted to the Board for discussion and arrangement, and an annual report was published on the work done.

The Secretary to the Government of India (Department of Revenue and Agriculture) was *ex-officio* President of the Board, which included the Director-General of Observatories, the Director of the Zoological Survey, the Surveyor General of India, the Principal, Punjab Veterinary College, the Director of the Indian Institute of Science, the Inspector-General of Forests, the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, the Director of the Geological Survey, the Director General, Indian Medical Service, the Secretary to the Govern-

ment of India, Public Works Department, and the Director of the Botanical Survey of India who was Secretary to the Board of Scientific Advice

The Universities Conference representing all Indian Universities, which met in Simla last summer, recommended the revival of the Board

The Indian Research Fund.—The progress of this Fund and its Association like the Board of Scientific Advice, has seriously been affected by the policy of retrenchment enforced in pursuance of the recommendations of the Inchcape Committee. Scientific research work is rapidly developing in India. In 1911 the sum of 5 lakhs (£33,000) out of the surplus opium revenue was set aside as an endowment for research into epidemic diseases in connection with the Central Research Institute at Kasauli. It was hoped that this sum might be largely augmented by private subscriptions. An Indian Research Fund Association was constituted, and a good deal of work was undertaken. Its objects were defined as "the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge and experimental measures generally in connection with the causation mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases. Fresh investigations into kala azar and cholera were inaugurated, and an officer was deputed at the expense of the Fund to study yellow fever in the regions where it is endemic, with a view to taking steps to prevent its introduction into India. A further grant of 6 lakhs (£40,000) was made to the Central Research Fund from the opium surplus of 1911-12. It was decided to devote to research and anti malarial projects 5 lakhs (£33,000) a year from Imperial revenue commencing in 1913-14. A new periodical "The Indian Journal of Medical Research," was instituted in 1913 for publication four times annually as the official organ of the Research Fund. The journal was designed to deal with every branch of research directly or indirectly connected with medical and sanitary science, and form a record of what was being done in India for the advance of this work. In 1922 it was decided to devote the capital funds at the disposal of the Association to the erection of an Imperial Medical Research Institute and to the formation of a fund for its endowments. In the same year valuable results were achieved by Dr. Nishi Kanta De working in Calcutta on the chemistry of drugs used in treatment of leprosy and on the chemistry of the blood of lepers and resistant animals. The treatment of cancer, of influenza, of pneumonia, the histology and pathology of deficiency diseases and special problems concerning Indian caliculi, kalaazar, the action of quinine in malaria treatment were among the particular subjects of investigations specially dealt with by various research experts in 1922.

Survey of India.—The work of the Survey of India Department falls under various heads,

namely, the trigonometrical survey, topographical and forest surveys, special surveys and explorations, and map production. Cadastral surveys are now carried out by the Provincial Land Records and Settlement Departments.

In 1904 attention was drawn to the defective state of the **topographical survey maps**, and a Committee was appointed to report on the subject. To overtake the arrears of revisional survey and to secure that the map of India should be brought up to date and revised at proper intervals, they recommended a considerable increase of establishment and an increased expenditure of Rs. 2,10,000 a year for the next 25 years. They also made recommendations for altering the size and improving the quality of the maps. After further inquiry the Government of India decided that a scale of 1 inch to the mile would ordinarily be sufficient, reserved forests and special areas being surveyed on the scale of 2 inches to the mile, and the 1-inch scale employed for waste and barren tracts. The work of the Department has in recent years greatly been hampered by the general need for retrenchment in expenditure.

Indian Science Congress.—The Indian Science Congress was founded largely owing to the efforts of Dr. J. L. Simonsen and Mr. F. S. Macmahon, the present Honorary General Secretaries of the Congress. The Asiatic Society of Bengal undertakes the management of the Congress finances and publishes annually the proceedings of the Congress. The objects are (1) to encourage research and to make the results generally known among science workers in India, (2) to give opportunities for personal intercourse and scientific companionship and thus to overcome to some extent one of the chief drawbacks in the life of workers in science in India, (3) to promote public interest in science for this end the Congress is held at different centres annually, and evening lectures open to the public form an important part of the proceedings of each Congress.

The Congress which is progressive and vigorous meets in January each year, the proceedings last for six days. The Head of the Local Government is Patron of the Congress, the Congress session is opened by a Presidential Address delivered by the President for the year. The President is chosen annually, the different sections being represented in turn. The sections are (1) Agriculture, (2) Physics and Mathematics, (3) Chemistry and Applied Botany, (4) Zoology and Ethnography, (5) Botany, (6) Geology, (7) Medical Research. When the sections meet separately each section is presided over by its own President also chosen annually. The mornings are devoted to the reading and discussion of the papers, the afternoons to social functions and visits to places of interests in the evenings public lectures are delivered.

Posts and Telegraphs

POST OFFICE.

The control of the Posts and Telegraphs of India is vested in an officer designated Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs who works in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the postal side of two Deputy Directors-General (who are officers of the rank of Postmaster-General), and six Assistant Directors-General (whose status is similar to that of Deputy Postmasters-General).

For postal purposes, the Indian Empire is divided into nine circles as shown below, each of the first eight is in charge of a Postmaster-General and the Sind and Baluchistan Circle is controlled by a Deputy Postmaster-General—Bengal and Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma, Central, Madras, Punjab and North-West Frontier, United Provinces and Sind and Baluchistan. The Central Circle comprises roughly the Central Provinces and the Central India and Rajputana Agencies.

The Postmasters-General are responsible to the Director-General for the whole of the postal arrangements in their respective circles, with the exception of those connected with the conveyance of mails by railways and inland steamers which are entrusted to three officers bearing the designation of Deputy Postmaster-General, Railway Mail Service. All the Postmasters-General are provided with Personal Assistants, while those in charge of the largest circles are also assisted by Deputy Postmasters-General. The nine Postal Circles and the jurisdictions of the three Deputy Postmasters-General, Railway Mail Service, are divided into Divisions, each in charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices or Railway Mail Service as the case may be and each Superintendent is assisted by a certain number of officials styled Inspectors.

Generally there is a head post office at the head-quarters of each revenue district and other post offices in the same district are usually subordinate to the head office for purposes of accounts. The Postmasters of the Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras General Post Offices

and of the larger of the other head post offices are directly under the Postmaster-General. The Presidency Postmasters, indeed, have one or more Superintendents subordinate to them. When the duties of the Postmaster of a head office become so onerous that he is unable to perform them fully himself, a Deputy Postmaster is appointed to relieve him of some of them, and if still further relief is required, one or more Assistant Postmasters are employed. The more important of the offices subordinate to the head office are designated sub-offices and are usually established only in towns of some importance. Sub-offices transact all classes of postal business with the public, submit accounts to the head offices to which they are subordinate, incorporating therein the accounts of their branch offices, and frequently have direct dealings with Government local sub-treasuries. The officer in charge of such an office works either single handed or with the assistance of one or more clerks according to the amount of business.

Branch offices are small offices with limited functions ordinarily intended for villages, and are placed in charge either of departmental officers on small pay or of extraneous agents, such as school masters, shopkeepers, landholders or cultivators who perform their postal duties in return for a small remuneration.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, who is an officer of the Finance Department of the Government of India and is not subordinate to the Director-General. The Accountant-General is assisted by Deputy Accountants-General, all of whom, with the necessary staff of clerks, perform at separate headquarters the actual audit work of a certain number of post offices.

In accordance with an arrangement which has been in force since 1888, a large number of sub-post offices and a few head offices perform telegraph work in addition to their postal work and are known by the name of combined offices. The policy is to increase telegraph facilities everywhere and especially in towns by opening a number of cheap telegraph offices working under the control of the Post Office.

The Inland Tariff (which is applicable to Ceylon and Portuguese India except as indicated below) is as follows—

	When the postage is prepaid	When the postage is wholly unpaid	When the postage is insufficiently prepaid
<i>Letters</i>	<i>Anna</i>		
Not exceeding two and a half tolas	1	Double the prepaid rate (chargeable on delivery)	Double the deficiency (chargeable on delivery)
Every additional two and a half tolas or part of that weight	1		
<i>Book and pattern packets</i>			
Every 5 tolas or part of that weight	1		

Postcards.

Single	1/2 anna.
Reply	1/2 ..

(The postage on cards of private manufacture must be prepaid in full.)

Parcels (prepayment compulsory)

(a) Parcels not exceeding 440 tolas in weight —

	Rs a
Not exceeding 20 tolas	0 2
Exceeding 20 tolas but not exceeding 40 tolas	0 3
For every additional 40 tolas or part of that weight	3 annas

(b) Parcels exceeding 440 tolas in weight —

Exceeding 440 tolas but not exceeding 490 tolas	Rs 3 0
4 annas for every additional 40 tolas or fraction thereof up to 800 tolas.	

Registration is compulsory in the case of parcels weighing over 440 tolas

These rates are not applicable to parcels for Portuguese India

In the case of parcels for Ceylon a registration fee of 2 annas is chargeable on each parcel in addition to the rates shown above

Registration fee

	Rs a
For each letter, postcard, book or pattern packet, or parcel to be registered	0 2

Ordinary Money Order fees

On any sum not exceeding Rs 10	0 2
On any sum exceeding Rs 10 but not exceeding Rs 25	0 4
On any sum exceeding Rs 25 up to Rs. 600	0 4

for each complete sum of Rs 25, and 4 annas for the remainder, provided that, if the remainder does not exceed Rs 10, the charge for it shall be only 2 annas

Telegraphic money order fees—The same as the fees for ordinary money orders plus a telegraph charge calculated at the rates for inland telegrams for the actual number of words used in the telegram advising the remittance, according as the telegram is to be sent as an "Express" or as an "Ordinary" message.

In the case of Ceylon the telegraph charge is calculated at the rates shown below —

Express—Rs. 2 for the first 12 words and 3 annas for each additional word

Ordinary—Rs 1 for the first 12 words and 2 annas for each additional word. Telegraphic money orders cannot be sent to Portuguese India

Value-payable fees—These are calculated on the amount specified for remittance to the sender and are the same as the fees for ordinary money orders

Insurance fees—For every Rs 100 of insured value 2 annas

As regards Ceylon and Portuguese India see Foreign Tariff

Acknowledgment fee—For each registered article 1 anna

The Foreign Tariff (which is not applicable to Ceylon except in respect of insurance fees or

to Portuguese India except in respect of insurance fees and parcel postage) is as follows —

Letters

To the United Kingdom, other British Possessions and Egypt, including the Sudan } 3 annas for the first ounce and 1/2 annas for each additional ounce or part of that weight.

To other countries, colonies or places, } 3 annas for the first ounce and 1/2 annas for every additional ounce or part of that weight

Postcards Single	1 1/2 annas
„ Reply	3 annas.

Printed Papers—1/2 anna for every 2 ounces or part of that weight

Business Papers—For a packet not exceeding 10 ounces in weight 3 annas

For every additional 2 ounces or part of that weight 1/2 anna

Samples—1/2 anna for every 2 ounces or part of that weight, subject to a minimum charge of 1 anna for each packet

(The rates shown above are those chargeable when the postage is prepaid)

Parcels

(i) Parcel not exceeding 11 lbs in weight are forwarded as mails to the British Post Office, the rates of postage applicable to such parcels being as follows —

	Via Gibraltar
For a parcel—	Rs a p
Not over 3 lbs	1 8 0
Over 3 lbs, but not over 7 lbs	2 12 0
„ 7 „ „ 11 „	3 15 0

These parcels are delivered by the post office and the postage paid carries them to destination

(ii)—Parcels which exceed 11 lbs but which do not exceed 50 lbs (the maximum allowed) in weight are for-warded from India through the medium of the P & O S N Co., and are delivered at destination under arrangements made by that Com-pany. The postage charge applicable to such parcels is twelve annas for each pound, or fraction of a pound. The parcels are delivered free of charge within a radius of one mile from the Company's Head Office in London, if addressed to any place beyond that radius, carrier's charges are levied from the addressees on delivery. Parcels thus forwarded through the P & O S N Co cannot be insured during transit beyond India but must, if they contain coin etc., be insured during transit in India. No acknowledgment of delivery can be obtained in re-spect of these parcels nor can such parcels be transmitted to the United Kingdom under the value-payable system

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Money Orders.—To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in rupee currency, the rates of commission are the same as in the case of inland money orders.

To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in sterling, the rates are as follows—

	Rs	a
On any sum not exceeding £1	0	8
" " exceeding £1 but not exceeding £2	0	5
" " " £2 " " £3	0	8
" " " £3 " " £4	0	10
" " " £4 " " £5	0	12
" " " £5	0	12

for each complete sum of £5 and 12 annas for the remainder, provided that if the remainder does not exceed £1, the charge for it shall be 3 annas, if it does not exceed £2, the charge for it shall be 5 annas, if it does not exceed £3, the charge for it shall be 8 annas, and if it does not exceed £4, the charge for it shall be 10 annas

Insurance fees (for registered letters and parcels only).—

For insurance of letters and parcels to Ceylon and of letters to Portuguese India— Annas

Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 100	2
For every additional Rs. 100 or fraction thereof	2

For insurance of letters and parcels to Mauritius and British Somaliland and of parcels to Portuguese India, the Seychelles and Zanzibar— Annas

Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 200	5
For every additional Rs. 200 or fraction thereof	5

For insurance of letters and parcels to the United Kingdom and to British Possessions and Foreign countries other than those mentioned above and for insurance of letters to the Seychelles and Zanzibar—

Where the value insured does not exceed £12	5
For every additional £12 or fraction thereof	5

Acknowledgment fee.—3 annas for each registered article.

Growth of the Post Office.—At the end of 1897-98 the total number of post offices was 11,748 and the total length of mail lines 126,851 miles. For the 31st March 1921 the corresponding figures were 19,496 and 187,901. During the year 1897-98, the total number of letters, postcards, newspapers and packets given out for delivery was 490,899,844, while for the year 1920-21 the total number of unregistered articles of the same classes given out for delivery plus the number of registered letters and packets posted amounted to 1,375,265,445. The number of parcel mail articles given out for delivery in the former year was 4,119,781 as compared with 14,111,036 such articles posted during the latter year. The total number and value of money orders issued increased from 11,795,041 and Rs. 24,79,45,455 in 1897-98 to 38,504,514 and Rs. 98,36,48,317, respectively in 1920-21. During the former year the total number of articles insured for transmission by post was 326,645 with an aggregate declared value of Rs. 10,00,62,590 and the corresponding figures for 1910-11 were 1,169,498 and Rs. 26,38,78,925. As the result, however, mainly of the introduction in 1911-12 of the rule under which inland articles containing currency notes or portions thereof must be insured, the figures for 1920-21 stand at 4,510,471 and Rs. 1,37,66,71,002. The number of accounts open on the books of the Post Office Savings Bank grew from 780,887 on the 31st March 1898 to 1,877,957 at the end of 1920-21, with an increase from Rs. 9,28,72,978 to Rs. 22,36,21,716 in the total amount standing at the credit of depositors. The total staff on the 31st March 1921 numbered 102,885. The net financial result of the working of the Post Office for the year 1920-21 was a deficit of Rs. 45,99,373.

This account of the activities of the Post Office would not be complete if it were not mentioned that on the 31st March 1921 there were 33,258 active Postal Life Insurance policies with an aggregate assurance of Rs. 4,86,67,662 and that during 1920-21 it disbursed a sum of Rs. 75,46,108 to Indian Military pensioners, sold over 51½ lakhs of cash certificates to the public, collected at its own expense a sum of Rs. 60½ lakhs on account of customs duty on parcels and letters from abroad, and sold 15,494 lbs of quinine to the public.

TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Telegraphs.—Up to 1912 the telegraph system in India was administered as a separate department by an officer designated Director-General of Telegraphs who worked in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Commerce and Industry. In that year it was decided to vest the control of Posts and Telegraphs in a single officer as an experimental measure with a view to the eventual amalgamation of the two Departments.

In pursuance of this policy an experimental amalgamation of the two services was introduced

in the Bombay and Central Circles from the 1st July 1912. The fundamental principles of this scheme which followed closely the system in force in the United Kingdom and several other European countries were that the traffic and engineering work of the Telegraph Department should be separated, the former branch of work in each Circle being transferred to the Postmaster-General assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable number of attached officers and the engineering branch being controlled by a Director of Telegraphs in

charge of the two Circles. Subordinate to this office there were several Divisional Superintendents who were assisted by a number of attached officers.

In 1914 the complete amalgamation of the two Departments was sanctioned by the Secretary of State and introduced from 1st April. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the engineering side of a Chief Engineer, Telegraphs with two Dy Chief Engineers. For traffic work there is a Deputy Director General, with an Assistant and two Assistant Directors-General. On the 27th March 1920 a Controller of Telegraph Traffic was appointed to assist the Deputy Director General in the inspection of offices and in controlling telegraph traffic in the Circles the scheme which has been introduced follows closely on the lines of the experimental one referred to above. For telegraph engineering purposes India is divided up into five Circles, each in charge of a Director. For Burma special arrangements were considered necessary and the engineering work is in charge of the Postmaster General who is a Telegraph officer specially selected for the purpose. These six Circles are divided into twenty-one Divisions each of which is in charge of a Divisional Engineer. On the 1st July 1922 Sind and Beluchistan circle was formed with its headquarters at Karachi. This circle is in charge of a Deputy Postmaster General. On the 31st March 1921 there were 7 Circles and 20 Divisions.

The telegraph traffic work is under the control of the Postmaster-General, each of whom is assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable staff of attached officers.

The audit work of the Telegraph Department is, like that of the Post Office, entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, assisted by a staff of Deputy and Assistant Accountants-General.

Inland Telegrams and Tariff—Telegrams sent to or received from places in India or Ceylon are classed as Inland telegrams. The tariff for inland telegrams is as follows—

For delivery in India		For delivery in Ceylon	
Private and State		Private and State.	
Ex-press	Ordinary	Ex-press	Ordinary
Rs a	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a

Minimum charge, 1 8 0 12 2 0 1 0
Each additional word over 12 0 2 0 1 0 3 0 2

The address is charged for

Additional charges

Minimum for reply-paid telegram	} Minimum charge for an ordinary telegram
Acknowledgment of receipt ..	
Multiple telegrams, each 100 words or less ..	4 annas.

Collation One quarter of charge for telegram.

	Rs.
If both the offices of origin and destination are closed	2
If only one of the offices is closed	1
If the telegram has to pass through a closed intermediate office an additional fee in respect of each such office	1

For acceptance of an Express telegram during the hours when an office is closed.

Signalling by flag or semaphore to or from ships—per telegram { The usual inland charge plus a fixed fee of 8 annas

Boat hire Amount actually necessary

Copies of telegrams, each 100 words or less 4 annas

For delivery in India		For delivery in Ceylon	
Press	Ordinary	Press	Ordinary
Ex-press	Ordinary	Ex-press	Ordinary
Rs a	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a

Minimum charge 1 0 0 8 1 0

Each additional 6 words over 48 in respect of India, each additional four words over 32 in respect of Ceylon 0 2 0 1 0 2
The address is free

Foreign Tariff—The charges for foreign telegrams vary with the countries to which they are addressed. The rates per word for private and state telegrams to countries in Europe are as follows—

Urgent	Ordinary	Deferred	State (British Govt.)
Rs a	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a.

All countries in Europe (except Russia and Turkey) via Eastern 8 12 1 4 0 10 0 10

Do via Indo 3 12 1 4 0 10 —

Radio-Telegrams.—For radio-telegrams addressed to ships at sea from offices in India or Burma and transmitted via the coast stations at Bombay, Calcutta, Diamond Island, Karachi, Madras, Port Blair, Rangoon or Victoria Point the charge is eleven annas per word in nearly all cases. Full particulars are given in Section XXIII of the Post and Telegraph Guide.

Growth of Telegraphs.—At the end of 1897-98 there were 50,505 miles of line and 155,088 miles of wire and cable, as compared with 461,592 wire including cable and 93,054 line including cable miles, respectively, on the 31st March 1924. The numbers of departmental telegraph offices were 357 and 175 respectively, while the number of telegraph offices worked by the Post Office rose from 1,684 to 3,507. The increase in the number of paid telegrams dealt with is shown by the following figures—

		1897-98	1921-22
Inland	{ Private	4,107,270	14,835,276
	{ State	860,382	1,567,848
	{ Free	35,910	348,341
Foreign	{ Private	785,679	2,889,108
	{ State	9,896	49,781
	{ Free	5,278	25,895
		<u>5,754,415</u>	<u>19,697,994</u>

The outturn of the workshops during 1923-24 represented a total value of Rs 16,60,258. At the end of the year the total staff num-

bered 13,770. The total capital expenditure up to the close of 1923-24 amounted to Rs 20,86,50,004. The deficit for the year was Rs 2,97,734.

Wireless.—The total number of Departmental wireless stations open at the end of 1923-24 was twenty five at Allahabad, Bombay, (Calcutta) Delhi, Diamond Island, Jutogh, Karachi Lahore, Madras (3 stations), Maymoo, Mhow, Nagpur Peshawar, Poona Port Blair, Quetta Rangoon (3 stations) Sandheads (two pilot vessels) Secunderabad and Victoria Point of these only Port Blair and Victoria Point book telegrams direct from the public.

A high speed service was opened between Rangoon and Madras and two new stations erected at each of these places for working this service.

Telephones.—On the 31st March 1924 the number of telephone exchanges established by the Department was 231 with 12,007 straight line connections and 1624 extension telephones. Of these exchanges, 91 were worked departmentally. The number of telephone exchanges established by Telephone Companies was 14 with 25,222 connections.

Sanitation.

The history of the sanitary departments in India goes back for about fifty years. During that period great improvements have been effected in the sanitary condition of the towns, though much remains to be done, but the progress of rural sanitation which involves the health of the great bulk of the population has been slow, and incommensurate with the thought and labour bestowed on the subject. The reason lies in the apathy of the people and the tenacity with which they cling to domestic customs injurious to health. While the inhabitants of the plains of India are on the whole distinguished for personal cleanliness, the sense of public cleanliness has ever been wanting. Great improvements have been effected in many places, but the village house is still often ill ventilated and overpopulated, the village site dirty, crowded with cattle, choked with rank vegetation, and poisoned by stagnant pools, and the village tanks polluted, and used indiscriminately for bathing cooking and drinking. That the way to improvement lies through the education of the people has always been recognised.

Of recent years the pace has been speeded up as education progressed, education developed, and funds were available. In a resolution issued in May 23rd, 1914, the Government of India summarised the position at that time, and laid down the general lines of advance. This resolution (*Gazette of India*, May 25th, 1914) should be studied by all who wish to understand the attitude of the Government of India towards sanitation prior to the passing of the Reform Act of 1919. It will be found summarised in the Indian Year Book of 1922 (page 475 et seq.) and earlier editions. One of the

greatest changes effected by the Reform Act of 1919 was the transfer of sanitation to the provinces making it a subject directly responsible to local control through Ministers. It is too early yet to attempt to indicate the effects of this change. In the official report of sanitary work in India during the year 1921-22 the general position is indicated by the Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India, in the following terms: "There is unfortunately little reason to suppose that the transfer of Sanitation to popular control will usher in the millennium at an early date. When all allowances are made for financial stringency, it cannot be said that the Reformed Provincial governments have thrown themselves enthusiastically into the struggle with disease. The daily press however shows that popular interest in the problems of sanitation is slowly increasing which of itself is a good thing. One of the encouraging features of the period has been the increasing number of local associations who are taking part in sanitary work. Voluntary agencies have multiplied, and private generosity both in money and service increases. The next annual report by the same official notes is made that the death rate for British India in 1922 was 24.02 against a quinquennial mean of 38.42. This mean was high because of the influenza epidemic in 1918 but in 1922 there were 1½ million fewer deaths than in 1921. The report continues, "It cannot be too strongly impressed on the Indian public that there is no reason why this economy in life should not continue and be improved on. Life, for which health is a prime necessity, is purchasable, and is the greatest asset any nation may acquire. In order to open the

eyes of the public a campaign of enlightenment is essential.

Perhaps the most urgent requirement of India to-day, when Indian politicians desire to create a strong nation, is the appointment of a Commission to inquire into the actual health conditions of the people

and to make definite recommendations on the measures necessary to secure a reasonable standard of health.

The saving of life in 1922 was in large measure accidental and due to conditions over which man has no control."

Province	Birth Rates (per mille)		Death Rates (per mille)	
	19.2	1917-21	19.2	1917-21
Delhi	41.20		24.91	48.06
Bengal	27.40	30.20	25.20	32.00
Bihar and Orissa	35.00	35.40	24.10	39.60
Assam	28.43	28.60	26.83	32.18
United Provinces	32.17	37.66	25.01	47.75
Punjab	39.30	40.00	22.07	39.16
N W Frontier Province	23.70	28.60	21.68	35.41
Central Provinces and Berar	35.80	45.55	29.31	58.20
Madras	80.00	28.40	21.00	27.70
Coorg	26.07	27.55	34.60	36.26
Bombay	32.39	31.62	23.61	48.20
Burma, Lower	27.27	30.60	22.41	28.26
Burma, Upper	34.18	35.65	21.90	29.26
Ajmer Merwara	30.28	30.72	22.19	60.76
Total	81.85	33.97	24.02	38.42

Chief Diseases.—There are three main classes of fatal disease specific fevers, diseases affecting the abdominal organs, and lung diseases. Intestinal and skin parasites, ulcers and other indications of scurvy widely prevail. The table below shows the number of deaths from each of the principal diseases and from all other causes in British India and death rates per 1,000 —

Province	Cholera	Small pox	Plague	Fevers	Dysentery and Diarrhoea	Respiratory Diseases	All other causes
Delhi	6	22	191	6,725	369	3,947	1,212
	01	04	38	13.43	78	7.83	2.48
Bengal	51,712	7,864	150	885,268	23,411	26,371	178,470
	1.1	2	003	19.0	5	2.6	3.8
Bihar & Orissa	26,805	2,560	15,066	578,656	18,037	5,629	173,821
	7	07	4	17.0	5	1	5.0
Assam	16,219	2,610		112,094	10,237	8,405	34,492
	2.86	88		16.35	1.49	1.22	6.02
U Provinces	2,380	242	28,291	909,293	10,654	25,807	163,763
	06	01	51	20.04	23	56	3.61
Punjab	128	1,608	7,780	306,654	7,012	40,004	89,620
	01	06	38	14.95	94	1.95	4.37
N W F P	92	104	124	19,064	206	1,321	4,478
	04	05	05	18.72	10	62	2.10
C P & Berar	64	407	6,149	237,164	25,618	36,383	102,042
	006	03	45	17.05	1.84	2.62	7.34
Madras	16,502	22,801	9,193	319,888	51,805	48,166	391,081
	4	5	2	7.8	1.3	1.2	9.4
Coorg	4	1	8	4,404	188	181	682
	02	01	05	28.10	1.15	1.10	4.17
Bombay	2,766	1,170	8,379	197,888	21,118	82,682	138,576
	14	06	44	10.83	1.10	4.31	7.21
Lower Burma	4,060	1,229	4,455	56,968	7,378	8,868	74,066
	53	18	64	8.12	1.05	1.27	10.57
Upper "	987	210	2,827	25,926	1,562	3,050	47,642
	26	06	75	6.89	1.56	83	12.71
Ajmer Merwara	2	8	3	8,184	256	189	2,348
	00	02	00	16.53	52	1.23	4.74
British India 1921-22	450,608	40,446	69,682	4,761,237	229,576	334,103	1,499,460
	1.87	17	29	19.72	95	1.35	6.21
	121,679	40,836	77,619	3,689,086	177,862	280,533	1,402,491
	50	17	32	15.28	74	1.20	5.81

Taking India as a whole, the Public Health Commissioner reported, the year during 1922, experienced fairly normal seasonal climatic conditions for the second year in succession, which might well be reflected in morbidity and mortality statistics. Except in Madras and Bombay there was a reduction of deaths in all provinces compared with the quinquennial mean. Compared with 1921, there were slight increases of deaths in Delhi, Bihar and Orissa, Madras and Lower Burma.

Birth registration is notoriously defective and the registration of female births probably suffers more than that of males. Births exceeded deaths in all areas except Coorg.

The general figures are regarded as indicating that the population in the absence of conditions favourable to epidemicity responded steadily to the improvement in conditions consequent upon two successive good seasons.

Statistics from only a few Indian States are received by the Public Health Commissioner and it is evident from them that much requires to be done in the States to improve registration. Thus Mysore returns a birth rate of 17.91 and a death rate of 14.52 (despite epidemic prevalence of small pox, plague, malaria and relapsing fever).

The Public Health Commissioner reports that deaths during the first year of life were 23.2 per cent. of the total deaths against 20.8 in the preceding year. Infant mortality is a sensitive index of the health conditions, especially as regards sanitation, under which the people live. It is these conditions which require attention if any real influence on infant mortality and on the health of the nation is to be exercised. In British India as a whole 48.8 per cent. of the infantile deaths occurred

during the first month of life. Nearly one-third of the infantile deaths occur in the first week. Mortality at this period is associated more than at any other time with maternal conditions, which in their turn are inseparably connected with the nature of the environment and the liability to contagion.

As regards general mortality and particularly that from malaria, the Public Health Commissioner in his annual report quotes with approval the following opinion by Dr. Pais:—"Malaria impresses not only physical marks but above all physical degeneration on the race. It smites Distrust towards works of a social character diminished will power, diminished liking for work, restricted vision towards all the phenomena of life, are special characteristics of those with chronic malaria and of the peoples who have long suffered from the infection." Dr. Bentley who has made an expert study of malaria in various parts of the world and has in recent years specially devoted himself to it in India, gives reason for considering that in Bengal alone there are every year 28,800,000 cases of malaria requiring treatment. If this estimate be applied to the whole of India the number of cases requiring treatment throughout the land would be about 100,000,000.

The known results of vaccination in the prevention of small pox are an indication of the facility with which mortality can be prevented when the people accept with comparative readiness the scientific advice given them in health matters, as they do in regard to this measure. Had the average mortality from small pox during the decade 1868-1877 pertained in the last quinquennium the average annual mortality during the latter period from this cause alone would have been 248,712 instead of the recorded figure of 82,338.

THE HEALTH OF THE ARMY

British.—The average strength of European Troops, Regulars and Territorials, in India during 1922 was 60,166 as compared with 58,681 in 1921. The following table shows the main facts as regards the health:—

Period	Average strength	Admissions	Deaths.	Invalids sent home	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 average	69,440	39,380	303	488	2,094.57
1915-19 average	66,199	58,367	583	1,980	3,277.53
1920	57,332	61,429	385	2,314	3,483.08
1921	58,681	60,515	406	749	3,070.04
1922	60,166	37,636	284	714	1,902.32

Period.	Ratio per 1,000 of strength				Average period of illness of each soldier calculated on average strength.	Average duration of each case of sickness.
	Admissions	Deaths	Invalids sent home	Average constantly sick.		
1910-14 average	567.2	4.51	7.03	90.18	*10.00	*19.39
1915-19 average	881.7	8.81	29.91	49.51	18.07	20.50
1920	1,071.5	6.72	40.36	60.84	22.27	20.78
1921	1,031.3	6.95	12.76	52.32	19.10	18.52
1922	628.9	4.72	11.87	31.62	11.54	18.35

* Worked out on quinquennium aggregates

The main features of the tables are the progressive rise in the general sick rate during and after the Great War and the sudden drop in 1922. The causes of deterioration in the first case have fully been discussed in previous annual comments. The improvement, though apparently sudden, was really gradual in its onset, making itself more and more felt as the year progressed, an unusually mild hot weather and low incidence of malaria specially helping. The statistics here dealt with do not contain figures concerning troops in Waziristan because the conditions affecting them are special.

During the war sanitary supervision in cantonments unavoidably deteriorated, with the result that many ordinary measures for the preservation of health fell into abeyance. The post-war garrison consisted of young and untrained troops ignorant of the rules necessary for a healthy life in the tropics, with little or no

leavening of older hands to teach them and generally with officers as ignorant on these matters as themselves. The medical officers included many unfamiliar with the practical details of tropical sanitation and inexperienced in the peace administration of hospitals and troops in barracks. Consequently there had to be an educational period and a considerable weeding out of unfit. The improvement in the health returns marks its progress. Detailed tables show that the improvement in health among the troops was not confined to any one disease but was spread over them all with the exception of malaria. This was as usual the chief cause of sickness in 1922, but this year was not far above the average for 1910-14. The general death rate shows a decrease to 0.36 above pre-war average. An unexplicable post-war increase in deaths from respiratory diseases is the cause of the level now being higher than before the war.

Indian.—The average strength of Indian troops excluding those on field service and in stations outside India (but not excluding those at Aden and Bushire) was 147,840 in 1922, as compared with 175,384 in 1921.

The following table gives the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths, and invaliding for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1922 inclusive —

Period.	Average strength	Admissions	Deaths	Invalids	Average constantly sick	Ratio per 1,000 of strength			
						Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 (average)	130,261	71,218	573	699	2,662	544.6*	4.39*	5.4*	20.7*
1915-19 (average)	204,298	161,028	3,435	4,824	7,792	788.2	16.81	23.6	38.1
1920	216,445	164,964	2,124	4,564	9,255	762.3	9.81	21.1	42.8
1921	175,384	119,215	1,782	3,638	6,031	679.7	10.16	20.7	34.4
1922	147,840	77,468	1,014	2,659	3,639	524.0	6.86	18.0	24.6

The factors that exercised an adverse influence on the health of British troops during and after the war also affected Indian troops, but the bad effect was much less marked, probably because the men were not in the same need of acclimatisation and the recovery began earlier and has been carried further. The introduction of the station hospital system has probably tended to produce slightly increased ratios for admission to hospital and average constantly sick.

The ratios per thousand deaths and invaliding, though satisfactory when compared with those for 1921 are still much higher than the pre-war average. The high death rate is almost entirely caused by respiratory diseases in the causation of which influenza has probably taken part, while the invaliding is regarded as the aftermath of the heavy malaria incidence of the past few years. There has been an increased incidence of venereal disease.

MORTALITY FROM WILD ANIMALS

The total number of persons killed by wild animals in British India during 1923 amounted to 3,605, as against 3,263 in the previous year. Tigers were responsible for 1,693 deaths, leopards for 64, wolves for 835, bears for 79, elephants for 70 and hyenas for 18. Deaths were highest from tigers and leopards in Madras, from wolves in the United Provinces, from bears in Bihar and Orissa, and from elephants in Assam. Of the 446 deaths from "other animals" about 101 are assigned to wild boars and pigs and 213 to crocodiles and alligators. The highest number of deaths from all wild animals occurred in the United Provinces (900), Madras, and Central Provinces and Berar, and Bihar and Orissa coming next in order. There has been an abnormal increase of 418 deaths, chiefly from wolves, in the United Provinces over the previous years' figure, and this

A factor expected to benefit the health of troops is the abolition of the old system of regimental rationing and its replacement by a central issue in kind, the scale of which has been drawn up on a scientific basis so far as caste requirements permit.

The improvement in health of troops was not confined to any particular group of diseases. The figures concerning venereal disease are more than double the pre-war rate and the commands situated wholly in India show a much higher rate than those which include many frontier stations within their boundaries. This is regarded as indicating an increase of venereal disease among the civil population.

Statistics analysing the distribution of disease among troops in different commands show great variation in the incidence of sickness and mortality with differences of locality and climate.

more than accounts for the increase in the total number of deaths. The variations in other provinces do not call for special comment.

Snake Bite—The mortality from snake bites among human beings fell from 20,090 to 19,990. Decreases occurred in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, the Central Provinces and Berar and the Punjab, but the United Provinces, Madras and Burma have reported increases.

Animals Destroyed—23,911 wild animals were destroyed in 1923 of which 1,686 were tigers, 5,247 leopards, 2,548 bears and 1,687 wolves. A sum of Rs 1,85,367 was paid in rewards, against Rs 1,85,785 in the previous year. The number of snakes destroyed increased from 58,370 to 59,545 and the rewards paid for their destruction were Rs 817 as against Rs 1,250 in the previous year.

MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS.

There were in 1922-23 in India 3,454 States public, local fund and private aided civil hospitals and dispensaries and the number in 1922 was 3,685. The number of patients treated in them was 36,875,229 in 1922 against 37,137,200 in 1921.

Medical Colleges—There are seven medical colleges (Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Belgachia, Lahore, Delhi and Lucknow). There are also 18 medical schools. There is an X-ray institution at Dehra Dun.

Pasteur Institutes—There were Pasteur Institutes for anti-rabic treatment at Kasauli (Punjab), Coonoor (Madras), Shillong (Assam) and Rangoon (Burma).

Lunatic Asylums—The treatment of lunatics at asylums prevails on a comparatively small scale but the asylum population is steadily increasing. The number of asylums in 1922 was 22. The number of patients admitted was 2,106 in 1922 against 2,294 in 1921. The total asylum population of the year was 9,919.

Leprosy Asylums—There are many leprosy asylums among which may be mentioned the Madras Government Leprosy Asylum, the Matunga Leprosy Home, Bombay, the Trivandrum State Leprosy Asylum and the Calcutta Leprosy Asylum. There are also many asylums or homes, frequently under some sort of Government supervision, including about 50 asylums of the Mission to Lepers.

LEPROSY IN INDIA.

It is exceedingly difficult to give anything approaching an accurate estimate of the total number of lepers in the Indian Empire to-day. The census figures of 1921 give the total as 102,513, as against 109,094 in 1911. But it is doubtful if this figure represents anything

more than the more advanced cases and possibly a majority of this number are the beggar and pauper lepers who are seen all over the country. Dr F. Muir, the Leprosy Research Worker at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, says that "we think that it would

not be an over estimate to put down the number of lepers in India somewhere between a half and one million."

Treatment—In a recent article on this subject by the Secretary to the Mission to Lepers the position is summed up as follows—

Voluntary segregation is the right thing to encourage for those who will segregate themselves and receive treatment. Compulsory segregation is the course to follow in the case of those who persist in mixing with the healthy population and thus spreading the disease, as is the case with pauper and begging lepers

The extension of the use of the latest treatments is most important. Special leper clinics should be established by Government in suitable centres and the treatment provided free. And, lastly, an educational campaign should be commenced as soon as possible, and information about the disease itself—how it is spread and how to diagnose it, also the benefits of segregation and the efficacy of the latest treatments—spread all over the country. The situation was never more hopeful, and a wisely directed campaign against the disease would be certain to end in the stamping out of the disease in the whole of India."

CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT.

Amongst the most pressing problems of India's health is that presented by the appalling infant mortality. It has been calculated that every year no fewer than 2 million Indian babies die, while many others survive only to grow weak and feeble from unhygienic surroundings during infancy. A noteworthy feature has been the further progress of the infant welfare movement, which owes much to the All-India Maternity and Child Welfare League initiated by Lady Chelmsford and also to the Indian Red Cross Society, which aims at gradually establishing a network of child welfare centres in most of the larger towns in India. In all the great centres of population, work is now being done for the training of midwives for the instruction of mothers and for the care of babies. Training centres for Indian and Anglo-Indian women have been opened in order to spread the elements of infantile hygiene to other parts of India. Most hopeful sign of all, Indian ladies are beginning to interest themselves in this work in large numbers. But such is the magnitude of the field, that consistent and widespread effort on a scale hitherto impossible must be undertaken, if any appreciable reduction is to be made in the appalling mortality of young children. The admirable work done year by year by the National Association for supplying Female Medical Aid to the Women of India has been facilitated by the decision of the Legislative Assembly to grant an increased Government subsidy to the figure of £35,000.

Centres of Activity—The Child Welfare Directory gives the following list of places where the movement is already at work

Bombay—The centre of much active and enthusiastic welfare work, the Lady Willington Maternity Homes near the people's chawls being unique of their kind in India. The Bombay Infant Welfare Society founded by Lady Lloyd has already established 8 Infant Welfare Centres where prenatal, maternity and child welfare work is being carried on. The work carried out by the Seva Sadan Society of Poona deserves special mention in this connection. Child welfare centres have been established in several places throughout the Presidency and are in charge of Public Health Nurses trained

by the Seva Sadan Society. Certain of these Child Welfare centres are subsidized by the Bombay Branch of the Red Cross.

Surat—The Henderson Ophthalmic Scheme for treating Ophthalmia Neonatorum and stemming "the enormous amount of preventible and curable blindness that is laying its shadow over the health, happiness and usefulness of this great portion of our Empire."

Bijapur—Mr. Henderson, I.O.S., has now started the same beneficent work for blind babies as in Surat.

Dharwar—

Delhi—Work was started in 1914 by two lady health visitors brought out from England by the Government of India. Their salaries are now met by the Delhi Municipality, a substantial grant being paid towards them by Government. Three infant welfare centres have been established and a comprehensive scheme for the training and supervision of indigenous *daia* is carried on. A training school for health visitors and midwife supervisors has been established in connection with this scheme and is financed by the Lady Chelmsford League. The Secretary of this school from whom all particulars may be obtained is Mrs. Young, M.B., 1, Ludlow Castle Road, Delhi.

Madras—Under the Provincial Branch of the Lady Chelmsford League and of the Red Cross Society a number of Infant Welfare Centres have been opened in the City, also a school for training health visitors under Mrs. Chinappi, M.B., the Medical Superintendent of the Co-operative Midwives Scheme, by means of which trained midwives are provided for the City and much antenatal maternity and infant welfare work is carried on. There are also local centres of both the Red Cross and the Lady Chelmsford League in the Madras mofussil.

Punjab—The Punjab Branch of the Lady Chelmsford League was founded in 1921 and has established an Infant Welfare Centre and a school for training health visitors in Lahore under two health visitors brought from England. Its object is to establish child welfare centres with a trained health visitor in charge in each district.

United Provinces.—A Branch of the Lady Chetford League was established in 1923 and is at present mapping out its course of action

Ahmedabad.—Three Maternity Homes, and five cèches in mills

Calcutta.—Six Midwife Supervisors and six Health Visitors with subordinate assistants and six Red Cross Child Welfare centres

Dacca.—A scheme for the training of indigenous daws was opened in 1921 and is meeting with marked success

Lahore.—Baby Welcome and 2 English Health Visitors

Lyaipur.—1 Welfare Centre

Simla.—1 Welfare Centre and Health Visitor employed by the Simla Municipality

Ludhiana.—Much good work under W C M College

Stalkot.—

Dakra Ismail Khan.—

Lucknow.—Municipal Scheme and Midwife Supervisor

Agra.—Training of daws under Victoria Memorial Scholarship Fund

Allahabad.—Three Red Cross Child Welfare centres

Bareilly.—Maternity Scheme opened by Mrs Stubbs in 1922

Shahjahanpur.—

Gorakhpur, Hardwar, Almora.—

Jubbulpore, Nagpur, Bhopal, Kapurthala, Medak.—

Bangalore.—Crèche, two English Health Visitors and 7 Midwives

Quetta.—Two Red Cross Child Welfare centres

Peshawar.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre

Indore.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre

Secunderabad.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre and a Convalescent Home for Mothers, three Red Cross Child Welfare centres for British Children

Coorg.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre

So far all the schemes have devoted their attention to combating the prejudices of the mothers in respect of new born children. In a land of so many languages and superstitions progress will necessarily be slow and India has yet to decide whether she will work intensively and try to rear a few well developed children as far as adolescence or extensively attempt to bring a large number of infants through the first critical months, only to have them perish at a later stage from the many ills that childhood is heir to in a land of great poverty under-nourishment, epidemics and famine. In Western lands the Child Welfare Movement has no more marked characteristic than its inability to stop expanding. Its ramifications know no bounds. Its inevitable corollaries are endless, and like the banyan tree it will no doubt in India also develop innumerable fresh roots, medical supervision, dental clinics, better housing, open air playgrounds, etc etc. But these are not yet. Its preliminary task is to educate the mothers of India to the enormity of allowing two million babies to perish every year and to convince them of the equally important fact that a high death rate always spells also a high damage rate of sickly, under-developed, incompetent citizens

INDIAN RED CROSS SOCIETY.

When the war first broke out, what is generally termed Red Cross work was undertaken in India and Mesopotamia by the St John Ambulance Association and by a number of provincial organisations working on independent lines. From August 1916, the central work was taken over by the Indian Branch of the Joint War Committee of the Order of St John of Jerusalem and the British Red Cross Society. The final report of that Committee shows that up to June 1920 its total receipts amounted to Rs 1,77,85,716 of which some 17 lakhs had been contributed by the British Red Cross Society. It had spent about 67 lakhs in Mesopotamia, nine lakhs on the Afghan War and Westristan Expedition. In Mesopotamia and India combined it had spent on Red Cross objects in all about 117 lakhs

It closed its career in June 1920 under the following circumstances. In the summer of 1919, an invitation had been received to join the International League of Red Cross Societies, having for its object the extension of Red Cross work in the sphere of purely civil activity. Though there was then no formally constituted Red Cross Society in India, the invitation was accepted, thus giving India a distinct position

in a world wide League of humanitarian societies. A Bill to constitute an Indian Red Cross Society was introduced by Sir Claude Hill in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920, and duly passed into law as Act XV of 1920. This Act handed over the balance of the Joint War Committee to the new Society, and authorised it not only to direct the utilization for war purposes of the capital funds at its disposal but also to devote the interest, as far as possible, for civil purposes. The Act allows the constitution of autonomous provincial societies affiliated to the main Society, and it is with these branches that the task lies of organising and stimulating the new civil activities of the Red Cross throughout India. Provincial Societies have now been constituted in all provinces, Central India and Delhi, in Bengal the Society was constituted by a special Act of the Bengal Legislature

The objects on which the funds of the Society may be spent are—

1. The care of the sick and wounded men of His Majesty's Forces, whether still on the active list or demobilised.

2. The care of those suffering from Tuberculosis, having regard in the first place to

soldiers and sailors, whether they have contracted the disease on active service or not

3 Child welfare

4. Work parties to provide the necessary garments, etc., for hospitals and health institutions in need of them.

5 Assistance required in all branches of nursing, health and welfare work, ancillary to any organisations which have or may come into being in India and which are recognised by the Society

6 Home Service Ambulance Work

7 Provision of comforts and assistance to members of His Majesty's Forces, whether on the active list or demobilised.

Constitution—His Excellency the Viceroy is President of the Society. The Managing Body ordinarily consists of a Chairman to be nominated by the President and 25 members of the Society of whom 12 are the Vice-Presidents nominated by Provincial or State Branches, 8 elected by the Society at the Annual General Meeting from among the members of the Society and 5 nominated by the President.

The present Chairman of the Managing Body is the Hon'ble Sir Frederick Whyte, Kt. and the Organising Secretary, Lieut Colonel H. Rose, O.B.E., I.M.S.

Finances.—The operations of the Joint War Committee were brought to a close in June 1920 with a capital investment of the face value of Rs 56,33,000 and Rs 8,01,500-3-6 in floating and fixed deposit accounts. The Society has since invested further funds in various securities and its finances in July 1921 stood at a capital investment of the face value of Rs 64,33,000 and about Rs 65,000 in fixed and floating accounts. The income derived from the capital of the Society (which is 8½ lakhs at present after providing for certain liabilities of the Central Society) is distributable under the Act to the Provincial Branches in proportion to their contributions to the Central "Our Day" Fund. In the year 1920, partly owing to the Central Society's heavy commitments on the North West Frontier, and partly due to the fact that the Provincial Branches had not been fully formed, only a sum of Rs 32,000 was distributed. In the year 1921, however, Rs 1½ lakh was set aside for distribution to Branch Societies, in 1922 Rs 2 lakhs, and in 1923 Rs 2½ lakhs. At the end of the year the Society possessed Government Securities of the face value of Rs 66,33,000, the market value of which was quoted at Rs 63,37,428-8-0, also a cash balance of Rs 59,074.

ST. JOHN AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION

The St John Ambulance Association was founded in 1877, by the Order of the Hospital of St John of Jerusalem in England, and has for its objects—

(a) The instruction of persons in rendering First Aid in cases of accident or sudden illness and in the transport of the sick and injured ;

(b) The instruction of persons in the elementary principles and practice of nursing, and also of hygiene and sanitation, especially of a sick room ;

(c) The manufacture, and distribution by sale or presentation, of ambulance material, and the formation of ambulance depots in mines, factories, and other centres of industry and traffic ;

(d) The Organisation of Ambulance Corps, Invalid Transport Corps, and Nursing Corps ;

(e) And generally the promotion of instruction and carrying out of works for the relief of suffering of the sick and injured in peace and war independently of class, nationality, or denomination

An Indian Council of the Association was constituted in 1910. It has since issued 98,940 certificates of proficiency in First Aid, Home

Nursing, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and 4,536 tokens such as Vouchers, Medallions, Labels and Pendants for special proficiency in those subjects. The object of the Association is not to rival, but to aid, the medical man, and the subject matter of instruction given at the classes qualifies the pupil to adopt such measures as may be advantageous pending the doctor's arrival, or during the intervals between his visits.

In 1923 the Indian Council spent Rs 39,465-11-0 in furthering its objects and closed the year with Govt securities of the face value of Rs 85,000 and a cash balance of Rs 1,912-3-0. The Association has five grades of members namely, Patrons, Honorary Councillors, Life Members, Annual Members and Annual Associates. Their respective subscriptions are Rs 1,000, Rs 500, Rs 100, Rs 5, and Rs 2.

Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Reading and General Lord Rawlinson as President, Lady President and Chairman, respectively, with 17 members formed the Indian Council in 1923. The general business of the Indian Council is conducted by an Executive Committee with the Hon'ble Sir Frederick Whyte, Kt. as Chairman and Lt.-Colonel H. Rose, O.B.E., O.B.R., I.M.S., as organising Secretary.

LUNACY AND ASYLUMS IN INDIA.

The accommodation for mentally afflicted persons in British India is, like that for those afflicted bodily, very inadequate. In the Native States, the condition of affairs as regards the provision of institutions for the care and

treatment of the insane, is still worse as no Asylums exist there at all, so that those whose melody is such as to render their freedom a public menace, are for the most part confined in the local jails.

According to the Census Reports of 1911 out of a total population of 815,156,396 (India and Burma), there are 81,006 persons insane making a proportion of insane to sane of 5 per every 10,000

In the United Kingdom the proportion of insane to sane is roughly 40 per 10,000, while

In New Zealand it is as much as 45 per 10,000 In reviewing these figures it must be borne in mind that those of the United Kingdom and New Zealand include the "feeble-minded," an item that is not included in the figures for British India.

INDIA.

Provinces, States and Agencies	General population			Insane population		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Provinces under British Administration	124,872,691	119,393,851	244,267,542	42,064	26,094	68,158
States and Agencies	86,465,244	84,423,610	70,888,854	7,979	4,869	12,848
Total for all India	161,338,935	153,817,461	815,156,396	50,043	30,963	81,006

For the care of the 81,006 insanes of India and Burma, there exists accommodation in Asylums for roughly 8,000, hence only one person in ten out of the total insane population of the country, can be afforded accommodation in the institutions that exist especially for their care and treatment

The following table gives the number of Lunatic Asylums in each province during 1922,

the total population of such institutions in each province and the number discharged, cured and died

The number of asylums has not changed

There has been a decrease in the admissions and re-admissions during the year largely accounted for by the decrease in the admissions of military insanes

Province	Number of Asylums	Admitted and readmitted during year	Total Asylum Population			Discharged cured	Died	Daily average strength	Daily average sick	Criminal Lunatic		
			Males	Females	Total							
* Bengal	4									.		
Assam	1	107	446	105	551	64	27	443 82	40 09	216		
Bihar and Orissa	2	104	384	138	522	67	29	417 61	49 42	151		
United Provinces	3	348	1,352	307	1,659	190	114	1,309 82	216 94	304		
Punjab	1	322	919	249	1,168	113	58	867 17	40 61	198		
Central Provinces	1	56	348	92	440	36	20	349 20	22 03	117		
Bombay	6	454	1,452	453	1,905	267	117	1,443 0	58 0	244		
Madras	3	344	997	289	1,286	157	82	967 46	125 27	206		
Burma	2	225	931	165	1,096	59	66	904 98	148 64	447		
Total	{	1920	23	2,509	8,081	2,012	10,093	1,019	800	7,601 94	863 32	2,406
		1921	23	2,245	7,870	2,016	9,886	1,035	768	7,649 26	849 32	2,424

* Figures for 1922 are not available.

The administration of Asylums is under the direct control of the Provincial administrative Medical Officers. In the case of the so-called "Central" Asylums, that is to say, the Asylums at Madras, North Yeravda (Bombay Presidency), Lahore (Punjab), Agra (United Provinces of Agra and Oudh), Berhampore (Bengal), and Rangoon (Burma) as well as the Asylum at Ranchi the charge of the institution is in the hands of a wholesale medical officer who is termed the "Superintendent." He is usually, but by no means always, a trained alienist. The remaining Asylums are in the charge of the Civil Surgeon of the locality in which they happen to be situated. Not one of the existing Asylums in British India can be said to be up-to-date as regards construction, organisation, staffing or equipment. In every instance, even including the new Asylum for Burma which is now under construction in Rangoon, the custodial aspect of the institution has received the greatest amount of consideration with the result that only a very little attention has been paid to all that goes towards the remedial requirements of the institution. It will probably take some years yet to obtain in India proper recognition of the fact that an Asylum for persons suffering

from mental diseases should be a "hospital" in every sense of the term, hence its chief raison d'être is to treat and to cure, and that every other consideration must be made secondary to this fundamental concept. Indeed, in almost every country in the world which makes any pretension to be regarded as civilised, the term "Asylum" has now been abolished for all institutions dedicated to the care and treatment of the insane. Owing to the lack of interest in Psychiatry and all that this term generally connotes in Europe and America, the nomenclature that is still followed in the classification of mental diseases renders all official returns that are supposed to deal with the types of insanity occurring in the various Asylums in India, comparatively worthless. Even were a less obsolete classification of the varieties of mental diseases introduced it would not be possible in the existing absence of properly trained alienists to render information that would be of any great statistical value from a psychiatric stand-point. The following table shows the classification of the types of insanity recorded in the reports published by every Province in India in the year 1910.

The principal types of insanity treated during the year 1922 in the Lunatic Asylums, in the Provinces of—

	Bengal	Assam	Bihar & Orissa	United Provinces	Bombay	Madras	Punjab	Central Provinces.	Burma	Total
Idiocy	56	4	4	62	54	34	84	18	23	..
Mania	381	254	169	563	753	412	438	268	489	..
Melancholia	295	203	32	163	357	155	175	94	330	..
Mental Stupor	7		17	41	30	43	2		20	.
Delusional Insanity	75	9	21	50	148	82	40	13	73	.
Insanity caused by Quinine fevers or its preparations	178	71	4	225	181	106	139	2	4	..
Dementia	82	1	175	189	265	254	85	26	107	

It will be seen from the foregoing that the largest number of cases in the Asylums are shown as "Mania" and "Melancholia." These terms "Mania" and "Melancholia" are now a-days regarded as obsolete. For purposes of comparison of the terms that are nowadays employed to distinguish psychopathic states with those that are still permitted to hold good in India the following extract has been made from a recent report published by the Union of South Africa:—

Exhaustion Psychoses.
Schizophrenic Psychoses.

Intoxication Psychoses.
Thyrogenous Psychoses
Dementia Precox.
Dementia Paralytica.
Organic Dementias.
Involution Psychoses.
Manic-depressive Psychosis.
Paranoia.
Epileptic Psychoses.
Psychogenic Neurosis.
Constitutional Psychopathic States.
Psychopathic Personalities.
Defective Mental Development.

As regards the incidence of insanity among the various races of India as well as the incidence of insanity in relation to occupation no really reliable information is obtainable in view of the comparative paucity of cases in proportion to the general population that come under observation. On the other the incidence by age is shown fairly well in the Census Report of 1911 to be as follows

INDIA

AGE	Insane.		Distribution of the insane by age per 10,000 of each sex	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
YEARS				
0-5	508	427	102	120
5-10	2,715	1,750	547	566
10-15	4,181	2,696	833	876
15-20	4,663	3,165	940	1,028
20-25	5,543	3,892	1,118	1,005
25-30	6,298	3,120	1,270	1,013
30-35	6,528	3,466	1,316	1,126
35-40	4,839	2,481	976	790
40-45	4,760	3,067	960	996
45-50	2,849	1,759	574	571
50-55	2,765	2,174	558	706
55-60	1,187	915	239	297
60-65	1,478	1,325	567	795
65-70	486	871		
70 and over age unspecified	853	751		
	446	174		
Total for all India	50,043	30,968		

A further result of the general apathy, both official and non-official, towards matters pertaining to psychiatry, the subject of "feeble mindedness," has not yet come to be recognised as one that has any practical bearing on the welfare of the state as a whole with the result that there is no official institution for the care and education of feeble-minded children.

As regards the relation of insanity to crime, and more especially as regards the confinement of criminal insane in jails, the report of the re-

cent Commission of Enquiry into the subject of Indian Jails (published in 1920) contains some valuable suggestions. As things are the ideas both as regards the theory and the practice of dealing with insanity and crime in India, embodied in the existing legislation can only be described as archaic.

(See also "Insanity in India," by Colonel G. P. W. Ewens, I.M.S., and "Lunacy in India," by Major A. W. Overbeck-Wright, M.D., D.P.M., I.M.S.)

The Women's Medical Service for India.

This Service is included in the National Association for supplying medical aid by women to the women of India, generally known as the Countess of Dufferin's Fund and is administered by the Executive Committee and Council of that Fund. The Government of India has so far allotted the sum of £25,000 per annum towards its maintenance. The present sanctioned cadre is forty-four first class medical women, with a training reserve of 8 women graduates in medicine of Indian Universities. Recruitment of the service is made (a) in India by a medical sub-committee of the Council which includes the Director General, Indian Medical Service, the Honorary Secretary to the Council and the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service, (b) in England, by a sub-committee, including a medical man and two medical women conversant with conditions in India. These sub-committees perform the duties of a medical board examining candidates for physical fitness, and for return to duty after invaliding.

The Council determines what proportions of the members of the Service is to be recruited in England and in India respectively. In the original constitution of the Service, duly qualified medical women who are in the service of, or who have rendered approved service to, the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, are to have the first claim to appointment, and thereafter special consideration is to be paid to the claims of candidates who have qualified in local institutions and of those who are natives of India.

Qualifications.—The qualifications are that the candidate must be (a) a British subject resident in the United Kingdom or in a British Colony or in British India, or a person resident in any territory of any Native Prince or Chief under the suzerainty of His Majesty exercised through the Governor-General of India or through any Governor or other officer subordinate to the Governor-General of India. (b) Must be between the ages of twenty-four and thirty at entry. (c) She must be a first-class medical woman, i.e., she must possess a medical qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under the Medical Act, or an Indian or Colonial qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under that Act but this condition does not apply at the original constitution of the Service to medical women in charge of hospitals who, in the opinion of the Council, are of proved experience and ability. (d) The candidate must produce a certificate of health and character. But the Council reserves the power to promote to the service ladies not possessing the above qualifications, but who have shown marked capacity. Members of the Service are required to engage for duty anywhere in India. After one year of probation has been satisfactorily passed their appointments are confirmed. The services of officers may be lent to Local or Municipal bodies, or to special institutions, which may be responsible for whole or part of the pay.

Pay—The rates of pay are as follows—

1st to 4th	3rd to 6th	year	Rs	450	per month
4th to 6th	"	"	"	500	"
7th to 10th	"	"	"	550	"
10th to 12th	"	"	"	600	"
13th to 15th	"	"	"	650	"
16th to 18th	"	"	"	700	"
19th to 21st	"	"	"	750	"
22nd to 24th	"	"	"	800	"
25th and after	"	"	"	850	"

also an overseas allowance of Rs 100 per month to those below 12 years' service and Rs 150 per month to those of 12 years' service and over. But no member can be confirmed in the 600-rupee grade unless she has passed an examination in such vernacular as the Provincial Committee shall prescribe. In addition furnished quarters are provided free of rent, or a house rent allowance to be determined by the Provincial Committee may be granted in lieu of it.

Officers of the Service are permitted to engage in private practice provided it does not interfere with their official duties, and the Provincial Committee has the power to determine whether such duties are thus interfered with. Except in very special cases retirement is compulsory at the age of fifty-five. An officer whose appointment is not confirmed, or who is dismissed, is granted an allowance sufficient to pay her passage to England.

Leave Rules.—(a) Casual Leave, which is occasional leave on full pay for a few days, and is not supposed to interrupt duty. (b) Leave on average pay is granted up to 2-11 of an officer's period on duty, according to Fundamental Rules. More than eight months leave on average pay is not granted at one time. (c) Study leave may also be granted up to twelve months during the whole service. An allowance of 12 sh per day is granted in addition to average pay during study leave. (d) Sick leave, up to a maximum of two years. (e) Extraordinary leave at any time at the discretion of the Executive Committee. When on sick leave the allowances are half the average monthly pay of the six months' presence on duty immediately preceding the taking of the leave. There are no allowances during extraordinary leave. A doctor appointed in England receives a sum of £100 to cover her passage and incidental expenses. There are also allowances to cover the cost of journeys by rail and road.

There is also a Provident Fund, each member contributing monthly thereto ten per cent of her salary, the Association contributing an equal amount, and each subscriber's account being granted interest on the amount standing to credit at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, or at such rate as the Council can invest without risk to the funds of the Association.

The officer loses her contributions if she resigns (except on account of ill-health) before completing five years' service, or in the event of dismissal. On retirement after approved service the sum which has accumulated to the credit of the subscriber is handed over to her.

The Lady Hardinge Medical College—The Lady Hardinge Medical College, Hospital, and Training School for Nurses and Compounders are intended to commemorate the visit of Her Imperial Majesty to India in 1911. The foundation stone was laid by Lady Hardinge on March 17th, 1914, and after her death three months later it was suggested by Her Imperial Majesty that the Institution should serve as a memorial of its founder and be called by her name. The College was opened by Lord Hardinge in February 1918, and the Hospital by Lady Chelmsford in March 1917. The College is managed by a Governing Body, of which the President is the Director General of the I.M.S., and the members include the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, the Chief Engineer of Delhi, the Chief Medical Officer Women's Medical Service, a representative elected by the All-India Association of Medical Women and a representative of the Educational Service, also co-opted members of the Indian Legislature. The Honorary Secretaries, who are also members of the Governing Body are the Surgeon to His Excellency the Viceroy and the Deputy Secretary in the Department of Education and Health. The Deputy Accountant General, Central Revenue, acts as Honorary Treasurer.

The main object of the Institution is to provide complete courses of instruction to Indian women who wish to qualify for a University degree in medicine or to receive a full training as Nurses or Compounders.

An additional object is the provision of medical, surgical and obstetric treatment for women, having a due regard to *pardah* and caste customs. The patients are either treated in the Hospital Wards or are permitted to reside with their families in separate cottages built for the purpose.

THE COUNTESS OF DUFFERIN'S FUND.

The National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women in India was founded by the Countess of Dufferin in 1886 the object being to open women's hospitals and women's wards in existing hospitals to train women doctors, nurses and midwives in India, and to bring these out when necessary from Europe. An endowment fund of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription. In addition Branches were formed in each Province, each Branch having its own funds and each having a number of Local Committees and Zenana Hospitals affiliated to it.

The Central Fund gives grants-in-aid to several Provincial Branches, it gives Scholarships to a number of women students at the Medical schools of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi, it gives post-graduate scholarships for study in the United Kingdom. It has in the past brought from England a certain number of European medical women. It has assisted by grants-in-

LADY READING WOMEN OF INDIA FUND

The Lady Reading Women of India Fund was opened by H.B. Lady Reading in 1922 with the object of assisting the most necessitous of the existing funds and establishing an Indian Nursing Association. Up to the present time the Fund has been used to send suitable Indian nurses to England for post-graduate training with the intention that they should return and take up administrative nursing posts in

SENIOR STAFF

Principal and Professor of Gynaecology and Midwifery—Miss C. J. Campbell, M.D., Ch.B. (Glas.), Women's Medical Service for India.
Vice-Principal and Professor of Surgery—Miss H. M. McMillan, M.B., Ch.B., F.R.C.S. (Edin.), W.M.S.
Professor of Medicine—Miss B. Scott, M.D., S.B. (Lond.), W.M.S.
Professor of Ophthalmology—Miss J. F. McIlroy, M.A., D.Sc., M.B., Ch.B. (Glas.), D.P.H. (Edin.).
Professor of Pathology—Miss M. A. B. Murphy, M.B., Ch.B., D.P.H. (Dublin).
Professor of Anatomy—Miss M. C. Murphy, M.B. (Cal.), L.R.O.P. (Lond.) M.B.C.S. (Eng.), W.M.S.
Professor of Physiology—Miss M. S. Macdonald, M.B., Ch.B.
Professor of Chemistry—Miss Ram, Nat. Sci. Trip. (Cambridge).
Professor of Botany and Zoology—Miss Burt, B.Sc.
Professor of Physics and Mathematics—Miss Ross, B.Sc. (Lond.).
Lecturer in English—Mrs. Sharp. Hon. Schools, Glascocks (Oxon).
Warden and Secretary—Miss M. W. Jeason, Maths. Tripos (Cantab.).

The Training School for Nurses—This is intended to give a thorough training in all branches of Nursing and in Midwifery. All particulars of courses of training and conditions of admission may be obtained from the Superintendent, Training School for Nurses, Lady Hardinge Medical College Hospital for Women and Children, Delhi. **Superintendent**—Miss BONSON.

The Training School for Compounders—A limited number of candidates are taken for training. All particulars of training and conditions of admission may be obtained from Miss O. Crooke, M.F.S.

aid the building of a number of zenana hospitals in different parts of India. It has affiliated to it 13 Provincial Branches and a number of Local Committees.

The President is H.E. the Countess of Reading, O.I. G.B.E., The Hon. Secretary is Lt.-Colonel Norman Walker, I.M.S., and the Secretary Dr. A. C. Scott, O.M.O., V.V.M.S.

The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund was organised by Lady Curzon in 1903, in order to secure a certain amount of improvement in the practising dais of India. A sum of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription, and centres were organised in each Province to carry out the objects of the Fund. Over 2,000 midwives have been trained in addition to large numbers who have been partially trained. Of late years the Fund has done much to pave the way for the registration and supervision of indigenous dais. It has also done much propaganda work.

India. It has also been used to build, equip and endow a first class hospital of 60 beds for Indian women and children in Simla (the Lady Reading Hospital) and to build a nursing hotel in Delhi for Indian nurses.

Amalgamation of Administration—At a general meeting held in Simla in July 1923 it was decided that the administration of the Funds for the physical welfare of Indian women

under the Presidency of the Viceroy's wife should be administered by a single committee and with identical rules. These funds are the Committee of Dufferin's Fund, Women's Medical Service for India, Victoria Memorial Scholarship Fund, Lady Chelmsford, All-India Maternity League and Lady Reading Women of India

Fund. The President of the Amalgamated Committee is H.E. the Countess of Reading and the Hon. and Joint Secretaries are respectively Lt-Col Norman Walker, I.M.S., Surgeon to the Viceroy and Dr A. C. Scott, W.M.S. The Hon Treasurer is Sir Frederic Gauntlett

NURSING.

Whilst India cannot show the complete chain of efficiently-nursed hospitals which exists in England, there has been a great development of skilled nursing of recent years. This activity is principally centered in the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay Presidencies, where the chief hospitals in the Presidency towns are well nursed, and where large private staffs are maintained, available to the general public on payment of a prescribed scale of fees. These hospitals also act as training institutions, and turn out a yearly supply of fully trained nurses, both to meet their own demands and those of outside institutions and private agencies. In this way the supply of trained nurses, English, Anglo-Indian and Indian, is being steadily increased. In Bombay the organisation has gone a step farther, through the establishment of the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, c/o St George's Hospital, Bombay. This is composed of representatives of the various Nursing Associations in charge of individual hospitals, and works under the Government. The principle on which the relations of this Association with the Local Associations is governed is that there shall be central examination and control combined with complete individual autonomy in administration.

State Registration of Nurses for all India is much required. A meeting was held in Bombay in 1923 when Nurses from the Presidency met to discuss the question. It is desired that India should have its own State Register as in the United Kingdom, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia, Canada and Burma, and that the curricula and examinations should be brought into line with these countries. Government has proposed to establish a Provincial Register preparatory to an All-India Register.

Nursing Bodies.—The Honorary Secretary of the Calcutta Nursing Association is Mr. E. A. B. Reynold, the Presidency General Hospital. The address of the Mayo Hospital Nursing Association is in Strand Road. In Madras there is the General Hospital, with a staff of 62 nurses, the Government Maternity Hospital, the Caste and Gotha Hospital at Kilpauk, the Royappa Hospital and the Ophthalmic Hospital, also the Lady Amphill Nurses' Institute and the South Indian Nursing Association (now amalgamated). President Her Excellency Lady Coschen. The Association has under its management—*The Lady Amphill Nurses' Institute*, Western Clift, Mount Road, Madras. Fully trained and experienced nurses for all cases of illness both among Europeans and Indians, always available. *The Lady W. Kingston Nursing Home*, Western Clift, Mount Road, Madras, and *Nursing, Training and Convalescent Home*, Ottumwood, for Medical, Surgical and Maternity cases. *The Nigiri Nursing Home* affords admirable facilities for convalescence.

Bombay Presidency.—The Bombay Presidency was amongst the first in India to realise the value of nursing in connection with hospital work. The first steps were taken on the initiative of Mr L. R. W. Forrest at St. George's Hospital, Bombay, where a regular nursing cadre for the hospital was established together with a small staff of nurses for private cases. This was followed by a similar movement at the J. J. and Allied Hospitals and afterwards spread to other hospitals in the Presidency. Ultimately, the Government laid down a definite principle with regard to the financial aid which they would give to such institutions, agreeing to contribute a sum equal to that raised from private sources. Afterwards, as the work grew, it was decided by Government that each nursing association attached to a hospital should have a definite constitution and consequently these bodies have all been registered as Associations under Act 21 of 1880. By degrees substantial endowments have been built up, although the Associations are still largely dependent upon annual subscription towards the maintenance of their work. The Associations are as follows—

St. George's Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary F. B. Thornely, Esq., St. George's Hospital, Bombay.
J. J. Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary Dr. M. V. Mehta, F.R.C.P., Jamarajji Jijibhai Hospital, Bombay.
Goolaldas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association. Secretary J. P. Brander, Esq., I.C.S., Old Custom House, Bombay.
Cama Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary H. C. B. Mitchell, Esq., Cama Hospital, Bombay.
Sassoon Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary A. C. Wild Esq., I.C.S., Poona.
Karachi Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary H. H. Hood Esq., Karachi.
Nasik Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Nasik Hospital, Nasik.
Ahmedabad and Lely Memorial Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Ahmedabad.
Bijapur Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Bijapur.
Dharwar Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Dharwar.
Prince of Wales Nursing Association, Aden. Hon. Secretary E. Samerville Murray Esq., Aden.
Karwar Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary D. S. Dhava, Esq., Karwar.
Victory Nursing Association, Sholapur. Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Sholapur.
Byramjee Jeebhoy Hospital Nursing Association, Madras.

Hon. Secretary, Lt.-Col. B. B. Paymaster, I.M.S.

Ahmednagar Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Hon. Secretary, Civil Surgeon, Ahmednagar.

After further experience it was felt that it is undesirable to have a considerable number of detached and independent nursing associations, training and certifying nurses, without any common standard of entrance examination, or certification. It was therefore decided to establish the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association which came into existence in the year 1910.

The principle on which the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association works is a central system of examination, certification, registration and control. It is now the only nursing, examining, registering and certifying body in the Bombay Presidency. At the same time, the local associations retain entire charge of their local funds excepting Provident funds which have been transferred to the Central fund, and also entire control of the nurses when they are in their employment. Proposals are now before Government for absorbing the personnel of the local associations into a Presidency Nursing Association. This will not however affect the individuality of local associations which will continue to control their own funds and to exercise control over local establishments, subject in the latter case to such limitations as a revision of the nature in question will require.

The Association commenced its operations on the 1st April 1911. The institutions recognized under the by laws for the training of nurses at present are—St. George's Hospital, J. J. Hospital, Cama and Albless Hospital, Bal Motilal Hospital, Bombay, Hutcheson and Fremantle Civil Hospital, Ahmedabad, Civil Hospital, Belgaum, Morarbhai Vrijbhukhandas Hospital, Surat, Karachi Civil Hospital, Karachi, Sassoon Hospital, Poona, State General Hospital, Baroda, King Edward Memorial Hospital, Sholapur and the following for the training of Midwives: M. V. Hospital, Civil Hospital, Surat, Victoria Jubilee and King Edward VII Hospital, Ahmedabad, Bal Motilal Hospital, J. J. Hospital, Cama and Albless Hospital, Bombay, Dufferin Hospital, Karachi, Sassoon Hospital, St. Margaret's Hospital, King Edward Memorial Hospital, Poona, Civil Hospital, Belgaum, Dufferin Hospital, Sholapur, Wadia Maternity Homes, Super Bag Parel, Bombay Civil Hospital, Ahmedabad.

Provision for retiring allowances is made for all members on the basis of a Provident Fund and a Nursing Reserve has been established for employment in emergencies such as war, pestilence or public danger or calamity.

Address—The Secretary, Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, Secretariat Bombay.

Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association—In 1906 this Association was inaugurated, replacing the Punjab and Up-country Nursing Association for Europeans in India, which Society, established in 1892, had accomplished much useful work in this country. Owing, however, to lack of funds it was found impossible to continue its administration and to carry out the expansion of the work so urgently called for. The name of the helpers identified with the premier Association to whom the public

must ever be indebted are the Hon. Lady Lyttleton, Lady Helen Munro Ferguson and Mrs. Cottrell, while Mrs. Sheppard, by her indefatigable efforts, is truly entitled to be regarded as the pioneer of a trained nursing system throughout the greater part of India. The late Lady Curzon worked energetically to provide an enlarged Nursing organization, but mainly owing to financial reasons, she was unable before she left India to bring the scheme to fruition. The Home Committee of the existing Association, recognizing the need for expansion, consented to take over the present Association and approached Lady Minto before she left England in 1905 for co-operation towards this project, and after much consideration and discussion with the Government of India, Lieut.-Governors and Commissioners of Provinces, the present Association was established. An appeal by Lady Minto, addressed to the public both in England and India, was responded to most generously, and sufficient funds were collected to form an endowment fund, which has in spite of fluctuations increased a little with time. The assistance of a Government grant is much valued, as it enables Homes for the Sisters to be kept up in six Provinces in India and in Burma. At the request of the Home Committee the enlarged Association was renamed the "Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association."

The duties of the Home Committee are, as before, largely concerned in dispatching—as required—suitably trained and carefully selected Nurses for service on the staff of the Association in India. Thus, Europeans who are members of this Association are enabled to obtain skilled nursing at moderate charges on a sliding scale of fees determined by the income of each patient. The boon of obtaining good nursing at moderate terms is much appreciated, the rates of subscriptions being really an insurance against illness.

Her Majesty the Queen is a Patron of the Association. Her Excellency the Countess of Reading is President of the Central Committee in India.

Hon. Secretary: Lt.-Colonel T. N. Walker, I.M.S.

Hon. Treasurer: W. J. Litster, Esq., O.B.E. Chief Lady Superintendent: Miss F. A. Hodgson. Address—Central Committee, L.M.I., N.A., Viceregal Lodge, Simla, or Delhi.

Hon. Secretary, Home Committee: Lt.-Col. Sir Warren R. Crooke-Lawless, C.B., C.I.E., O.B.E., LL.D., House Governor, Osborne, Isle of Wight.

Secretary, Home Committee: Miss M. E. Bay, R.E.C., 64, Ashburnham Mansions, Chelsea.

Nurses' Organizations—The Association of Nursing Superintendents of India is now amalgamated with the Trained Nurses' Association of India, and has the one set of officers. The Trained Nurses' Association of India and the Association of Nursing Superintendents of India are not Associations to employ or to supply nurses, but are organizations with a membership wholly of nurses with the avowed objects of improving and unifying nursing education, promoting *esprit de corps* among nurses, and upholding the dignity and honour of the nursing profession. The Associations have a membership of 454 including nurses trained in ten or more different

countries, Europeans, Americans, New Zealanders, Australians and Indians. The Association of Superintendents was started in 1905 as the Association of Nursing Superintendents of the United Provinces and the Punjab, but by the next year its membership had spread over the country to such an extent that the name was changed to include the whole of India. The Trained Nurses' Association was

started in 1908, and a monthly Journal of Nursing began to be published by the two Associations in February, 1910. The Associations are affiliated with the International Council of Nurses.

President Miss Hodgson Viceregal Lodge, Delhi

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer Miss Griffin, Bahat Manzil Nicholson Road, Delhi

THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT.

Within the abnormally short period of seven years the Woman Suffrage movement has risen in India, swept through the country sympathetically and achieved the political enfranchisement of women in four of its most progressive Provinces and in four Indian States.

Three fundamental causes have led to this remarkable success. First, the deep veneration that is given by the Hindu and Muhammadan religions to the feminine aspect of life equally with the masculine as shown by the importance of goddesses, by the necessity for the presence of the wife at all ceremonies performed by a Brahman by the idea of the sacred mystery of womanhood implied by the purdah and by the general veneration of motherhood. Secondly, the time was psychological, for a new era was beginning for the Indian people by the introduction of Scheme of Reforms in Indian government which was planned to give a basis of representative government on a much extended scale. The door was being opened to complete Self government and only men were being invited to enter through it although women compose half the people of the country and it had been by the joint efforts of men and women that the agitation for reform in the government had been made. The men and women of India were too awake and too just to allow this injustice to remain unredressed. Thirdly, the long and strenuous agitation for the vote by women in Britain and America and their recent victories had brought vividly to the consciousness of all educated Indian men and women the whole question of the inclusion of women in public life, and it was also a national and international necessity that Indian women should be given as high a status as women in other parts of the Empire.

Though the Municipal franchise had been granted to the women of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies over fifteen years ago it was so limited in numbers that it did not make a large impact on women's consciousness and indeed no protest was made when it was suddenly withdrawn from Madras women some years later. Over 1,700 women are qualified to vote for the Bombay Corporation and a fair percentage of these have polled at each election, and similarly in other Municipalities in that Presidency women have exercised their vote responsibly and intelligently. Since 1922 twenty-two women have become Municipal Councillors and members of Local Government Boards, four of whom were elected by Bombay City voters, the others having been nominated.

It was owing to the rise of the political agitation for Home Rule between 1914 and 1917 that women began to wake up to their

position of exclusion by British law from any share in representative government. The Internment of one of their own sex, Mrs. Besant, stimulated political activity and political self-consciousness amongst women to a very great extent. The moment for the ripe public expression of their feelings came when the Secretary of State for India came to India to investigate and study Indian affairs at first hand in 1917.

During the Hon. E. S. Montagu's visit only one Women's Deputation waited on him but it was representative of womanhood in all parts of India, and it brought to his notice the various reforms which women were specially desirous of recommending the Government to carry out.

The first claim for women suffrage for Indian women was made in the Address presented to Mr. Montagu at this historic All-India Women's Deputation which waited upon him in Madras on the 18th December 1917. The section referring to enfranchisement merits full quotation.

Our interests, as one half of the people, are directly affected by the demand in the united (Hindu Muslim Reform) scheme (1) that "the Members of the Council should be elected directly by the people on as broad a franchise as possible," and in the Memorandum (3) that "the franchise should be broadened and extended directly to the people." We pray that, when such a franchise is being drawn up, women may be recognized as "people," and that it may be worded in such terms as will not disqualify our sex, but allow our women the same opportunities of representation as our men. In agreeing with the demand of the abovementioned Memorandum that "a full measure of Local Self Government should be immediately granted," we request that it shall include the representation of our women, a policy that has been admittedly successful for the past twenty years in Local Self Government elsewhere in the British Empire. The precedent for including women in modern Indian political life has been a marked feature of the Indian National Congress, in which since its inception women have voted and been delegates and speakers, and which this year finds its climax in the election of a woman as its President. Thus the voice of India approves of its women being considered responsible and acknowledged citizens, and we urgently claim that, in the drawing up of all provisions regarding representation, our sex shall not be made a disqualification for the exercise of the franchise or for service in public life.

The year 1919 was devoted to converting the Government forces to the justice and expediency of Indian Woman Suffrage, but this proved a more difficult matter. It was a disappointment first that though the Secretary of

State had given a sympathetic reply to the All India Women's Deputation yet when the Scheme of Reforms, drawn up by him and Lord Chelmsford as the outcome of his visit to India was published no mention of women was made, though the widening of the electorate was one of the reforms suggested. When the Southborough Franchise Committee was formed to investigate the suggestions regarding the franchise in this Scheme, the women suffragists took every means to bring to the notice of the Committee all the evidence which showed the need for and the country's support of the inclusion of women in the new franchise.

After the introduction of the Government of India Bill into Parliament in July 1919, a number of Indian deputations proceeded to London to give evidence before the Joint Select Committee of Members of both Houses of Parliament which had been appointed to place the Reforms on a workable basis. Mrs. Annie Besant, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu and Mrs. and Miss Herabai Tata were the women who were heard by the Committee in support of the extension of the franchise to women in India.

The House of Commons decided that the question was one for Indians to answer for themselves and while retaining the sex disqualification in the Reform Bill they framed the Electoral Rules in such terms that if any Provincial Legislative Council should decide by a Resolution in favour of women's franchise, women should be put on the electoral register of that Province. This was the only provision regarding franchise matters which might be changed before a 10 years time limit. Until after that period women are ineligible for election as Legislative Councillors.

Travancore, a very progressive Indian State, was the first to grant the Legislative vote to women at the close of 1920, and it was promptly followed by the Indian State of Jhalawar. In the first session of the Legislative Councils in 1921 it is gratifying to record that a motion was tabled by Dewan Bahadur Krishnan Nair of Malabar that he would bring forward a Resolution in the Madras Legislative Council to remove the disqualification of sex existing in regard to the Legislative Council franchise. During the month that must legally intervene between the tabling of a Woman Suffrage motion and its introduction for Debate the Madras women under the leadership of the Women's Indian Association carried on all forms of public propaganda and canvassed the important members of the Council. The Debate took place on April 1st and after a short discussion, in which it was evident that opposition came only from the Muhammadan members, the debate itself became only an accumulation of appreciation of womanhood and an expression of faith in its future when the division was taken, it resulted in the Resolution being carried by a majority of 34. Madras has thus the honour of being the first Province in British India to enfranchise its women, and it has done so ungrudgingly and unhesitatingly and in the broad spirit of the equality of the sexes, as it grants the vote to women on the same terms as it has been granted to men.

Mr. Trivedi brought forward a Woman Suffrage Resolution in the Bombay Legislative

Council during the same session but some irregularity in its wording caused it to be pronounced out of order. In June that subject was tabled again and championed by Rao Sahab Harilal Desai of Ahmedabad, Deputy President of the Council. As in Madras the intervening month was filled with suffrage activity by the women of the Presidency and was remarkable for a large joint meeting of Bombay city women at which 19 Women's Societies took part, and for a suffrage meeting of Marathi and Gujarati women in Poona when over 800 women showed the greatest enthusiasm for the movement.

The Bombay Council Debate on Woman Suffrage took three days and the subject was very fully discussed most by over 40 members. The result was satisfactory to the suffragists, the voting being 52 in favour, 25 against and 12 neutral. Thus Madras and Bombay Presidencies gave the lead to the other Provinces. In September, 1922, Mr. S. M. Bose, in the Bengal Council, moved a Woman Suffrage Resolution, which was debated for three days but finally defeated by 56 to 37 votes, a bloc of 40 Muhammadan members voting solidly against it.

Mr. Devaki Prasad Sinha's similar Resolution in the Behar and Orissa Legislative Council was defeated by only a 10 votes majority.

These Debates proved so educational to their respective Provinces that Bihar Province has since granted qualified women the Municipal vote and women have also been included as voters in the new Calcutta Corporation Act.

In February 1923, a world suffrage record was made by the unanimous vote of the United Provinces Legislative Council in favour of Woman Suffrage.

The new Reform Bill for Burma has included the grant of woman suffrage to the qualified Burmese women, and further made provision for their election as Councillors if the Council passes a Resolution desiring their admission and if that Resolution is approved of by the Governor.

In April 1922, the Mysore Legislative Council unanimously passed the Woman Suffrage Resolution. The vote for the Representative Assembly of Mysore was granted to women in October, 1922. The vote for Mysore Legislative Franchise was granted to the Mysore women by H. H. The Maharaja and His Privy Council in June 1923.

There is little doubt that it will be only a few years at most before all the provinces of India will have granted woman suffrage, and the right to vote will advance the interests of women immensely along the lines of education, health, housing, morality and social customs.

The Indian Native States of Cochin and Rajkot are the only places in India where the sex disqualification has been completely removed from the statute book. These have allowed women the right to stand for election for the Legislative Council as well as the right to vote for it and two women have been elected to the newly formed Representative Council of Rajkot. In British India by the terms of the Reform Bill the Councils have no power to alter the disqualification of sex which remains against the rights to stand as candidates for election to the Councils. This can only be changed by the vote of the British Parliament, and the gaining of this

right remains as a further objective of the women suffragists. Many large, influential meetings have been held claiming the right of women to entry of the Legislature. A deputa-
tion of women about this subject waited on the Madras Governor and their claims were supported by him and by his Government. The Imperial Legislative Assembly and the Council of State have been accorded the power to grant women the franchise for their assemblies also by resolution, but only for those provinces which already have granted women the Legislative franchise. The Legislative Assembly has passed by a large majority a Resolution granting the Assembly franchise to the women of such Provinces. Accordingly in November 1923, women in India voted for the first time for the elections of both Provincial Legislative Councillors and members of the Legislative Assembly. The number of women who voted in the large Cities was surprisingly large in Bombay and Madras Presidencies and comprised women of all castes and communities.

The number of women enfranchised by the grant of the vote throughout India will not be more than a million under the present qualifications. Property and not literacy is the basis of the franchise, though the grant of the vote to every graduate of seven

years' standing ensures that the best educated women of the country as well as those who have to shoulder the largest property responsibilities will be those who rightly will be the legislating influence on behalf of womanhood. As regards the custom of purdah prevailing in parts of India special provisions have been made in Municipal voting for purdah recording stations for purdah women in which a woman is returning officer and this has been found quite satisfactory and will be adopted also where desired in connection with Legislative Council elections.

Though the Women's Indian Association is the only defined Suffrage Society almost all other women's organisations have combined in special efforts for the gaining of municipal and legislative rights and the following ladies have identified themselves specially with the movement. Lady D. Tata, Lady A. Bose, Lady T. Sadasaivair, the Begum of Cambay, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mrs. Jajji Jehangir Petit, Mrs. Tata, Mrs. Wadia, Mrs. Jinnarajadasa, Mrs. A. Besant, Mrs. M. R. Constans, Mrs. Srinangamma, Mrs. Chandrasekhara Iyer, Mrs. Sorabji, Mrs. Khedkar, Dr. Mistry, Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammal, Mrs. Palmer, Mrs. Kumudini Basu, Mrs. K. N. Roy, Lady Shafr, Mrs. Hassan Imam, Mrs. Rustomji Faridoonji, Mrs. B. Rama Rao, Mrs. Deep Narain Singh, etc.

PUBLIC SERVICES COMMISSION

On January 25, 1923, the intention of Government to appoint a Royal Commission on the Services in India was announced in the Legislative Assembly. On the following day Mr. Benegalji Aiyar moved the adjournment of the House to consider the announcement, and was strongly supported among others by Sir Deva Prasad Saravandikary, Dr. Gour and Mr. Jannadas Dwarkadas. A remarkable feature of the debate was the unanimity between the Indian and the European elected members. Both Mr. Spence and Sir Montagu Webb condemned the Commission. The only non-official supporters of the Commission who spoke were Colonel Gidney and Khan Bahadur Zahiruddin Ahmed. In justifying the appointment of the Commission Sir Malcolm claimed that it had the support not of an "ultra-conservative Government and a reactionary Secretary of State" but that of Mr. Montagu. He went carefully through the reasons which had led to the appointment of the Commission, and concluded that a very thorough investigation by a fair and independent body was essential to adjust the various questions, some of them conflicting, that had arisen with regard to the services. "The Indian public can safely banish any suspicion," concluded Sir Malcolm Hailey, "that this inquiry has been dictated by unworthy motives, that its sole object is to retard the Indianisation of the services—to me an unthinkable suggestion, or that its sole or main purpose is to satisfy the existing members of the Services." The motion for adjournment was nevertheless carried. Later on, in the course of the discussion on Demands for Grants the provision of Rs. 2 lakhs for the Royal Commission was set out by the Assembly but by a very narrow

majority in spite of Government opposition. The item has since been restored.

The terms of reference, announced in March, 1923, are as follows:—

Having regard to the necessity for maintaining a standard of administration in conformity with the responsibilities of the Crown for the Government of India, and to the declared policy of Parliament in respect of the increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration and in view of the experience now gained of the operation of the system of government established by the Government of India Act in respect of the superior Civil Services in India, to inquire into:—

- (1) The organization and general conditions of service, financial and otherwise, of those Services.
- (2) The possibility of transferring immediately or gradually any of their present duties and functions to services constituted on a provincial basis.
- (3) The recruitment of Europeans and Indians respectively, for which provision should be made under the Constitution established by the said Act and the best methods of ensuring and maintaining such recruitment, and to make recommendations.

Considerable delay occurred in announcing the personnel, and it was not until June that it was declared to be—Lord Lee (Chairman), Sir Reginald Craddock, Sir Cyril Jackson, Sir Chamanlal Betsalvad, Sir Muhammad Habibullah, Mr. Hari Kishan Kaul, Mr. David Peck, Mr. Rumpendranath Basu, and Professor Reginald Comland.

The Commission went on tour in India taking evidence during the cold weather of 1923-24.

Warrant of Precedence.

A new Warrant of Precedence for India in supersession of the notification published on February 10, 1899, which has been approved by His Majesty the King Emperor of India, was published in 1922. Henceforth the following table will be observed with respect to the rank and precedence of persons named, as under—

- 1 Governor-General and Viceroy of India
- 2 Governors of Provinces within their respective charges
- 3 Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal
- 4 Commander-in-Chief in India.
- 5 Governors of the United Provinces, Punjab, Bihar and Burma
- 6 Governors of the Central Provinces and Assam
- 7 Chief Justice of Bengal.
- 8 Bishop of Calcutta, Metropolitan of India
- 9 Members of the Governor General's Executive Council
- 10 Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's Naval Forces in the East Indies
- 11 President of the Council of State.
- 12 President of the Legislative Assembly
- 13 Chief Justice of a High Court other than that of Bengal
- 14 Bishops of Madras and Bombay
- 15 Agents to the Governor-General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan, Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province, Members of Executive Councils and Ministers of Governors and Lieutenant-Governors, Political Resident in the Persian Gulf, Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore, and Commissioner in Sind,—within their respective charges.
- 16 Chief of the General Staff, General Officers Commanding, Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western Commands, and Officers of the rank of General
- 17 Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers in Madras, Bombay and Bengal
- 18 Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, United Provinces, Punjab, Burma and Behar
- 19 Agents to the Governor-General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan, Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province, Political Resident in the Persian Gulf, and Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore.
- 20 Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, Central Provinces and Assam.
- 21 Presidents of Legislative Councils within their respective Provinces.
- 22 Chief Judges of Chief Courts, and Puisne Judges of High Courts
- 23 Lieutenant-Generals.
- 24 Comptroller and Auditor-General, President of the Public Service Commission, and President of the Railway Board.

25. Bishops of Lahore, Rangoon, Lucknow and Nagpur

26. Members of the Railway Board and Secretaries to the Government of India.

27 Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to the Government of India, Commissioner in Sind, Financial Adviser, Military Finance, and Judges of Chief Courts.

28. Chief Commissioner of the Andamans, and Chief Commissioner of Delhi,—within their respective charges, Chief Secretaries to the Governments of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, when within the Punjab.

29. Commissioner of Revenue and Customs, Bombay, Development Commissioner, Burma, Director of Development, Bombay, Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, Financial Commissioners, Inspector-General of Irrigation, Judicial Commissioners of Oudh, Central Provinces, Sind and Upper Burma, Major Generals, members of a Board of Revenue, Surgeon-Generals.

30. Vice-Chancellors of the Indian Universities.

31. Agents of State Railways, Controller of the Currency, Additional Judicial Commissioners, Agency Commissioner, Madras, Commissioners of Divisions, and Residents of the 2nd Class,—within their respective charges

32. Members of the Indian Civil Service of 30 years' standing (not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant)

33 Advocate-General, Calcutta

34. Advocates-General, Madras and Bombay

35. Chief Secretaries to Governments other than those of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam.

36 Bishops (not territorial) under license from the Crown

37. Accountants-General, Class I, Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, Archdeacons of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay, Census Commissioner for India, Colonels, Commandant and Colonels on the Staff, Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, Director, Intelligence Bureau, Director-General of Archaeology in India, Director of the Geological Survey, Director, Royal Indian Marine, when an officer of the Royal Navy of rank lower than Rear-Admiral or an officer of the Royal Indian Marine, Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, Financial Adviser to the Railway Board, His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner, Calcutta, Inspector General of Forests, Military Accountant-General, Opium Agent, Benares, Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, and Surveyor General of India.

38. Additional Judicial Commissioners; Agency Commissioner, Madras; Chief Commissioner of the Andamans, Chief Commissioner of Delhi, Chief Secretary to the Government of Assam;

Commissioners of Divisions, and Residents of the 2nd Class,

39 Private Secretary to the Viceroy, Secretaries, Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to Local Governments

40. Accountants-General other than Class I, Chief Auditors, Eastern Bengal Railway and North-Western Railway, Chief Conservators of Forests, Chief Engineers, Chief Engineers, Telegraphs, Colonels, Command Controllers of Military Accounts, Deputy Controller of the Currency at Bombay, Director of the Botanical Survey of India, Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, Director-General of Observatories, Directors of Public Instruction under Local Governments, Director, Zoological Survey, His Majesty's Trade Commissioner, Bombay, Inspectors-General, Civil Hospitals, Inspectors-General of Police under Local Governments and in the North West Frontier Province, Inspectors-General of Prisons under Local Governments, Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Indian Political Department of 23 years' Civil service, if not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant, Mint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay, President of the Forest College and Research Institute, Provincial Sanitary Commissioners, Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India, and Traffic Managers and Locomotive Superintendents of State Railways

41 Military Secretary to the Viceroy

42. Solicitor to the Government of India, and Standing Counsel to the Government of India

43 Archdeacons of Lahore, Lucknow, Rangoon and Nagpur, and Presidency Senior Chaplains of the Church of Scotland

44 Chairmen of Port Trusts and of Improvement Trusts of the Presidency towns Rangoon and Karachi, Members of the Public Service Commission, Non official Presidents of Municipal Corporations in Presidency towns and Rangoon within their respective municipal jurisdictions, Senior Controller of Military Supply Accounts, Settlement Commissioners, Chief Executive Officers of the Municipalities of the Presidency towns and Rangoon within their charges, and Chief Inspector of Mines

45 Collectors of Customs, Collectors and Magistrates of Districts, Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta, Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara, Deputy Commissioners of Districts and Deputy Commissioner, Fort Blair, Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Ootca Nagpur), Political Agents and Superintendents, and Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class),—within their respective charges, Revenue Branches of Legal Affairs and Government Advocates under Local Governments.

46 Deputy Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Deputy Secretaries to the Government of India, Inspector of Office Procedure in the Government of India, Director, Central Bureau of Information, Government of India; and Secretary and Joint Secretary to the Railway Board

47 Director, Central Research Institute Kasauli, Director of the Indian Institute of Science, and Principal of the Thomson Civil Engineering College, Roorkee.

48 Assistant to the Inspector-General of Forests, Assistant to the Inspector-General of Irrigation, Commandant, Frontier Constabulary, North-West Frontier Province, Commissioners of Police in the Presidency towns and Rangoon, Comptroller, Assam, Conservator of Forests, Controller of Marine Accounts, Deputy Chief Engineer, Telegraphs Deputy Director General, Indian Medical Service, Deputy Director-General of Post Office, Deputy Director-General, Telegraph Traffic, Deputy Director, Intelligence Bureau, Deputy Military Accountant-General, Director, Medical Research, Directors of Commercial Intelligence, Directors of Telegraph Engineering, District Controllers of Military Accounts, Electrical Adviser to the Government of India, Lieutenant-Colonels, Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Political Department of 18 years' Civil service, if not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant, Mining Engineer to the Railway Board, Postmasters-General, and Superintending Engineers

49 Assay Masters, Calcutta and Bombay, Chief Auditor, Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, Deputy Controllers of the Currency, Calcutta and Northern India, and Deputy Controller General

50 Actuary to the Government of India, Chief Inspector of Explosives, Chief Judges of Small Cause Courts, Presidency towns and Rangoon, Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, Director, Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory, Muktesar, Directors of major Laboratories, Director of Public Instruction, North West Frontier Province, and Director of Statistics

51 Private Secretaries to Governors, and Secretaries and First Assistants in 1st Class Residences

52 Administrators-General, Chief Presidency Magistrates, Deputy Agents, Deputy Traffic Managers and Officers of similar status of State Railways, Metallurgical Inspector, Jamshedpur, and Officers in Class of the General or the Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department

53 Commissioners of Income-tax in the United Provinces, Bombay and Sind, Commissioner of Labour, Madras, Controller of Patents, Deputy Inspector General of Police, Directors of Agriculture, Directors of Fisheries in Bengal and Madras, Directors of Industries, Directors of Land Records, Estates Commissioners, Inspector-General of Railway Police and Police Assistant to the Agent to the Governor-General, Rajputana, Inspectors-General of Registration, Principal, Research Institute, Cawnpore, and Registrars of Co-operative Societies

54 District Judges not being Sessions Judges within their own districts.

55. Adviser to the Government of India for Far Eastern Questions, First Assistant to the Residents at Aden, Baroda and in Kashmir, and Judicial Assistant, Kathiawar.

54. Military Secretaries to Governors
57. Senior Chaplains other than those already specified
58. Sheriffs within their own charges.
59. Collectors of Customs, Collectors and Magistrates of Districts, Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta, Commissioner of Ajmer Merwara, Deputy Commissioners of Districts, Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair, Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur), Political Agents and Superintendents, Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class), and Settlement Officers
60. Assistant Directors-General of the Post Office, 2nd grade, Deputy Directors of Commercial Intelligence, Deputy Director General of Archaeology, Deputy Director of Industries, United Provinces, Deputy Postmasters-General, 1st grade, Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, United Provinces, Deputy Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India, Government Solicitors other than the Solicitor and Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India, Managing Director, Optum Factory, Ghasipur, Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 18 years' standing, Principals of major Government Colleges, Registrars to the High Court, Secretaries to Legislative Councils, Senior Inspectors of Mines, Assistant Collectors of Customs, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Engineers, Telegraphs, Executive Engineer of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division, Officers of the Archaeological and other Scientific Departments, Officers of the Civil Veterinary Department, Officers of Civil Veterinary Department, Officers of Class II of the General or the Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department, Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service, Officers of the Indian Forest Department, Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department, Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of district officer or a position of a similar status and Deputy Commissioners of Police of 20 years' standing
61. Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India and Under Secretaries to the Government of India
62. Agent-General in India for the British Protectorate in Africa under the administration of the Colonial Office, Chief Constructor of the Royal Indian Marine Dockyard at Bombay, Consulting Surveyor to the Government Bombay, Directors of the Persian Gulf Section and of the Persian Section of the Indo European Telegraph Department, Directors of Survey, Madras and Bengal, Emigration Agents, Madras and Benares, Government Emigration Agents at Calcutta for British Guiana and Natal, and for Trinidad, Fiji, Jamaica and Mauritius, Keeper of the Records of the Government of India, and Librarian, Imperial Library
63. District Judges not being Sessions Judges, Majors, and Members of the Indian Civil Service of 18 years' standing
64. Chief Accountant of the office of Director of Ordnance Factories.
65. Assistant Directors-General of the Post Office, 2nd grade, Assistant Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India, Chief Works Chemist, United Provinces, Civil Engineer Adviser to the Director of Ordnance Factories, Deputy Postmasters-General, 2nd grade, Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 10 years standing, Officer in charge of the Mathematical Instrument Office, Presidency Postmasters, Superintendent, Bombay City Survey and Land Records, Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police of less than 20 years standing, Assistant Collectors of Customs, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Telegraphs, Executive Engineers of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division, Officers of the Archaeological and other Scientific Departments, Officers of the Civil Veterinary Department, Officers of Class II of the General or Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department, Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service, Officers of the Indian Forest Department, Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department, and Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of district officer or a position of similar status, of 12 years' standing
66. Assistant Commissioners (Senior), Northern India Salt Revenue, Assistant Directors of Dairy Farms, Assistant Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Assistant Secretaries to the Government of India, Chemical Examiner for Customs and Excise, Calcutta, Chief Chemical Examiner, Central Chemical Laboratory, Naini Tal, Chief Inspectors of Factories and Boilers in Bengal and Bombay, Collector of Income-tax, Calcutta, Commander of the steamer employed in the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department, Curator of the Bureau of Education, Deputy Accountant, Office of the Director of Ordnance Factories, Deputy Administrator General, Bengal, Deputy Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, Deputy Commissioners of Salt and Excise, Deputy Director of Land Records, Burma, Deputy Sanitary Commissioners, Superintendents of Central Jails and Civil Surgeons not belonging to the Indian Medical Service, Director, Vaccine Institute, Belgaum, Engineer and Electrician of the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department, Examiner of Questioned Documents, Executive Engineers of less than 12 years' standing, First Assistant Commissioner, Port Blair, First and Second Collectors of Income-tax, Bombay, and Senior Collectors of Income-tax Karachi, Honorary Presidency Magistrate, Judge of the City Civil Court, Madras, Judges of Presidency Courts of Small Causes, Lady Assistants to the Inspectors-General, Civil Hospitals, Legal Assistant in the Legislative Department of the Government of India, Manager of the Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu, Officers of the Provincial Civil Services drawing the maximum pay of the time-scale of upwards, Presidency Magistrates, Protector of Emigrants and Superintendents of Emigration, Calcutta, Public Prosecutors in Bengal and in Sind, Registrars to Chief Courts, Registrar of

Companies, Bombay, Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Bengal, Secretary, Board of Examiners, Secretary to the Board of Revenue in the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, Madras, when a member of the Provincial Service, and Sub-Deputy Opium Agents.

1. The entries in the above table apply exclusively to the persons entered therein, and while regulating their relative precedence with each other, do not give them any precedence over members of the non-official community resident in India who shall take their place according to usage.

2. Officers in the above table will take precedence in order of the numbers of the entries. Those included in one number will take precedence *inter se* according to the date of entry into that number.

3. When an officer holds more than one position in the table he will be entitled to the highest position accorded to him.

4. Officers who are temporarily officiating in any number in the table will rank in that number below permanent incumbents.

5. All officers not mentioned in the above table, whose rank is regulated by comparison with rank in the army, to have the same rank with reference to civil servants as is enjoyed by military officers of equal grades.

6. All other persons who may not be mentioned in this table to take rank according to general usage, which is to be explained and determined by the Governor-General in Council in the case of any question shall arise. When the position of any such person is so determined and notified, it shall be entered in the table in *italics*, provided he holds an appointment in India.

7. Nothing in the foregoing rules to disturb the existing practice relating to precedence at the Courts of Indian States or on occasions of intercourse with Indians, and the Governor-General in Council to be empowered to make rules for such occasions in case any dispute shall arise.

8. The following will take courtesy rank as shown—

Consuls-General, immediately after article 37, which includes Colonels Commandant, Consuls,

immediately after article 40, which includes Colonels, Vice-Consuls, immediately after article 53, which includes Majors.

Consular officers do *not* carry rank in their respective grades take precedence of consular officers who are *not* do carriers.

9. The following will take courtesy rank as shown, provided that they do not hold appointments in India—

Peers according to their precedence in England, Knights of the Garter, the Thistle and St Patrick, Privy Counsellors, Members of the Council of the Secretary of State for India.—Immediately after Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council, article 9.

Baronets of England, Scotland, Ireland and the United Kingdom, according to date of Patents, Knights Grand Cross of the Bath, Knights Grand Commander of the Star of India, Knights Grand Cross of St Michael and St George, Knights Grand Commander of the Indian Empire, Knights Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order, Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the British Empire, Knights Commander of the Bath, Knights Commander of the Star of India, Knights Commander of St Michael and St George, Knights Commander of the Indian Empire, Knights Commander of the Royal Victorian Order, Knights Commander of the Order of the British Empire, and Knights Bachelor—Immediately after Puisne Judges of High Courts, article 23.

10. All ladies, unless by virtue of holding an appointment themselves they are entitled to a higher position in the table, to take place according to the rank herein assigned to their respective husbands, with the exception of wives of Peers and of ladies having precedence in England independently of their husbands, and who are not in rank below the daughters of Barons, such ladies to take place according to their several ranks, with reference to such precedence in England, immediately after the wives of Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

SALUTES.

Persons	No of guns
Imperial salute	101
Royal salute	31
Members of the Royal Family	31
Foreign Sovereigns and members of their families	21
Maharajahs of Nepal	21
Sultan of Muskat	21
Sultan of Zanzibar	21
Ambassadors	19
Governor of the French Settlements in India	17
Governor of Portuguese India	17
Governors of His Majesty's Colonies	17
Lieutenant-Governors of His Majesty's Colonies	16
Plenipotentiaries and Envoys	15
Governor of Damman	9
Governor of Dhu	9

Occasions on which salute is fired

When the Sovereign is present in person
On the anniversaries of the Birth, Accession and Coronation of the Reigning Sovereign, the Birthday of the Consort of the Reigning Sovereign, the Birthday of the Queen Mother, Proclamation Day

On arrival at, or departure from a military station, or when attending a State ceremony

Persons.	No. of Guns	Occasions on which salute is fired.
Viceroy and Governor-General ..	21	On arrival at, or departure from, a military station within Indian territories or when attending a State ceremony
Governors of Presidencies and Provinces in India.	17	On assuming or relinquishing office whether temporarily or permanently On occasions of a public arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions such as arriving at or leaving a Durbar, or when paying a formal visit to a Ruling Chief Also on occasions of private arrival at, or departure from, a military station, if desired
Residents, 1st Class	18	} Same as Governors.
Agents to the Governor-General	18	
Commissioner in Sind	18	
Agent to the Governor in Kathiawar	18	
Residents, 2nd Class	18	} On assuming or relinquishing office, and on occasion of a public arrival at, or departure from a military station
Political Agents (b)	11	
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a Field Marshal)	19	} On assuming or relinquishing office. On public arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions Also on occasions of private arrival or departure if desired
Commander in Chief in India (if a General)	17	
Naval Commander in-Chief, East Indies Squadron (c)	.	Same as for military officer of corresponding rank (see K.R.)
G.O.C. in C Commands (d)	15	} On assuming or relinquishing command, and on occasions of public arrival at, or departure from, a military station within their command Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired
Major Generals Commanding Districts (d)	13	
Major-Generals and Colonel-Commandants Commanding Brigades (d)	11	

Permanent Salutes to Chiefs

Salutes of 21 guns
 Baroda. The Maharaja (Gaekwar) of
 Gwalior. The Maharaja (Wandia) of
 Hyderabad. The Nizam of
 Jammu and Kashmir. The Maharaja of
 Muscat. The Sultan of
 Mysore. The Maharaja of.

Salutes of 19 guns
 Bhopal. The Begam (or Nawab) of
 Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of.
 Kalat. The Khan (Wali) of.
 Kolhapur. The Maharaja of.
 Travancore. The Maharaja of
 Udaipur (Mewar). The Maharana of

Salutes of 17 guns
 Bahawalpur. The Nawab of
 Bharatpur. The Maharaja of.
 Bikaner. The Maharaja of.
 Bundi. The Maharaja Raja of.
 Cochin. The Maharaja of.

Cutch. The Maharao of
 Jaipur. The Maharaja of.
 Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of.
 Karauli. The Maharaja of.
 Kotah. The Maharao of.
 Patiala. The Maharaja of.
 Rewa. The Maharaja of.
 Tonk. The Nawab of.

Salutes of 15 guns.
 Alwar. The Maharaja of.
 Banswara. The Maharawal of.
 Bhutan. The Maharaja of.
 Datta. The Maharaja of.
 Dewas (Senior Branch). The Maharaja of
 Dewas (Junior Branch). The Maharaja of
 Dhar. The Maharaja of
 Dholpur. The Maharaj Rana of.
 Dungarpur. The Maharawal of.
 Idar. The Maharaja of.
 Jaisalmer. The Maharawal of.

(b) Within the territories of the State to which they are attached

(c) According to naval rank, with two guns added

(d) No military officer shall receive an artillery salute unless he is in actual military command and is the senior military officer in the spot. Attention is invited to the extra guns allowed for individuals.

Khairpur The Mir of
 Kishanganj The Maharaja of
 Orkha. The Maharaja of
 Partabgarh The Maharawat of
 Rampur The Nawab of
 Sikkim The Maharaja of
 Sirahi The Maharao of

Salutes of 13 guns

Benares The Maharaja of
 Bhavnagar The Maharaja of
 Cooch Behar The Maharaja of
 Dhrangadhra The Maharaja of
 Jaora The Nawab of
 Jhalawar The Maharaj Rana of
 Jind The Maharaja of
 Junagadh The Nawab of
 Kapurthala The Maharaja of
 Nabha The Maharaja of
 Nawanagar The Maharaja of
 Palampur The Nawab of
 Portbandar The Maharaja of
 Rajpipla The Maharaja of
 Ratlam The Maharaja of
 Tripura The Maharaja of

Salutes of 11 guns

Ajalgarh The Maharaja of
 Alirajpur The Raja of
 Baoni The Nawab of
 Barwan The Rana of
 Bijawar The Maharaja of
 Bilaspur The Raja of
 Cambay The Nawab of
 Chamba The Raja of
 Charkhari The Maharaja of
 Chhatarpur The Maharaja of
 Faridkot The Raja of
 Gondal The Thakur Sahab of
 Janjira The Nawab of
 Jhabua The Raja of
 Maler Kotla The Nawab of
 Mandi The Raja of
 Manipur The Maharaja of
 Morvi The Thakur Sahab of
 Narasinggarh The Raja of
 Panna The Maharaja of
 Pudukkottai The Raja of
 Radhanpur The Nawab of
 Rajgarh The Raja of
 Sallana The Raja of
 Samthar The Raja of
 Sirpur The Maharaja of
 Sitaman The Raja of
 Suket The Raja of
 Tehri The Raja of

Salutes of 9 guns

Balasinnor The Nawab (Babi) of
 Banganapalle The Nawab of
 Bansda The Raja of
 Baraundha The Raja of
 Bariya The Raja of
 Ohota Udepur The Raja of
 Danta The Maharana of
 Dharampur The Raja of
 Dhrol The Thakur Sahab of
 Fadthli (Shukra) The Sultan of
 Halpaw The Sawbwa of
 Jawhar The Raja of
 Kalahandi The Raja of
 Kengtung The Sawbwa of
 Khulchipur The Rao Bahadur of
 Kishu and Socotra The Sultan of
 Lohaj (or Al Hauta) The Sultan of
 Limbdi The Thakur Sahab of
 Joharu The Nawab of
 Lunawada The Raja of
 Maihar The Raja of
 Mayurbhanj The Maharaja of
 Mong Nai The Sawbwa of
 Mudhol The Raja of
 Nagod The Raja of
 Palitana The Thakur Sahab of
 Patna The Maharaja of
 Rajkot The Thakur Sahab of
 Sachin The Nawab of
 Sangli The Chief of
 Savantvadi The Sar Desai of
 Shehr and Mokalla The Sultan of
 Sonpur The Maharaja of
 Sunth The Raja of
 Vankaner The Raj Sahab of
 Wadhwan The Thakur Sahab of
 Yawnghe The Sawbwa of

Personal Salutes.

Salutes of 21 guns

Indore His Highness Maharajadhiraja Raj
 Rajeshwar Sawai Shri Tukoji Rao Holkar
 Bahadur, G.C.I.B., Maharaja of
 Kalat His Highness Mir Sir Mahmud Khan,
 G.C.I.B. Wali of
 Travancore Colonel His Highness Sri Maharaja
 Raja Sir Pala Rama Varma Bahadur G.C.B.,
 G.C.I.B. Maharaja of
 Udaipur (Mewar) His Highness Maharaja
 dhiraja Maharana Sir Fateh Singh Bahadur,
 G.C.B., G.C.I.B. G.O.V.O., Maharana of

Salutes of 19 guns

Bikaner Major-General His Highness Maharaja
 Sir Ganga Singh Bahadur, G.C.B., G.C.I.B.,
 G.O.V.O., G.D.S., K.C.B., A.D.C., Maharaja of

Kotah Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharao Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.S.M., Maharao of

*Mysore Her Highness Maharani Kempa Nanjamma Avaru Vanivilas Samudhara, O.I. Maharani of

Nepal General His Highness Maharaja Sir Chandra Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.C.L., Prime Minister, Marshal of

Patiala Major General His Highness Maharaja-dhiraj Sir Bhupinder Singh Mahinder Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C., Maharaja of

Tonk H. H. Amin ud Daula Wasir ul Mulk Nawab Sir Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur Sanlat Jang, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Nawab of

Salutes of 17 guns

Alwar Colonel His Highness Sewal Maharaj Shri Jey Singhji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of

Dholpur Lieutenant Colonel His Highness Maharajadhiraj Sri Sawal Maharaj-Rana Sir Udalbhan Singh Lokindar Bahadur Diler Jang Jal Deo, K.C.S.I., G.C.V.O., Maharaja Rana of

Kishangarh Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Umdae Rajahae Baland Makan Maharajadhiraj Sir Madan Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Maharaja of

Orchha His Highness Maharaja Mahindr Sawal Sir Pratap Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of

Sirohi His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharao Sir Kari Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Ex-Maharao of

Salutes of 15 guns

Benares Lieutenant Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Parbhu Narayan Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of

Jind, Lieutenant Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Bajendra Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of

Junagadh His Highness Valli Ahad Mohabat Khanji Rasulkhanji, Nawab of

Kaporthala Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Jagatjit Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of

Nawanagar Lieutenant Colonel His Highness Maharaja Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of

Salutes of 11 guns

Agia Khan, His Highness Aga Sir Sultan Muhammad Shah, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., of Bombay

Bariya Captain H. H. Maharawal Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Mansinhji, K.C.S.I., Raja of

Chitral His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-ud Mulk, K.C.I.E., Mehtar of

Lahaj (Al Hanta) His Highness Sultan Sir Abdul Karim Fadhli bin Ali, K.C.I.E., Sultan of

Lunawada, His Highness Maharana Shri Sir Wakhatsinghji Dalesinghji, K.C.I.E., Raja of

Sachin Major His Highness Nawab Sidi Ibrahim Mohamed Yakut Khan, Mubassarat Daula Nasrat Jung Bahadur Nawab of

Shehr and Mokalla H. H. Sultan Oomer bin Awad Alkafy, Shamseer Jung Bahadur, Sultan of

Vaukaner Captain His Highness Raj Saheb Sir Amarsinhji Banodsinhji, K.C.I.E., Raj Saheb of

Salutes of 9 guns

Dashahr Raja Padam Singh, Raja of

Dthala Amir Nasir bin Shaif bin Seif bin Abdul Hadi, Amir of

Jamkhandi Captain Meherban Sir Parashramrav Ramchandrarav, K.C.I.E., Chief of

Kanker Maharajadhiraj Kamal Deo, Chief of

Loharu Nawab Sir Amir-ud-din Ahmad Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E., ex Nawab of

Tawngpeng Hkun Hsang Awn, K.S.M., Sawbwa of

Local Salutes

Salutes of 21 guns

Bhopal The Begum (or Nawab of) Within the limits of her (or his) own territories permanently

Indore The Maharaja (Holkar) of Within the limits of his own territories, permanent

Udaipur (Mewar) The Maharana of Within the limits of his own territories, permanent

Salute of 19 guns

Bharatpur The Maharaja of

Bikaner The Maharaja of

Cutch The Maharao of

Jaipur The Maharaja of

Jodhpur (Marwar) The Maharaja of

Patiala The Maharaja of

(Within the limits of their own territories, permanently)

Salute of 17 guns

Alwar The Maharaja of

Bharatpur The Mir of

(Within the limits of their own territories permanently)

Salutes of 15 guns

Benares The Maharaja of

Bhavnagar The Maharaja of

Jind The Maharaja of

Junagadh The Nawab of

Kaporthala The Maharaja of

Nabha The Maharaja of

Nawanagar The Maharaja of

Ratlam The Maharaja of

(Within the limits of their own territories, permanently)

Salutes of 13 guns

Bushire His Excellency the Governor of At the termination of an official visit

Janjira. The Nawab of (Within the limits of his own territory, permanently)

* Conferred in the first instance, during the minority of her son, the Maharaja of Mysore, and in the capacity of Regent, and subsequently continued for her lifetime.

Salutes of 11 guns

Bayanivadi The Sar Desai of.. .. Within the limits of his own territory permanently

Salutes of 5 guns

Abu Dhabi, The Shaikh of } Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief

Bunder Abbas, The Governor of
Lingah, The Governor of
Muhammerah, The Governor of } At the termination of an official visit

Muhammerah, Eldest son of the Shaikh of } Fired on occasions when he visits one of His Majesty's ships as his father's representative

Salutes of 3 guns

Ajman, The Shaikh of
Dibai, The Shaikh of
Rae-ul-Khejma, The Shaikh of
Sharjah, The Shaikh of
Umm ul Qawain, The Shaikh of } Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of official visits by these Chiefs

TABLE OF LOCAL PERSONAL SALUTES

Salutes of 11 guns

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Isa bin Ali al Kha
lifa, K C I E C S I, Shaikh of Bahrain } Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL LOCAL SALUTES

Salutes of 17 guns

Council of Ministers (as a whole) of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat

Salutes of 13 guns

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat, when a member of the ruling family

Salutes of 9 guns

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat when not a member of the ruling family

Salutes of 7 guns

Bahrain, The Shaikh of
Kuwait, The Shaikh of
Muhammerah, The Shaikh of
Qatr, The Shaikh of

Salutes of 5 guns

Bahrain, Eldest son of the Shaikh of or other member of the ruling family
Kuwait, Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family } Fired when acting as Deputy of these Chiefs.

Individual Members of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 13 guns

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khar'al Khan,
G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Shaikh of Muhammerah. } Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Indian Orders.

The Star of India.

The Order of the Star of India was instituted by Queen Victoria in 1861, and enlarged in 1866, 1878, 1897, 1902, and 1911 and the dignity of Knight Grand Commander may be conferred on Princes or Chiefs of India, or upon British subjects for important and loyal service rendered to the Indian Empire, the second and third classes for services in the Indian Empire of not less than thirty years in the department of the Secretary of State for India. It consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master (the Viceroy of India), the first class of forty-four Knights Grand Commanders (22 British and 22 Indian), the second class of one hundred Knights Commanders, and the third class of two hundred Companions, exclusive of Extra and Honorary Members, as well as certain additional Knights and Companions.

The Insignia are (i) the Collar of gold, composed of the lotus of India, of palm branches tied together in satire, of the united red and white rose, and in the centre an Imperial Crown all enamelled in their proper colours and linked together by gold chains. (ii) The Star of a Knight Grand Commander is composed of rays of gold issuing from a centre, having thereon a star of five points in diamonds resting upon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon, tied at the ends and inscribed with the motto of the Order *Herren's Light our Guide*, also in diamonds. That of a Knight Commander is somewhat different, and is described below. (iii) The Badge, an onyx cameo having Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy thereon, set in a perforated and ornamental oval, containing the motto of the Order surrounded by a star of five points, all in diamonds. (iv) The Mantle of light blue satin lined with white, and fastened with a cord of white silk with blue and silver tassels. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

The ribbon of the Order (four inches wide for Knights Grand Commanders) is sky-blue, having a narrow white stripe towards either edge, and is worn from the right shoulder to the left side. A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width of the same colours and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, and pendant therefrom a badge of a smaller size, (b) on his left breast a Star composed of rays of silver issuing from a gold centre, having thereon a silver star of five points resting upon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon, tied at the ends, inscribed with the motto of the Order in diamonds. A Companion wears from his left breast a badge of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of a smaller size pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches. All insignia are returnable at death to the Central Chancery, or if the recipient was resident in India, to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

Sovereign of the Order—H I M The King.

Grand Master of the Order—His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India, the Most Honourable Lord Reading, P.C., G.C.B., G.M.I., G.M.I.E., G.C.V.O.

Honorary Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

Prince Louis Albrecht D'Arrenberg
Hon. General His Majesty Chawla Somdetch
Phra Paramendh Maha Vajiravadh Phra
Mongkut Klao, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., King of
Siam.

Extra Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. M. the Queen Empress
H. R. H. The Duke of Connaught
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales

Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda
H. H. the Maharana of Udaipur
The Marquis of Lansdowne
H. H. the Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir
H. H. the Maharaja of Gwalior
Lord Harris
Baron Macdonnell
Earl Curzon of Kedleston
Lord George Hamilton
H. H. the Raja of Coochin
Baron Amptill
Maharaja Sir Chandra Shumshere Jung Bahadur Bana of Nepal
H. H. the Maharaja of Orissa
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst
H. H. the Begum of Bhopal
Sir Stewart Bayley
Sir Dighton Probyn
Baron Sydenham
Sir Arthur Lawley
Sir John Hewitt
H. H. the Maharaja of Bikaner
H. H. the Maharaja of Kotah
General Sir Edmund George Barrow
H. H. the Maharaja of Kapurthala
His Exalted Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad
H. H. the Aga Khan
H. H. the Nawab of Tonk
H. H. the Maharaja of Cochin
Baron Carmichael of Skirling
Baron Pentland
Baron Willington
H. H. Sir Charles Monro
H. H. the Maharaja of Bundi
H. H. the Maharaja of Benares
H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala
Sir Arthur Arnold Barrett
H. H. the Nawab of Rampur
Lord Chelmsford
The Earl of Ronaldshay
H. H. the Maharaja Jam Sahib of Navanagar
H. E. General Lord Rawlinson
The Maharaja of Alwar
Viscount Inchcape
Viscount Lee of Fareham
Honorary Knights Commanders (K. C. S. I.)
His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khairat Khan,
G.O.I.E., Sardar Arfa, Amir Nayan, Shaikh
of Muhammadar and dependencies
Prince Ismail Mirza, Motamad ed Dowleh
Amir Akram, son of His Royal Highness
the late Sultan Sir Masoud Mirza, Yemine
ed-Dowleh, Zil-ee-Sultan, of Persia

Gen. Sir Bhim Shumahere Jung, Bahadur
Rana, K C V O, of Nepal
General Sir Baber Shum Shere Jung,
Bahadur Rana, G B E, K C I E of Nepal

Knights Commanders (K C S I)

Sir Joseph West Ridgway
Sir David Miller Barbour
Sir Phillip Percival Hutchins
Sir Henry Edward Stokes
Sir Henry Mortimer Durand
H H Maharao of Sirohi
Sir Courtenay Percgrine Ilbert
H H The Maharaja of Idar
Sir William Mackworth Young
Sir William John Cunningham
Sir John Frederick Price
Sir Charles Montgomery Rivas
Sir Henry Martin Winterbotham
Sir James Montezath
Lieut. Col. Sir Donald Robertson
Sir Hugh Shakespeare Barnes
Sir Arundel Tagg Arundel
Sir Arthur Henry Temple Martindale
Sir James Thomson
Sir Joseph Bampfylde Fuller
Lieut.-Col. Arthur John, Baron Stamfordham
Sir Thomas William Holderness
Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
H H Maharaj Rana of Jhalawar
Sir James Wilson
H H Maharaja of Alwar
H H Raja of Jind
Sir George Stuart Forbes
H H Raja of Ratlam
Sir James Lyle Mackay, Baron Inchcape
Sir Harvey Adamson
Nawab of Murshidabad
Sir John Ontario Miller
Sir Lionel Montague Jacob
Sir Murray Hamrick
Sir Krishna Govinda Gupta
Sir Leslie Alexander Selim Porter
Sir Spencer Harcourt Butler
Sir Robert Warrand Carlyle
H H Maharaja of Kishanganj
Sir Reginald Henry Craddock
Sir James McCrone Douie
Lord Meston of Agra and Dunottar
Sir Benjamin Robertson
Maharajahdiraj of Burdwan
Sir Elliott Graham Colvin
Sir Trevredyn Racheleigh Wynne
Sir George Casson Walker
H H Maharaja of Dhar
H H Maharaja of Dewas State (Senior Branch)
H H Maharaja of Bhutan
Sir John Nathaniel Atkinson
Sir William Thomson Morison
General Sir James Willcocks
Sir M P O'Dwyer
Sir Saïyid Ali Inam
Sir Michael William Fenton
Colonel Sir Sidney Gerald Barrard
Sir William Henry Solomon
Genl. Sir W B Birdwood
Sir P Sundaram Aiyar Sivasaami Aiyar
Sir Frederick William Duke
Sir Edward Albert Gait
H H Nawab of Maler Kotla
H H Maharaja of Sirmur
Sir William Henry Clark
Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox

Sir Steyning William Edgerley
Sir Harrington Verney Lovett
Sir Robert Woodburn Gillan
Maharaj Sri Sir Bhairon Singh Bahadur
Sir Alexander Gordon Cardew
Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
Sir C H A Hill
H H Maharaja Malhar Rao Baba Saheb Puar
Dewas (Junior Branch)
H H The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra
Lieut.-Col. Sir F E Youngusband
Sir T Morison
Major-Gen G M Kirkpatrick
Major-Gen R C O Stuart
Sir George Rivers Lowndes
H H Maharajahdiraja Maharawal Sir
Jowahir Singh Bahadur of Jaisalmer
Sir Archdale Earle
Sir Stuart Mifford Fraser
Sir John Stratheden Campbell
Sir Frank George Sly
H H the Maharaja of Datta
H H the Maharaj Rana of Dholpur
Sir William Vincent
Sir Thomas Holland
Lieut. General Sir William Raine Marshall
Sir James Bennett Brunyate
Sir Sydney Arthur Taylor Bowliatt
Sir Oswald Vivian Boequet
Lieut.-Gen Sir Alexander Stanhope Cobbe
Sir G Carmichael
Dr Sir M P Sadler
The Right Hon'ble Lord Southborough
Lieut. Colonel Maharaja Daulat Singhji of Idar
The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur Sir P Rajagopala
Achariyar
Major Gen Sir Harry Triscott Brooking
Lieut-Gen Sir George Fletcher MacMunn
Sir George Barnes
Colonel Nawab Muhammad Nasrulla Khan
of Bhopal
Sir Edward MacLagan
Lord Sinha of Raipur
Sir N D Beakson Bell
Sir William Morris
Sir L J Kershaw
Sir G S Curtis
Sir L Davidson
C G Todhunter
Sir Henry Wheeler
Captain His Highness Maharawal Shri Ran
Jit Singhji Mansinghji, Raja of Baria, Bombay
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Muham-
mad Shah
Sir William Malcolm Halley
Sir Hamilton Grant
Sir H R C Dobbs
Sir Muhammad Ali Muhammad Khan, Raja of
Mahmudabad
Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, Bart
Sir Sassoon Jacob David, Bart
Sir William Acworth
Sir John Henry Kerr
Dr Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru
Sir Ludovic Porter
Sir Havelock Charles
The Hon'ble Rao Bahadur Sir B N Sarma
The Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahimtulla
C A Innes
General Sir C W Jacob
The Maharaja of Sirohi
The Maharaja of Rajpipla
Sir Frederick Nicholson

Companions (C. S. I.)

Major-Gen Beresford Lovett
Lieut-Gen Michael Weekes Willoughby
Sir Frederick Russell Hogg
Col Charles Edward Yale
William Rudolph Henry Merk
Sardar Jivan Singh
Col George Herbert Trevor
Lieut-Col Henry St Patrick Maxwell
Sir Jervoise Athelstane Baines
Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe
James Fairbairn Finlay
Joseph Parker
Horace Frederick D'Oyly Moulle
Henry Aiken Anderson
Lieut-Col Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
Sir Henry Evan Macpherson James
Charles William Odling
Alexander Walmsley Cruikshank
David Norton
Thomas Stoker
Sir Edward Richard Henry
Lucas White King
Sir Mackenzie Dalzell Chalmers
Henry Farrington Evans
Sir Frederick Styles Philip Lely
George Robert Irwin
Lieut-Gen Sir George Lloyd Reilly Richardson
Robert Burton Buckley
Arthur Frederick Cox
Charles Gerwien Bayne
Hartley Kennedy
Sir Edwin Grant-Burle
William Charles Macpherson
Lt Col James Alexander Lawrence Montgomery
Lt-Gen Henry Doveton Hutchinson
Raja of Burdwan
Col James White Thurburn
Alfred Breton
William Thomas Hall
Richard Townsend Greer
Sir Louis William Dane
Raja Ram Pal
Hermann Michael Kisch
Sir Cecil Michael Wilford Brett
Herbert Bradley
Sir Frank Campbell Gates
John Mitchell Holmes
Percy Seymour Vessey Fitzgerald
Lt-Col Willoughby Pitcairn Kennedy
Raja Narendra Chand
Arthur Delaval Youngusband
Oscar Theodore Barrow
Francis Alexander Blackie
Sajid Humam Bilgrami
Percy Comyn Lyon
Algernon Robert Sutherland
Sir George Watson Shaw
William Arbuthnot Inglis
Romer Edward Youngusband
Major-General Herbert Mullaly
John Alexander Brown
Col Henry Finnis
Maj-Gen Sir Alfred William Lambert Bayly
Maurice Walter Fox-Strangways
William Lochiel Sapie Lovett Cameron
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Maj-Gen Sir Henry Montague Pakington
Hawkes
Francis Capel Harrison
Comdr. Sir Hamilton Fynn Freer-Smith

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Haviland Le Mesurier
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John Walter Hose
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Surgeon General George Francis Angelo Harris
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Arthur Crommelin Hankin
Nawab Sir Faridoon Jang Bahadur
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Horace Charles Mules
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Lieut Col Mathew Richard Henry Wilson
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Col Thomas Francis Bruce Benny Talloyn,
Michael Kennedy
Thakor Karansinghji Vajrajji of Lakhnar
Col Alain Chartier de Lotbiniere Joly de
Lotbiniere
Col Robert Smetton MacLagan
Lieut Col Charles Mowbray Dallas
Edward Henry Seamander Clarke
Sir Jagadish Chandra Bose
Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Baig
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Paul Gregory Mellitus
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William Harrison Moreland, C.I.E.
Col Lestock Hamilton Reid
Surgeon Henry Wickham Stevenson
Hon Lieut-Col Raja of Lambagron
Lieut-Col Donald John Campbell MacNabb
Lieut Col Henry Walter George Cole
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Major-General Gerald Godfrey Giffard
Frederick William Johnston
William Henry Lucas
The Thakor Babeh of Sayla
Arthur Leslie Saunders
Sardar Sir Datt Singh of Jallunder
Walter Maude
Henry Ashbrooke Crump
William James Reid

Walter Gennell Wood
 John Corzwallis Godley
 A. Battersworth
 S. M. Edwards
 Lt.-Col. F. H. Elliott
 Sir Herbert John Maynard
 Lt.-Col. A. B. Dew
 R. T. Keeling
 H. Sharp
 R. B. Scott
 Col. Sir J. W. E. Douglas-Scott Montagu of Beaulieu
 Rear-Admiral Arthur Hayes-Sadler
 Laurence Robertson
 John Ghest Cumming
 Lieut.-Col. Stephen Lushington Aplin
 Sir James Houssemayne DuBouley
 Sir John Barry Wood
 Major-General Sir Arthur Wigram Money
 Col. L. A. C. Gordon
 T. A. Chalmers
 E. Burn
 G. B. H. Fell
 Major-General Sir W. C. Knight
 Lt.-Col. C. Kaye
 Patrick James Fagan
 Col. Hormasji Edulji Banatwalla, I.M.S.
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 Col. Benjamin William Marlow
 Lt.-Col. Harold Fenton Jacob
 Lt.-Col. Francis Beville Prideaux
 Lt.-Col. Stuart George Knox
 Col. Hugh Whitechurch Perry
 Henry Cecil Ferrard
 Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William Oldham
 Evan Macdonochie
 Francis Coope French
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 Lt.-Col. A. P. Trevor
 Horatio Norman Bolton
 Major-General J. O. Birmingham
 Colonel H. R. Hopwood
 Brig.-General R. H. W. Hughes
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 L. B. Buckley
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 Major-Gen. J. M. Walter
 Brig.-General W. G. Hamilton
 Lieut.-Col. A. W. N. Taylor
 Major A. J. Anderson
 Major-General Theodore Fraser
 Brig.-General W. N. Campbell
 Col. Thomas A. Harrison
 Major-General L. C. Dunsterville
 Hugh McPherson
 Henry Fraser Howard
 Lieut.-Col. Herbert Des Voeux
 Col. Charles Battray
 Temp. Lieut.-Col. Evelyn Berkeley Howell
 Lieut.-Col. and Brevet-Col. Felix Fordat
 Ready
 Col. Herbert Evan Charles Bayley Nepean
 Lieut.-Col. Patrick Robert Odeil
 Lieut.-Col. Montagu William Douglas
 Colonel Charles Macaggart
 John Perrenet Thompson
 Richard Meredith
 Hugh Lansdown Stephenson
 Manabhai Nandshankar Mehta
 Lieut.-Col. Thomas Wolsey Haig

Herman Cameron Norman
 Reginald Arthur Maas
 Colonel Alexander John Henry Swiney
 Brevet-Col. James Wilton O'Dowda
 Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Arnold Talbot Wilson
 Lieut.-Col. and Brevet-Col. Charles Ernest Graham Norton
 Captain Wilfrid Nunn
 Brevet-Colonel (temporary Brigadier-General) Herbert Isaac
 Colonel Stewart Gordon Loch
 Colonel (temporary Brigadier-Gen.) William Keltie McLeod
 Col. Frederick James Moberly
 Colonel (temporary Brigadier Gen.) Robert Fox Sorsbie
 Colonel Alan Edmondson Tate
 Major-Gen. William Cross Barratt
 Temporary Brigadier-General Sir Edward Hugh Bray
 Col. (temporary Brigadier-Gen.) Arthur Howarth Pryce Harrison
 Colonel (temporary Major-Gen.) Frank Ernest Johnson
 Major General Robert Archibald Cassels
 Alexander Phillips Muddiman
 Frederick Campbell Rose
 Selwyn Howe Fremantle
 Peter William Monte
 Major-General Charles Astley Fowler
 Major-General Harold Hendley
 Colonel Michael Edward Willoughby
 Colonel Edward Arthur Fagan
 Colonel Herbert William Jackson
 Lt. Col. Arthur Leslie Jacob
 William Pell Barton
 C. F. Payne
 J. L. Klein
 W. J. J. Howley
 B. P. Standen
 J. L. Maffey
 Lieut.-Col. J. L. W. F. French-Mullen
 Lt.-Col. J. L. R. Gordon, C.B.
 Colonel H. A. P. Lindsay
 Colonel C. W. Proffit
 Nawabzada Haji Muhammad Hamidulla Khan of Bhopal
 George Rainy
 The Raja of Muhammadabad, United Provinces
 R. B. Holland
 Lieutenant-Colonel F. G. Beville
 C. A. Innes
 C. J. Hallifax
 Major-General H. F. Cooke
 B. M. Pross
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 A. B. Banerji
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 Colonel K. Wigram, I.A.
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 C. A. Barron
 H. M. R. Hopkins
 R. A. Graham
 G. R. Clarke
 D. Donald
 Khan Bahadur Sardar Mohamed Ali Khan Khan-i-Bash of Lahore
 Lieut. Col. G. B. M. Sarel
 Col. F. E. Coningham
 Lieut.-Col. D. A. D. McVean
 Col. H. G. Burrard
 Col. J. H. Foster Laith

Col. G. A. H. Beatty
 Captain Raja Narendra Sah, of Tehri (Garhwal)
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 Norman Edward Marjoribanks
 Denys de Saumarez Bray
 Charles Montagu King
 Pandit Hari Kishan Kaul of the Punjab
 S. E. Hignell
 James Fraser
 Colonel S. F. Muspratt
 W. E. Copleston
 Frederick B. Evans
 Colonel Rivers Bernay Worgan, C V O
 Major General W. C. Black
 L. H. Saunders
 G. E. Lambert
 B. O. Allen
 J. E. Webster
 T. E. Mohr
 Diwan Bahadur Raghunath Rao Ramachandra Rao
 Major C. C. J. Barrett
 Nawab Mehrab Khan Chief of Bugti Tribe
 Sir Godfrey John Vignoles 1st mab. Bart
 Capt. Dudley Burton Naylor North
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 S. P. O'Donnell, I O S.
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 Maharaj Shri Fateh Singh
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 G. F. Paddison
 J. Milne
 J. Donald
 Lt. Col. W. F. T. O'Connor
 E. S. Lloyd
 L. F. Morshead
 N. D. Craik
 S. A. Smyth
 Lt. Col. W. H. Jefferey
 C. G. Adam
 Diwan Bahadur T. Raghavayya
 Raja Ejaz Rasul Khan of Jehangirabad
 D. H. Lees
 H. P. Tollinton
 A. W. Macnair
 F. Noyce
 W. Southwold
 Captain E. J. Headlam
 S. F. Stewart
 D. T. Chadwick
 N. E. Couchman
 F. G. Pratt
 N. Osken
 F. L. H. Hammond

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Secretary, The Hon. ble Major D. G. Ogilvie
 Registrar, Brigadier General Sir Douglas F. R.
 Dawson G C V O, G E C M G

The Most Eminent Order of the Indian Empire

This Order, instituted by H. M. Queen Victoria, Empress of India, Jan. 1st, 1878, and extended and enlarged in 1886, 1887, 1892, 1897, and 1902 is conferred for services rendered to the Indian Empire, and consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master, thirty-two Knights Grand Commanders (of whom the Grand Master is first and principal), ninety-two Knights Commanders, and an indefinite number of Companions (not

exceeding, without special statute, 20 nominations in any one year), also Extra and Honorary Members over and above the vacancies caused by promotion to a higher class of the Order, as well as certain Additional Knights and Companions appointed by special statute Jan. 1st, 1909, commemorative of the 50th Anniversary of the assumption of Crown Govt. in India.

The Insignia are (1) The COLLAR of gold formed of elephants, lotus flowers, peacocks in their pride, and Indian roses, in the centre the Imperial Crown, the whole linked together with chains, (2) The STAR of the Knight Grand Commander, comprised of five rays of silver, having a small ray of gold between each of them, the whole alternately plain and scaled, issuing from a gold centre having thereon Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, inscribed *Imperatrix Auspiciis*, and surmounted by an Imperial Crown gold, (3) The BADGE consisting of a rose, enamelled gules barbed vert, and having in the centre Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, inscribed *Imperatrix Auspiciis* surmounted by an Imperial Crown, also gold (4) The MANTLE is of Imperial purple satin, lined with and fastened by a cordon of white silk, with purple silk and gold tassels attached. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width, of the same colour (purple) and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander pendant therefrom a badge of smaller size (b) on his left breast a star, similar to that of the first class but the rays of which are all of silver.

The above mentioned Insignia are returned at death to the Central Chancery, or if the Knight was resident in India to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

A Companion wears from the left breast a badge (not returnable at death) of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of smaller size, pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches.

Sovereign of the Order—The King-Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order—Lord Reading.

Honorary Knights Grand Commanders (G C I E)

The ex Emperor of Korea
 Shaikh Sir Khazal Khan, Shaikh of Moham-
 merah and Dependencies
 Shaikh Sir Abdul Aziz bin Abdur Rahman
 Ruler of Nejd and Dependencies

Extra Knight Grand Commanders (G C I E)

The Duke of Connaught
 H. R. H. The Prince of Wales

Knights Grand Commanders (G C I E.)

The Maharaja of Cutch
 Lord Lansdowne
 Lord Harris
 The Nawab of Tonk
 The Wali of Kalat
 Maharaja of Karsul
 Thakur Sahib of Gondal

The Maharaja of Benares
 Lord Curzon of Kedleston
 The Maharaja of Orissa
 Lord Ampthill
 Maharaja of Bundi
 The Maharaja of Sirohi
 The Aga Khan
 Lord Lamington
 The Begum of Bhopal
 Sir Edmund Hiles
 Sir Walter Laurence
 Sir Arthur Lawley
 The Maharaja of Bikaner
 The Maharaja of Kotah
 Lord Sydenham
 The Nawab of Rampur
 Maharaja Sir Khan Parbhoo
 Lord Hardinge
 Lord Carmichael
 Maharaja of Kashmir
 Sir Louis Dane
 Maharaja of Bobbili
 Lord Stamfordham
 Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson
 Sir John Jordan
 The Maharaja of Udaipur
 The Maharaja of Patiala
 The Raja of Cochin
 Lord Pentland
 The Raja of Pudukottai
 Lord Willington
 The Yuvaraja of Mysore
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 H. H. the Maharaja of Jind
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 Sir Gulam Muhammad Ali, Prince of Arcot
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 H. H. the Maharaja of Indore
 The Maharaja of Cochin
 Sir William Duke
 Sir George Ambrose Lloyd
 The Maharaja of Baroda
 The Maharaja of Alwar
 The Maharaja of Kapurthala
 H. H. Sir Ugyen Wangchuk, Maharaja of
 Bhutan
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 The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra
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 Sir Reginald Craddock
 Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Orme Wilson
 The Hon'ble Maharajadhiraja Sir Bijay Chandra
 Mehta Bahadur of Burdwan
 The Maharaja of Kolhapur

Honorary Knights Commanders (K.C.I.E.)

Sir Leon E. Clement-Thomas
 Dr. Sir Sven Von Hedin
 Cavaliere Filippo De Filippi
 General Sir Baber Shumshere Jung Bahadur
 Rana of Nepal
 General Sir Jodha Shumshere Jung Bahadur,
 Rana of Nepal
 Sultan Sir Abdul Karim Fakhri bin Ali of
 Lohaj

Sir Alfred Martineau
 Commanding General Sir Padma Shum Shere
 Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal
 Genl. Sir Tes Shum Shere Jung Bahadur, Rana
 of Nepal
 H. E. The Shaikh of Bahrain and Dependencies
 Sir Yang-tsung-hsin, Chiang Chun and Governor
 of Hain Kiang Province
 The Reverend Doctor Sir James Carruthers
 Rhea Ewing, M.A., D.D. LL.D.

Knights Commanders (K.C.I.E.)

Sir Albert James Leppos Cappel
 Sir Alfred Woodley Croft
 Sir Bradford Lealle
 Sir Arthur Baron Carnock
 Sir Guildford Molesworth
 Sir Henry Mortimer Durand
 Raja of Lunawara
 Sir Edward Charles Kayll Ollivant
 Sir Henry Seymour King
 Baron Inchcape
 Sir Wm. E. Brooke
 Nawab of Loharu
 Rear-Admiral Sir John Hext
 Sir Mancherjee Bhownagare
 Col. Sir Thomas Holdich
 Sir Andrew Wingate
 Raja Sir Harnam Singh, Ahluwalia
 Sir S. Subramaniam Aiyar
 Sir Alexander Cunningham
 Sir James George Scott
 Sir Lawrence Hugh Jenkins
 Sir Herbert Thirkell White
 Sir Frederick Augustus Nicholson
 Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe
 Raja Dhiraj of Shahpura
 Sir Gangadhar Rao Ganesah, Chief of Miraj
 (Senior Branch)
 Brevet-Col. Sir Buchanan Scott
 Col. Sir John Walter Otley
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward Younghusband
 Major-General Sir James E. L. Macdonald
 Sir Fredric Styles Philip Lely
 Lt.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
 Sir Francis Whitmore Smith
 Sir Thomas Henry Holland
 Nawab Sir Muhammad Ali Beg
 H. H. Maharajadhiraja of Kishanganah
 Raja of Mahmudabad
 Sir Trevellyn Rashleigh Wynne
 Sir Richard Morris Dane
 Sir Wilhelm Schlich
 Sir Theodore Morison
 Gen. Sir Robert Irvin Scallan
 Sir John David Reese
 Rear-Admiral Sir Edmond John Warre Slade
 Sir John Benton
 Sir Archdale Earle
 Sir Charles Stewart-Wilson
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Malcolm Henry Stanley Grover
 Sir Charles Rait Cleveland
 Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
 Sir Henry Parnall Burt
 Sir James Housemayne DuBoulay
 Sir Rajendra Nath Mukherji
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Henry Beaufort Thornhill
 Sir Gangadhar Madho Chitnavis
 H. H. Nawab of Jacma State
 H. H. Raja of Sitaman State
 Raj Bahadur Sir Amarsingh Basesinhji (Vankar)
 Sir Ramkrishna Gopal Bhandardkar

Sir Michael Filose
 Rear Adm Sir Colin Richard Keppel
 Sir John Stanley
 Sir Saint-Hill Barclay-Wilmut
 Sir Francis Edward Spring
 H H Maharaja of Parbatgarh
 H H Maharaja of Bijawar State Bundel-
 khand
 Sir John Twigg
 Sir George Abraham Grierson
 Sir Mario Aurel Stein
 Sir Henry Alexander Kirk
 Sir Alfred Gibbs Bourne
 Sir Frank Campbell Gates
 Sir George Macartney
 Sir Edward Douglas MacLagan
 Maj.-Gen Sir George John Younghusband
 Sir Brian Egerton
 Sir Stephen George Sale
 Sir Prabhakar D Pattani
 Maharaja of Kasimbazar
 Lieut Col Sir John Ramsay
 Sir William Maxwell
 Sir Faridounji Jambhedji C S I
 Sir Mokshagundam Visvesvaraya
 His Highness the Maharaja of Samthar
 Sir John Stuart Donald
 Lieut.-Col Sir Percy Moleworth Sykes
 Sir Edward Vere Levinge
 Raja Sir Rampal Singh
 Sir Alexander Henderson Mack
 Sir Sao Mawng
 H H Raja Sir Arjun Singh of Narsingarh
 Captain Malik Sir Umar Hayat Khan
 Sir Robert Bailey Oleg
 Sir Henry Wheeler
 Sir Mahadeo B Chaulal
 Sir James Walker
 Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Balg
 H H the Raja of Bilaspur
 Nawab Sir Sahibzade Abdul Qayum
 Lieut Gen Sir Ralph Gilbert Egerton
 Lieut Gen Sir Henry D Urban Keary
 Sir George Cunningham Buchanan
 Major-Gen Sir William George Lawrence Beynon
 Raja of Baggarh
 Raja of Barwan
 Maharaja of Sonpur
 Capt Raja Sir Hari Singh
 Sir John Barry Wood
 Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant
 Colonel Sir Vere Bonarney Fane
 Thakur Sahab of Rajkot
 Lieut.-Col W J Buchanan
 Lieut.-Col Raja Jalchand of Lambagraon
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 Sir William Starick Morris
 His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja ul Mulk of Chitral
 Khan Bahadur Maniwi Sir Rahim Bakht
 Sir James Herbert Sandbrook
 Sir C R. Low, L.C.S.
 Maharaj Kunwar Sir Bhopal Singh
 Nawab Sir Mir Shams Shah, L.S.O.
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Locke Elliot
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Altham Altham
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Charles Alexander Anderson
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Havelock Hudson

Major-Gen Sir Wyndham Charles Knight
 Major-Gen. Sir Herbert Aveling Raitt
 Sir Herbert Guy Darling
 Major-Gen Sir H F B Freeland
 Baron Montagu of Beaulieu
 Brevet-Lieut Col Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson
 2nd Lt Meherban Sir M V Raje Ghorpada,
 Chief of Mutchol
 The Honble Sir W Maude I.C.S.
 The Honble Rai Bahadur Sir Bepin Krishna
 Bose Kt
 Sir C M Stevenson Moore, I.C.S.
 J G Cumming
 H J Maynard
 H H The Nawab of Palampur
 H R O Dobbs
 H A Crump
 Sardar Arur Singh of Amritsar
 Lieut Gen Sir Richard Wareham
 Major Gen Sir Wilfrid Malleson
 Major Gen Sir Patrick Hehir
 The Maharaja of Birmur
 The Nawab of Malerkotla
 The Thakur Sahab of Limbdi
 W D Sheppard
 I O Porter
 Major Gen Sir Andrew Skeen
 Col. Sir A B Dew
 Nawab Khan I Zaman Khan Chief of Amb
 Raja Muhammad Nasim Khan Mir of Hunza
 E Macdonochie
 Dr W H Wilcox
 The Maharaja of Panna
 H L Mesurier
 P J Fagan
 Sir Norcot Warren
 Raja Sahib Sri Govinda Krishna Yachendruni-
 varu
 Raja Salyid Abu Jafar
 C A Bell
 Maulvi Ahmad Husain Nawab Amin Jang
 Bahadur
 Sir John H Biles
 Lieutenant-Colonel T W Haig
 Sir John Henry Kerr
 Vice Admiral Sir Lionel Halsey
 The Maharaja of Sikkim
 The Chief of Sangli
 Major General G G Giffard, I.M.S.
 Major Nawab Malik Khuda Baksh Khan Tiwana
 H F Howard
 A B Knapp
 H I Stephenson
 R A Mant
 Maung Kin
 B N Mitra
 Nawab Muhammad Musammil ulah Khan of
 Bhikampur U P
 Sir C H Setalvad
 Sir Muhammad Habibullah Sahib Bahadur
 H Macpherson
 W J Beld
 Sir E M D Chamier
 Khan Bahadur Sayyid Mehdi Shah
 A C Chatterjee
 R E Holland
 Sir M B Dadabhoi
 G Rainey

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Laurent Marie Emile Beauchamp

Sean Etienne Justin Schneider
Haji Mohammad Ali Rais-ut-Tajjar
Sheik Abdulla Bin Rea
Haidar Khan, Chief of Hayat Daud—(Persian Gulf)
Mirza Ali Karam Khan Shuja i Nizam, Dy Governor of Bandar Abbas
Lieut.-Col. Ghana Bhikram
Lieut.-Col. Partab Jung Bahadur Rana
Major Alfred Paul Jacques Masson
Lieut.-Col. Gen Sugiyama, Imperial Japanese Army
Lieut. Richard Beamish—(Europe)
Lieut. François Pierre Paul Rasy—(Europe)
Colonel Indra Shum Shero Jung Bahadur Rana—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Bhuvan Bikram Rana—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Shamshere Bikram Rana—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Dumber Shumshere Thapa—(Nepal)
Lieut. Col. Jit Jung Sahi—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Bhairab Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana—(Nepal)
Lieut. Col. Madan Man Singh Basniat—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Gambhir Jung Thapa—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Chandra Jung Thapa—(Nepal)
Major Uttam Bikram Rana—(Nepal)
Captain Ghrimardan Thapa—(Nepal)
Captain Narsing Bahadur Basniat—(Nepal)
Sheikh Abdulla Bin Jasim, Ruler of Qatar—(Persian Gulf)
Tao-yin Ohur Ohu-jui Oh'ih, Tao-yin of Kaashgar
Sheikh Abdulla bin Jalawi, Amir of Hassa
Nobumiche Sakenobe
Major Masanosuke Teunoda
His Excellency Muhammad Ibrahim Khan, Shaikat-ul-Mulk
His Excellency Shaikh Ahmad al Jabir, Shaikh of Kowelt and dependences
Khan Sahib Yusuf Bin Ahmed Kanoo, M.S.E. (Persian Gulf)

Companions (C I E)

Pierre François Henri Nanquette
Stephen Paget Walter Vyvyan Luke
Charles Edward Pitman
Richard Isaac Bruce
Sir Stuart Colvin Bayley
George Felton Mathew
Sir Henry Christopher Mance
Maj.-Gen. Thomas Ross Church
Thakur Blohu Singh
Benjamin Lewis Rice
Mortimer Sloper Howell
Maj.-Gen. Viscount Downe
Sir George Watt, M.B.
Joseph Ralph Edward John Royle
The Rt. Hon. Saliyd Ameer Ali
Sir Frank Forbes Adam
Frederick Thomas Granville Walton
Major-Gen. James Cavan Berkeley
Sir James L. Walker
Rayner Childs Barker
Lieut.-Col. Charles Henry Ellison Adamson
Berthold Bibbentrop
Langton P. Walsh
Edmund Neel
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Sir George L. Holford
Maj.-Gen. L. H. E. Tucker
Sir John Prescott Hewett
Lieut.-Col. Henry Percy Poindestre Leigh
Sir J. Bampfylde Fuller
Sir William Turner Threlton-Dyer

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Edward Horace Man
Lieut.-Gen. Sir G. L. E. Richardson
Paul Gregory Melitus
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Edward C S. George
Col. Frank William Chatterton
Sri Ram Bhikaji Jatar
Fasulbhai Visram
Arthur O. Hankin
Adam G. Tytler
Charles E. Buckland
Harry A. Acworth
Col. C. A. Porteous
Sir Steyning W. Ederley
Col. W. B. Yelding
Henry J. Stanyon
Frederick John Johnstone
Col. Samuel Haslett Browne
Frank Henry Cook
Francis Erskine Dempster
Lieut. Col. John Shakespear
Sir William Earnshaw Cooper
Maharaj Rajashri Sankara Subbaliyar
Khan Bahadur Sir Naoroji Pestonji Vakil
Edwin Darlington
Dr. Waldemar M. Haffkine
Rustamji Dhanjibhai Mehta
Khan Bahadur Mancherji Rustamji Dholi
Col. John Charles F. Gordon
Sir Benjamin Robertson
Duncan James Macpherson
Sir Robert Warrand Carlyle
Henry Cecil Ferard
Charles George Palmer
Lieut.-Col. Samuel John Thomson
P. C. H. Snow
Lieut.-Col. A. B. Minchin
W. T. Van Someren
Charles Still
Col. H. K. McKay
Lieut. Col. W. B. Browning
Francis Jack Needham
Robert Giles
Vishwanath Patankar Madhava Rao
Col. Walter Gawn King
James Sykes Gamble
Sir George William Forrest
Lieut.-Col. Frank Popham Young
Reginald Hawkins Greenstreet
John Sturrock
John Stuart Bressford
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Edward Louis Caprell
George Mota Harriott
Frederick George Brunton Trevor
Henry Marsh
Lieut.-Col. Bertrand Evelyn Mallah Gordon
Raj Bahadur Sir Kailash Chandra Basu
Henry Felix Hertz
Courtenay Walter Bennett
Rear-Admiral Walter Somerville Goodridge
Col. Solomon Charles Frederick Pale
Bertram Prior Standen
Henry Alexander Slim
Col. John Crimmin
Lieut.-Col. Granville Henry Loch
Fardumji Kuvarti Tarapurwala
Babu Kali Nath Mitter
Sir William Jameson Soubey
Col. William John Read Bainsford
Col. Oswald Claude Radford
Major-General George Kenneth Scott-Moncrieff

Major-General Thomas Edwin Scott
Lieut.-Col. Laurence Austine Waddell
General Mir Asaf Ali Khan
Subadar-Major Sardar Khan
Hon. Capt. Yasin Khan
Sidney Preston
Sir Murray Hammick
Alexander Laurin Pendock Tucker
Lieut.-Col. John Clibborn
Col. George Wingate
Col. George Hart Desmond Gimlette
Arthur Henry Wallis
George Herbert Deane Walker
Lieut. Col. Frank Cooke Webb Ware
Hon. Major Thomas Henry Hill
Alexander Porteous
Col. Thomas Elwood Lindsay Bates
Hon. Lockhart Mathew St. Clair
Sir Marshall Reid
Rao Bahadur Pandit Sakhdeo Parshad
Stuart Mitford Fraser
Lt.-Gen. Ernest De Brath
Walter Bernard de Winton
Algernon Elliott
Lt.-Col. Charles Arnold Kembell
Edward Giles
Lieut.-Col. Alfred William Alcock
Arthur Hill
Douglas Donald
Sir Jagadish Chandra Bose
Raja Sikandar Khan, of Nagar
Sir William Dickson Cruickshank
Sir Thomas Jewell Bennett
Charles Henry Wilson
Rao Bahadur Shyam Sundar Lal
Robert Herriot Henderson
Nawab Mir Mehrulla Khan
Charles Henry West
Charles Brown
George Huddleston
Lieut.-Col. Montagu William Douglas
Lieut.-Col. Arthur D'Aray Gordon Bannerman
Rai Bahadur Gunga Ram
Robert Douglas Hare
William Bell
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Edward Henry Scamander Clarke
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Hopetoun Gabriel Stokes	John Hope Simpson
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Henry Sharp	Major General Edwin Henry de Vere Atkinson
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Thomas Summers
Kiran Chandra Das
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 Taw Sein Ko
 Jivanji Jamshedji Modi
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 Poonasakar
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 Khan Bahadur Sayid Mehdi Shah
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 Rai Bahadur Jada Nath Musumdar
 Johaagur Behramji Murshah
 Narayan Malhar Joshi
 Hamid Khan
 Harry Evan Auguste Cotton
 Frank Herbert Brown
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 Colonel Clement Arthur Milward
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 Colonel Sir Edward Scott Worthington
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 Ernest Burdon
 Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan
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 Alexander Montgomerie
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 Stephen Cox
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 Hugh Kynaston Briscoe
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 Henry Vernon Barstow Hare-Scott
 Major Lewis Macleod Heath
 Major Lionel Edward Lang
 Rai Bahadur Milkhi Ram
 Rao Bahadur Keshto Govind Damlu
 James Wale Mackison
 Arthur Lambert Playfair
 Maganlal Thakordas Balmukunddas Modi
 Doctor Mohendra Nath Banarjee
 Col. (Honorary Brigadier-General) Henry
 Arthur Lane
 Basil John Gould
 Major-General John Blackburn Smith
 Lt.-Col. Francis Hope Grant Hutchinson
 Francis Peppys Rennie
 Lt.-Col. Stewart Blakely Agnew Patterson
 Malcolm Caird McAlpin
 Edward Arthur Henry Blunt
 Lieut.-Col. James Eccles
 Alexander Carmichael Stewart
 Walter Frank Hudson
 Adrian James Robert Hope
 John Willoughby Heares
 Lieut.-Colonel Robert Fraser Standage
 Major Kenneth Oswald Goldie
 Edward Francis Thomas
 Edward Lattrell Moysey
 Thomas Stewart Macpherson
 Maung Po Hla
 Arthur Campbell Armstrong
 Horace Williamson
 Alexander Newmarch
 Gerard Anstuthur Wathen
 Khan Bahadur Mir Shariat Khan
 Natha Singh Sardar Bahadur
 Raja Manohar Singh Roy
 Khan Bahadur Nasarwanji Hormasji Choksy

Raja Chandra Chur Singh, of Atrra Chaudhary
 William Scott Durrant
 Archibald Gibson McLagan
 Alexander Marr
 Lawrence Morley Stabbe
 Colonel Robert St. John Hickman
 James Macdonald Dunnett
 Lieut.-Col. Michael Lloyd Ferrar
 Levett Mackenzie Kaye
 Coryton Jonathan Webster Mayne
 Walter Swain
 Cyril James Irwin
 Lancelot Collin Bradford Glascock
 Richard Howard Hitchcock
 Edwin Lesware Price
 Rai Bahadur Chunil Lal Basu
 Cecil Frank Beadel
 Gavin Scott
 Horace Mason Haywood
 Major the Honourable Piers Walter Leigh
 Harry Tonkinson
 Chetput Pattabhatram Ayyar Ramaswami
 Ayyar
 Arthur Edward Nelson
 Alexander Shirley Montgomery
 Kunwal Jagdish Prasad
 Doctor Nelson Annandale
 Lieut.-Col. Andrew Thomas Gage
 Lieut. Col. John Phillip Cameron
 Lieut. Col. Charles Eekford Luard
 Frederick Alexander Leete
 Lieut.-Col. Henry Boes
 Captain Victor Felix Gamble
 Lieut. Col. Alfred Hooton
 Arnold-Albert Musto
 Abdoor Rahim
 John Arthur Jones
 The Reverend Canon Edward Gullford
 Keshab Chandra Roy
 Pringle Kennedy
 Major Henry Benedict Fox
 U Po Tha
 Captain Albert Gottlieb Pusch
 Nagroji Bapooji Saklatwala
 William Stentall
 Khan Bahadur Diwan Abdul Hamid
 Rao Bahadur Thakur Hari Singh
 W. Alder
 J. B. Martin
 D. J. Mitchell
 E. G. B. Peel
 F. F. Sladen
 Lt.-Col. R. H. Chenevix Trench
 A. F. L. Brayne
 E. C. Handyside
 C. G. Barnett
 Lt.-Col. A. Leventon
 Lt.-Col. T. Hunter
 Lt.-Col. R. McCarrison
 J. W. Blore
 H. G. Haig
 Khan Bahadur Muhammad Baruliah Sahib
 B. M. Maxwell
 J. H. Hechle
 Major D. P. Johnstone
 Khan Bahadur Mohammad Beer Basi Khan
 Khan Bahadur Muhammad Hayat Khan
 Kurehli of Sobbowal
 Rev. G. D. Barnes
 J. Everahed
 Saw Hke Swaba
 D. Graham

C A. H. Townshead
 E W Bog
 H P Duval
 J O Ker
 F F Mon
 W S Bremner
 P S Keelan
 C Douchars
 Colonel W. M. Coldstream
 C W Gwynne
 E B Ewbank
 Dr B L Dhinra
 Srinam Jagdeo Rao Puar
 Maulvi Nissam-ud-Din Ahmad
 Sahibzada Sultan Ahmed Khan
 F G Rogers
 C W Dunn
 E E Gibson
 Major G H Russell
 B J Glancy
 Diwan Bahadur L D Pillai
 H B Clayton
 B W P Sims
 Khan Bahadur Muhammad Abdul Karim Khan
 Maung Maung By A
 Sardar Bahadur Sheo Narayana Singh
 W T M Wright
 A N Moberley
 The Reverend E M. Macphail
 Lieut-Col G R Hearne
 C R W Jones
 Colonel B. Head, I.M.S.
 U L Majumdar
 P E Percival
 L O Clarke
 K N Knox
 E Cornan Smith
 Major G C S Black
 Mirza Mohamed Ismail
 J. M. Ewart
 Rai Bahadur T W Sadhu
 W J Lister
 B Venkateswathraju
 F Clayton
 Diwan Bahadur Shrinivasa K Rodda
 F Youngs
 Rai Bahadur G L Sijuar Gayawal
 F F Goodliffe
 Khan Bahadur Sardar Asghar Ali
 A W Street
 G H Rudkin
 Thakur Mangal Singh of Pokaran
 Diwan Bahadur P Kesava-Pillai
 A B L Tottenham
 A A L Parsons
 F C Turner
 J A L Swan
 H G Billson
 Colonel O H Bensley, I.M.S.
 H G Turner
 T G Butherford
 Major O D Ogilvie, I.A.
 Lieut.-Colonel E C G Maddock, I.M.S.
 F Anderson
 G Cunningham
 Major C K Daly
 Lieut.-Colonel J C B Vaughan, I.M.S.
 F. O Crawford
 H Calvert
 U Me
 Lieut.-Col. the Revd W T Wright
 Rai Bahadur Gyanendra Chandra Ghose
 Rai Bahadur Sukhamsaya Chaudhuri

Diwan Bahadur T Rangachariyar
 W L Travers
 Sardar Bahadur Sardar Jawahir Singh
 Lieut. (local Captain) Hissam ud-Din
 Bahadur

Khan Bahadur Shah Nawaz Khan Bhutto

OFFICERS OF THE ORDER

Secretary, The Hon. Major D G Ogilvie
 Registrar, Brigadier-General Sir Douglas F R.
 Dawson, G.C.V.O. C.B., O.M.G.

The Imperial Order of the Crown of India.

This Order was instituted Jan 1, 1878, and for a like purpose with the simultaneously created Order of the Indian Empire. It consists of the Queen and Queen Mother with some Royal Princesses, and the female relatives of Indian Princes or of persons who have held conspicuous offices in connection with India. Badge, the Royal Cypher in jewels within an oval surmounted by an Heraldic Crown and attached to a bow of light blue watered ribbon, edged white. Designation, the letters C I

Sovereign of the Order

THE KING-EMPEROR OF INDIA

Ladies of the Order (C I)

Her Majesty The Queen
 H M. Queen Alexandra
 H M the Queen of Norway
 H R. H the Princess Royal
 H R. H the Princess Victoria
 H M The Queen of Roumania
 H R. H Princess Beatrice
 The Ex-Duchess of Cumberland
 H R. H The Princess of Hohenlohe-Langenburg
 H R. H the Princess Louise (Duchess of Argyll)
 H R. H the Princess Frederica Baroness of von Pawel-Rammingen
 H I & R. H the Grand Duchess Cyril of Russia
 H. H the Princess Marie-Louise
 Baroness Kinkora
 Lady Jane Emma Crichton
 Dowager Countess of Lytton
 Dowager Baroness Napier of Magdala
 Dowager Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava
 H. H Maharani of Cooh-Behar
 Marchioness of Lansdowne
 Baroness Harris
 Constance Mary Baroness Weelock
 H H Maharani Sahib Chhima Bai Gaskwar
 H H Ranj Sahib of Gondal
 H H the Dowager Maharani of Mysore
 Lady George Hamilton
 H H the Maharani Sahiba of Udaipur
 Alice, Baroness Northcote
 Amelia Maria, Lady White
 Mary Katherine, Lady Lockhart
 Baroness Amptill
 The Lady Willingdon
 Countess of Minto
 Marchioness of Crewe
 H H Begum of Bhopal
 Lady Victoria Patricia Helena Ramsay
 Frances Charlotte, Lady Chelmsford
 Countess of Reading
 H. H Maharani Sakhiya Raja Sabita S. S. S. S.
 Alijah Bahadur of Gwalior

Distinctive Badges.—An announcement was made at the Coronation Durbar in 1911, that a distinctive badge should be granted to present holders and future recipients of the titles of 'Diwan Bahadur', 'Sardar Bahadur', 'Khan Bahadur', 'Rai Bahadur', 'Rao Bahadur', 'Khan Sahib', 'Rai Sahib' and 'Rao Sahib'. Subsequently the following regulations in respect of these decorations were issued:—(1) The decoration to be worn by the holders of the titles above mentioned shall be a badge or medallion bearing the King's effigy crowned and the name of the title, both to be executed on a plaque or shield surrounded by a five-pointed star surmounted by the Imperial Crown, the plaque or shield being of silver gilt for the titles of Diwan, Sardar, Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur, and of silver for the titles of Khan, Rai, and Rao Sahib. (2) The badge shall be worn suspended round the neck by a ribbon of one inch and a half in width, which for the titles of Diwan and Sardar Bahadur shall be light blue with a dark blue border, for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur light red with a dark red border, and for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Sahib dark blue with light blue border.

A Press Note issued in November, 1914, states—The Government of India have recently had under consideration the question of the position in which miniatures of Indian titles should be worn, and have decided that they should be worn on the left breast fastened by a brooch, and not suspended round the neck by a ribbon as prescribed in the case of the Badge itself. When the miniatures are worn in conjunction with other decorations, they should be placed immediately after the Kaiser-i-Hind Medal.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal.—This medal was instituted on June 28th, 1907, by an Army Order published in Simla as a reward for both commissioned and non-commissioned officers of the regular and other forces in India. It bears on the obverse the bust of King Edward VII, and on the reverse a laurel wreath encircling the words *For Distinguished Service*. The medal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, is ordered to be worn immediately to the right of all war medals suspended by a red ribbon $1\frac{1}{2}$ in wide, with blue edges $\frac{1}{2}$ in wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Order of Merit.—This reward of valour was instituted by the H. E. I. Co. in 1887, to reward personal bravery without any reference to length of service or good conduct. It is divided into three classes and is awarded to native officers and men for distinguished conduct in the field. On the advancement from one class to another the star is surrendered to the Government, and the superior class substituted, but in the event of the death of the recipient his relatives retain the decoration. The order carries with it an increase of one-third

in the pay of the recipient, and in the event of his death the allowance is continued to his widow for three years. The First Class consists of a star of eight points, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in in diameter, having in the centre a ground of dark blue enamel bearing crossed swords in gold, within a gold circle, and the inscription *Reward of Valour*, the whole being surmounted by two wreaths of laurel in gold. The Second Class star is of silver, with the wreaths of laurel in gold, and the Third Class entirely of silver. The decoration is suspended from a simple loop and bar from a dark-blue ribbon $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in width with red edges, bearing a gold or silver buckle according to class.

Order of British India.—This order was instituted at the same time as the Order of Merit, to reward native commissioned officers for long and faithful service in the Indian Army. Since 1878, however, any person European or native, holding a commission in a native regiment, became eligible for admission to the Order without reference to creed or colour. The First Class consists of a gold eight-pointed radiated star $1\frac{1}{2}$ in in diameter. The centre is occupied by a lion statant guardant upon a ground of light-blue enamel, within a dark blue band inscribed *Order of British India*, and encircled by two laurel wreaths of gold. A gold loop and ring are attached to the crown for suspension from a broad ornamental band $\frac{3}{4}$ in in diameter, through which the ribbon, once blue, now red, is passed for suspension from the neck. The Second Class is $1\frac{1}{2}$ in in diameter with dark blue enamelled centre, there is no crown on this class, and the suspender is formed of an ornamental gold loop. The reverse is plain in both classes. The First Class carries with it the title *Sirdar Bahadur*, and an additional allowance of two rupees a day and the Second the title of *Bahadur*, and an extra allowance of one rupee per day.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal.—This was instituted on July 27th, 1888, and on receipt of the medal the order states "a non-commissioned officer must surrender his Long Service and Good Conduct medal" but on being promoted to a commission he may retain the M. S. medal, but the annuity attached to it will cease. On the obverse is the disarmed bust of Queen Victoria facing left, with a veil falling over the crown behind, encircled by the legend *Victoria Kaisar-i-Hind*. On the reverse is a wreath of lotus leaves enclosing a wreath of palm tied at the base, having a star beneath; between the two wreaths is the inscription for meritorious service. Within the palm wreath is the word *India*. The medal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in in diameter, is suspended from a scroll by means of a red ribbon $1\frac{1}{2}$ in wide. The medals issued during the reigns of Queen Victoria's successors bear on the obverse their bust in profile with the legend altered to *EDWARDS* or *GEORGE V*.

THE KAISAR-I HIND MEDAL.

This decoration was instituted in 1900, the preamble to the Royal Warrant—which was amended in 1901 and 1912—being as follows:—*Whereas We, taking into Our Royal consideration that there do not exist*

adequate means whereby We can reward important and useful services rendered to Us in Our Indian Empire in the advancement of the public interests of Our said Empire, and taking also into consideration the ex-

pediency of distinguishing such services by some mark of Our Royal favour. Now for the purpose of attaining an end so desirable as that of thus distinguishing such services abroad, We have instituted and created, and by these presents for Us, Our Heirs and Successors, do institute and create a new Decoration. The decoration is styled "The Kaiser-i-Hind Medal for Public Service in India" and consists of two classes. The Medal is an oval shaped Badge or Decoration—in gold for the First Class and in silver for the Second Class—with the Royal Cypher on one side and on the reverse the words "Kaiser-i-Hind for Public Service in India," it is suspended on the left breast by a dark blue ribbon.

Recipients of the 1st Class

Abdus Samad Khan of Rampur
Achariyar, Diwan Bahadur Tirumalai Desik
Advani, M. S.
Ahmad, Khan Bahadur Qazi Khalil-ud-Din
Alexander, A. L.
Allnut, The Rev Samuel Scott
Amarnand, Rao Bahadur Ramnarayan
Amphill, Margaret, Baroness
Anderson, The Rev H.
Annie, Sister Blanche
Ashton, Albert Frederick
Ayyar, Dr P S A Chandrasekhara
Baird-Smith, J. B.
Bakour, Dr Ida
Bakerji, Sir P. C.
Banke, Mrs A. E.
Barber, Benjamin Russell
Barnes, Major Ernest
Basu, Sir Kallias Chandra, Rai Bahadur
Beale, Dr, American Marathi Mission, Bombay
Beas, Mrs Georgiana Mary
Beatty, Francis Montagu Algernon
Beck, Miss Emma Josephine
Bell, Lt-Col, Charles Thornhill
Benson, Doctor (Miss) A. M.
Benson, Lady
Bentley, Dr Charles Albert
Bertram, Rev Father F.
Bestall, A. H.
Bhandari, Rai Bahadur Gopal Das
Bikanir, Maharaja of
Binglor, Major-General Alfred
Blowers, A. B.
Bhwalker, Sardar Parashram Krishnarao
Bhole Nath Barooah
Bonig, Max Carl Christian
Booth-Tucker, Frederick St. George de Lautour
Bosquet, Oswald Vivian
Bett, Captain E. H.
Brahmachari, Rao Bahadur U. N.
Bramley, Percy Brooke
Bry, Denys DeSaumarez
Broadway, Alexander
Brown, Rev A. B.
Brown, Dr Miss E.
Brown, Rev. W. E. W.
Brunton, James Forest
Buchanan, Rev John
Buckley, Miss M. E.
Bull, Henry Martin
Burn, Richard
Buxton, General Sir Charles John
Calkin, Dr. G. O.

Calnan, Denis
Campbell, Colonel Sir Robert Neil
Campbell, Dr. Miss S.
Campion, John Montrose
Carleton, Marous Bradford
Cariyle, Lady
Carmichael, Lady
Carter, Edward Clark
Castor, Lieut.-Col. R. H.
Chand, Sakhi, Rai Bahadur
Chandra, Rai Bahadur Hari Mohan
Chapman, R. A. B.
Chatterton, Alfred
Chatterton, Mrs L.
Chaudhuri, Raja Sarat Chandra Rai
Chetty, Dewan Bahadur K. P. Puttanna
Chinal, Ardeshir Dinshaji
Chitnavis, Shankar Madho
Coddream, William
Comley, Mrs. Alice
Cooverji, Khan Bahadur
Coppeland, Theodore Benfoy
Cornelia Sorabji, Miss (Bar to Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal)
Cousens, Henry
Cowaji Jehangir, Mrs
Cox, Arthur Frederick
Crawford, Francis Colomb
Crowthwaite, the Rev O. A.
Crouch, H. N.
Currimbhoy, Mahomedbhoy
Dane, Lady
Darbhanga, Maharaja of
Darbyshire, Miss Ruth
Das, Ram Saran
Davies, Arthur
Davies, Rev Can A. W.
Davies, Mrs. Edwin
Davis, Miss Gertrude
Dawson, Brevet-Colonel Charles Hutton
Dayal Seth Jay
Deane, Lieutenant-Colonel Herbert Edward
Debi, Ravi Murari Kumari
deLothbiniere, Lieutenant-Colonel Alain C. Joly
Der Schueren, Father T. V.
Devdhar, G. K.
Dewas (Junior Branch), Maharaja of
Dhar, Her Highness the Rani Sahiba Luxmibai,
Pawar of
Dhingra, Dr Behari Lal
Dobson, Mrs Margaret
DuBern, Amedee George
DuBern, Jules Emile
Dyson, Colonel Thomas Edward
Earle, The Hon'ble Sir Archdale
Evans, The Rev
Ewing, The Rev Dr J. C. R.
Fatima Siddhika, Begum Saheba
Ferard, Mrs Ida Margaret
Fosbrooke, Mrs. M. E. A.
Francis, Edward Belcham
Garu, Diwan Bahadur Agaram Subbarayala
Heddiyar
Garu, Diwan Bahadur M. Ramachandra Rao
Pantulu
Ghosal, Mr Jyotmanath
Glasbrook, N. S.
Glenn, Henry James Heamey
Gillmore, The Rev
Gonsaga, Rev Mother
Graham, The Rev John Anderson
Graham, Mrs Kate
Grattan, Colonel Henry William

Gullford, The Rev E. (with Gold Bar)
Gwallor, Maharaja of
Gwyther, Lieut.-Colonel Arthur
Hahn, The Rev Ferdinand
Haig, Lieutenant-Colonel Patrick Balfour
Hall, Harold Fielding Patrick
Hamilton, Major Robert Edward Archibald
Hankin, E. H.
Hanson, The Rev O
Harper, Dr E.
Hart, Dr Louisa Helena
Harvest, Lieut.-Colonel Herbert de Vere
Hatch, Miss Sarah Isabel
Hawker, Miss A M
Hildesley, The Rev Alfred Herbert
Higginbotham, S
Hoek, Rev Father L V
Hodgson, Edward Marsden
Hogan, W J Alexander
Holderness, Sir Thomas William
Holland, E. T
Home, Walter
Hopkins, Mrs Jesse
Hormusji, Dr S C
Howard, Mrs. Gabrielle Louise Caroline
Hoyland, John Somerwell
Hume, The Rev E. A.
Husband, Major James
Hutchinson, Sir Sydney Hutton Cooper
Hutchinson, Major William Gordon
Hutwa, The Maharani Jhan Manjari Kuari of
Hydari, Mrs Amla
Irvine, Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Walter
Issail, Muhammad Yusef
Ives, Harry William Maclean
Iyer, Diwan Bahadur, C S
Jackson, Rev James Chadwick
James, Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Henry
Jankibai
Josephine, Sister
Kapoor, Raja Ban Bihari
Kaye, G B
Kelly, The Rev E W
Kerr, Mrs. Isabel
King, Mrs D
Klopsch, Dr Louis
Kner, Lady (Bar to Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal)
Ko, Taw Sein
Kothari, Sir Jehangir Hormusji
Lala Mathra Das, Rai Bahadur
Lamb, The Hon'ble Sir Richard Amphlett
Lala Tara Chand
Lindsay, D'Arcy
Ling, Miss Catherine Frances
Lombere, Rev Father E. F. A.
Lovett, The Hon'ble Mr Harrington Verney
Look, Wilfred Henry
Lukis, Lady
Lyall, Frank Frederick
Lyons, Surgeon-General Robert William Steels
MacKenzie, Rev G B.
MacLean, Rev J H
Marie, The Rev Mother
Macnath, Lieutenant-Colonel Robert Charles
Madhav Rao, Vishwanath Patankar
Mahant of Bimar Raja, Puri
Malagon, Raja of
Malvi Tribhuvandas Narottamdas
Manselkhand, Seth Motilal
Mann, Dr Harold
Manners-Smith, The Hon'ble Mr. Francis
St. George

Mary of St. Paul, Rev Mother
Matthews, Rev Father
Mayes, Herbert Frederick
McCarrison, Major Robert
McCloughry, Colonel James
McNeil, The Rev John
McDonnell, Miss E.
Mehta, Dr D H
Melkiojohn, Miss W J
Meston, Rev W.
Millard, Walter Samuel
Miller, The Rev William
Minto, Mary Caroline
Monahan, Mrs. Ida
Monahan, Mrs Olive
Moolgaokar, Dr. S. R.
Morrison, F E
Morgan, George
Muhammad Yahi, Khan Bahadur A. N.
Muir, Rev E
Muir Mackenzie, Lady Therese
Mulye, V Krishnarao
Nagpur, The Rt Rev Bishop of
Nariman, Dr Temulji Bhikaji
Narsinghgarh, Her Highness the Rani Shiv Kaur
war Sahiba of
Nayudu, Diwan Bahadur B Venkataratnam
Nepalla, Rani of Tahril
Neve, Dr Arthur
Neve, Dr Earnest
Nichols, the Rev Dr Charles Alvord
Nicholson, Sir Frederick Augustus
Nisbet, John
Noble, The Rev
Noyce, William Florey
O'Byrne, Gerald John Evangelist
Oh, Maung and Ba (alias) Ahmedullah
Oldham, Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William
O'Donnell, Dr Thomas Joseph
O'Meara, Major Eugene John
Panna, Maharani of
Parakh, Dr N N
Paranjpye, Dr Raghunath Pureshottam
Parbati Devi, Maharani of Sonpur
Pearce, S D A D.
Peadley, Dr Thomas Franklin
Pennell Mrs A M
Postonji Dhanjilshaw
Pettigara, Khan Bahadur Kavarji Jamshedji
Phelps, Edwin Ashby
Pickford, Alfred Donald
Pir Puran Nath Mahant
Pitcher, Colonel Duncan George
Pittendrigh, Rev G
Piamonden, Rev. Mother S. O.
Plant, Captain William Charles Trew Gray
Gambler
Platt, Dr Kate
Polten, Dr J
Poynder, Lieut.-Colonel John Leopold
Prasad, Lt.-Col Kanta
Price, John Dodds
Ramannu Achariyar, Diwan Bahadur
Ray, Rao Jogendra Narayan, Raja Bahadur.
Reading, Countess of
Reed, Miss M.
Reid, Frederick David
Reid, B N
Reynolds, Leonard William
Richmond, Mr. Thomas
Rivington, The Rev. Canon, C. S.
Roberts, Dr. N. G.

Robson, Dr Robert George
 Root, Lt.-Col. Ernest Reinhold
 Row, Dr Baghavendra
 Roy, Babu Harendra Lal
 Sallana, Raja of
 Samthar, Maharaja of
 Sanderson, Lady
 Sarabhai Ambalal
 Sawday, Rev G W
 Schofield, Miss M T
 Scott, Mary H Harriot
 Scott, Rev Dr H E
 Scott, Rev W
 Scudder, Rev Dr Lewis Rousseau
 Scudder, Miss Ida
 Sell, The Rev Canon Edward
 Semple, Lieut Colonel Sir David
 Seeshagiri Rao Pantulu Garu
 Sharp, Henry
 Sharpe, Walter Samuel
 Sheard, E
 Shepherd, Rev James
 Sheppard, Mrs. Adeline B
 Sheppard, William Disbury
 Shillidy, The Rev John
 Shore, Lieut.-Colonel Robert
 Shoubridge, Major Charles Alban Grevis
 Shrinmashi Panapula Kartikeya Pilla Bhagvathi
 Pilla Kachamma Vadamasi Ammayedu
 Simon, The Rev Mother
 Singh, Munshi Ajit
 Singh, Raja Bhagwan Baksh
 Singh, Bai Hira
 Singh, Raja Kamaleshwari Pershad
 Sinha, Purendu Narayan
 Skinner, The Rev Dr William
 Skrebrand, The Rev Larsoren
 Smith, Lieut.-Colonel Henry
 Smith, S
 Solomon, Captain W E
 Sorabji, Miss Cornelia
 Southon, Major Charles Edward
 Souza, Dr A
 Spence, Christina Philippine Agnes
 St. Leger, William Douglas
 St. Lucia, Reverend Mother
 Stanes, Robert
 Starr, Mrs. L A (with bar)
 Stokes, Dr William
 Sukdeo Prasad, Pandit
 Suma Kuar, Rani Sahiba
 Sutherland, Rev W M
 Tabard, The Rev Antoine Marie
 Talati, Vetalji Dorabji
 Taylor, The Rev. George Pritchard
 Taylor, Dr Herbert F Lechmere
 Thakral, Lala Mni Chund
 Thomas, The Rev Stephen Sylvester
 Thomas, The Rev
 Thompson, Miss E
 Thurston, Edgar
 Tilly, Harry Lindsay
 Tindall, Christian
 Todhunter, Lady Billa
 Tucker, Major William Hancock
 Tydesman, E
 Tyndale-Biscoe, The Rev Cecil Earle
 Tyrrell, Major Jasper Robert Joly
 Vadakke Kurupam Parukutti Netayamma
 Vandyke, Frederick Reginald
 Van Hoonk, Rev Father Louis, S J
 Van, J
 Vaughan, Lieut.-Colonel Joseph Charles Scoble

Venugopala, Raja Bahadur
 Vernon, Mrs Margaret
 Victoria, Sister Mary
 Wadhwan, The Rani Sahib Sita Bai of
 Wadia, Sir Hormasji Ardeshir
 Wagner, Rev Paul
 Wake, Lieut.-Colonel Edward St Aubyn
 (with Gold Bar)
 Wakefield, George Edward Campbell
 Walker, Lady Fanny
 Walker, Major Albert Elijah
 Wanless, Mr W J
 Ward, Major Eliscott Leamon
 Waterhouse, Miss Agnes May
 Webb, Miss M V
 Westcott, The Rt Rev Dr Foss
 Wheeler, The Rev Edward Montague
 Whitehead, Mrs J
 Wilkinson, Lieut.-Colonel Edmund
 Willington, The Lady
 Wilson-Johnston, Joseph
 Winter, Edgar Francis Latimer
 Wood, Arthur Robert
 Yain, Lee Ah
 Young, The Rev John Cameron
 Youngusband, Arthur Delaval
 Youngusband, Lieut.-Col Sir Francis Edward

Recipients of the 2nd Class

Abul Fath Monivi Sayed
 Abdul Ghani
 Abdul Hussain, Mian Bhai
 Abdul Hussein
 Abdul Kadir
 Abdul Majid Khan
 Abdur Razzak Khan, Subedar
 Abinash Chandra Banerjee, Rai Bahadur
 Achariyar, Mrs Sita Thiruvankata
 Achariyar, M A P Thirunarayana
 Adalade, Doctor Miss
 Advani, Mrs Motiram
 Agha Mohamed Khalil-Bin Mohamed Farim
 Ahmad, Capt. Dabiruddin
 Ahmad, Mr Mukhtar
 Alfred, Miss A
 Allen, Miss Fannie
 Allen, Miss Maud
 Allen, Mrs M O
 Ali Shabaah, Shaikh, Khan Sahib
 Allen, Rev Frank Van
 Ammal Rishlyr Suorahmanya Ayyar Subbu,
 Lakshmi
 Amar Nath, Lala
 Amar Singh
 Anandnath Chatterji
 Anastasia, Sister
 Anderson, Andrew
 Andrew, The Rev Adam
 Anscumb, Major Allen Mellers
 Antia, Jamshedji Merwanji
 Ardeshir Navroji, Khan Bahadur
 Arnolda, Rev Mother
 Asadulla, Miss Isabella
 Ashton, Dr Robert John
 Askwith, Miss Anne Jane
 Atkinson, John William
 Atkinson, Lady Constance
 Augustin, The Rev Father
 Aung, Mrs Hla
 Azei Hussain, Khan Sahib Mir
 Badri Pershad
 Baker, Honorary Major Thomas
 Bai, Miss Marguerite Dorothy

Banerji, Professor Jamini Nath
 Banks, Dr Charles
 Bapat, Rameshwar Sadashiva Krishna
 Barbara, Mother
 Barclay, Mrs Edith Martha
 Bardeley, Miss Jane Blissett
 Bari, Mrs Ghulam
 Barnabas, Mr, Burma
 Barnett, Miss Maude
 Barnstow, Mrs Melaine
 Barton, Mrs Sybil
 Baw, Maung Kan
 Bawden, Rev S D
 Bayley, Lieut-Colonel Edward Charles
 Beaton-Bell, Sir Nicholas Dodd
 Beadon, Dr M. O'Brien
 Beg, Mirza Kalkh Beg Faridun
 Benjamin, Mrs
 Best, James Theodore
 Beville, Lieut-Colonel Francis Granville
 Bhagwandas, Bai Zaverbai
 Bhajan Lal
 Bhan, Lala Udhai
 Bhatia, Mr. Bihari Lal
 Bhide, Raoji Janardhan
 Bhutti, Chhotelal Goverdhan
 Bihari Lal
 Biria, Rai Bahadur Baldeo Das
 Bisheshwar Nath, Lala
 Bissett, Miss Mary Ronald
 Biswas, Babu Ananda Mohan
 Bivale Ram, Lala
 Blackham, Lieut-Colonel Robert James
 Blackwood, John Ross
 Blake, The Rev William Henry
 Blenkinsop, Edward Robert Kaye
 Booth, Miss Mary Warburton
 Bolster, Miss Anna
 Borah, Balinarayan
 Bose, Miss Kiroth
 Bose, Miss Mona
 Botting, W E
 Bowen, Griffith
 Brahmanand, Pandit
 Brander, Mrs Isobel
 Bray, Lady
 Brenner, Lt-Col Arthur Grant
 Brentnall, Miss Nina Thilofoan
 Brock, Miss Lillian Winifred
 Brough, The Rev Anthony Watson
 Browne, Charles Edward
 Brown, Dr Edith
 Bucknall, Mrs. Mary
 Burt, Bryce Chudleigh
 Butt, Miss L
 Jain, Mrs Sarah
 Jaleb, Mrs. M.
 Callaghan, H W
 Campbell, The Rev Andrew
 Campbell, Miss Gertrude Jane
 Campbell, Miss Kate
 Campbell, Miss Susan
 Campbell, Miss Mary Jane
 Campbell, The Rev Thomas Vincent
 Carmichael, Miss Amy Wilson
 Carr, Miss Emma
 Carr, Thomas
 Casals, Mrs. Laura Mary Elizabeth
 Catherine, Sister
 Cattan, Major Gilbert Landale
 Cellis, Sister Fannie
 Chalmers, T
 Chamberlain, The Rev William Isaac

Chandler, The Rev John Scudder
 Chetty, Mr Carnapady Vankate Krishnaswami
 Chetti, Mrs C K
 Chitrag Din, Seth
 Chitale, Ganesh Krishna
 Chogmal, Karnal Khan
 Churchward, P A.
 Chye, Leong
 Clackmore, Mr
 Clancey, John Charles
 Clark, Herbert George
 Clarke, Honorary Major Louis Arthur Henry
 Clutterbuck, Peter Henry
 Coelho, V A
 Commissariat, Miss S H
 Coombe, George Oswald
 Coombes, Josiah Waters
 Cooper, Dosabhai Pestonji, Khan Bahadur
 Cooper, Miss W G
 Correa, Miss Marie
 Cortborn, Miss Alice
 Corti, The Rev Father Fanshi, S J
 Cottle, Mrs Adela
 Coutts J E
 Cox, Mrs E
 Coxon, Stanley William
 Crow, Charles George
 Crozier, Dr J
 Cumming, James William Nicol
 Cummings, The Rev John Ernest
 Cutting, Rev William
 D'Albuquerque, Mr C F
 DeCosta, Miss Zilla Edith
 Dadabhai, Mrs. Jernbanoo
 Dalal, Dr Ratanji Dinshaw
 Dalrymple-Hay, Charles Vernon
 Daniel, J
 Daniels, Miss
 Damm, Rev George James
 Das, Ram, Lala
 Das, Mathura, Lala
 Das, Niranjan
 Dass, Balbadra
 Dass, Mallik Narain
 Datta, Dr Dina Nath Pritha
 Davidson, Captain B J
 Davies, Miss Harriet
 Davis, Miss B E
 Davys, Mrs. M L
 Dawe, Miss Ellen
 Dawson, Alexander Thomas
 Dawson, Mrs. Charles Hutton
 Deane, George Archibald
 Deoji, Hazi Ahmed, Khan Sahib
 DeKantzow, Mrs. Mary Aphraim
 DeLa Croix, Sister Paul
 Desmond, J
 Devi, Bibi Kashmiri
 Dew, Mrs A B
 DeWachter, Father Francis Xavier
 Dewes, Lieut-Colonel Frederick Joseph
 Dexter, T
 Dharm Chaud, Lala
 Dilshad Begum
 Dip Singh, Thakur
 Dodson, Dr E I
 Drummond, Rev C O
 Drysdale, Mrs Christina Mary
 Dube, Bhagwati Charan
 Dundas, Charles Lawrence
 Dunlop, Alexander Johnstone
 Dunn, Miss L E

- Dundas Singh, Thakur
 Dutta, Mahita Harman
 Durval, Mrs. Ethel Aldersey
 Dwyer, Mrs. Mary
 Eagles, Thomas Ossaly
 Eaglesome, George
 Edgell, Lieut.-Colonel Edward Arnold
 Edward, R.
 Elliot, Mrs. L. R.
 Ellis-Thompson, Mrs.
 Evans, Mrs. A.
 Emanuel, Mrs.
 Evans, The Rev. John Ceredig
 Evans, Miss Josephine Annie
 Fane, Lady Kathleen Emily
 Faridounji, Mrs. Hilla
 Farrer, Miss Ellen Margaret
 Farman Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, Kazi Saif
 Fasal Bhai, Mrs. R. S.
 Fernandes, A. P.
 French, Lieut.-Colonel Thomas
 Fisher, Dr. R. W.
 Fisk, Miss N. B.
 Fitzgerald, Mr. E. H.
 Flashman, Thomas Charles
 Fleming, James Francis
 Fletcher, Miss
 Flint, Dr. H.
 Fogdall, Rev. J. P.
 Forman, The Rev. Henry
 Forrester, G.
 Foster, Lieut. P.
 Foulkes, R.
 Fox, Alfred Charles
 Frances, Sister Jane
 Francis, W.
 Fraser, Robert Thomson
 Fyson, Hugh
 Gajjar, Mrs. Shilvagsuri
 Galibai, Bai
 Gandhi, Mr. Preston J. Jamsetji
 Garthwaite, Lison
 Gass, Rev. J.
 Gaskell, W.
 Gatsley, Thomas Joseph
 George, Miss Jessie Eleanor
 Ghose, Babu J. N.
 Ghose, Mahatap Chandra
 Giffard, Mrs. Alice
 Gilman, Edward P. Reuben
 Gilmore, E. J.
 Godfrey, Thomas Leonard
 Goldsmith, The Rev. Canon Malcolm George
 Goodbody, Mrs.
 Gorman, Patrick James
 Gossami, Sri Sri Naradev Dakshinpat Adhikar
 Gowardhandas, Chaitrabhuji
 Govind Lal, Lal
 Grant, Lieut.-Colonel John Weyman
 Grant, Mrs. see Miss Lillian Blong
 Grant, Miss Jean
 Grant, The Rev. John
 Grant, Dr. Lillian Wemyss
 Grant, Miss Maria Alice
 Gray, Mrs. Hester
 Gray, Commissary William David
 Greenay, Peter Mave
 Greenfield, Miss E.
 Greenwood, D. S.
 Greg, L. H.
 Grimes, Albert Edward Pierre
 Guilford, The Rev. Henry
 Gumbey, Mr. Douglas
 Gune, Trimbak Raghunath
 Gyl, Maung Pet
 Hadow, Rev. Frank Burness
 Hafiyah Malik
 Hanrahan, W. G.
 Harding, Miss C.
 Harris, Miss A. M.
 Harris, Dr. B.
 Harris, Miss S.
 Harrison, Henry
 Harrison, Mrs. M. F.
 Harrison, Robert Tullis
 Hart, Miss Louise
 Harvey, Miss Rose
 Harvey, Miss S. E.
 Haworth, Major Lionel Berkeley Holt
 Hayes, Miss Mary Lavina
 Hayes, Captain P.
 Henderson, Miss Agnes
 Hibbard, Miss J. F.
 Hickman, Mrs. Agnes
 Hicks, Rev. G. E.
 Higgins, Andrew Frank
 Hill, Elliott
 Hill, Henry Francis
 Hodgson, Florence Amy
 Hoff, Sister, W. J. K.
 Hoffman, The Rev. Father John, S. J.
 Holbrooke, Major Bernard Frederick Rope
 Holden, Major Hyla Napier
 Holland, Dr. Henry Tristram
 Homer, Charles John
 Holmes, E. J. E.
 Hoogewerf, Edmund
 Hope, Dr. Charles Henry Standish
 Hopkyns, Mrs. E.
 Houghton, Henry Edward
 Hughes, Frank John
 Hughes, Miss Lisbeth Bell
 Hunter, Honorary Captain James
 Hutchins, Miss Emily
 Hutchinson, Dr. John
 Ibrahim, Maulvi Muhammad
 Ihsan Ali
 Inglis, Mrs. Ellen
 Jahwar, Prasad
 Ismailji Abdul Hussain Saherwal, Khan Sahib
 Jackson, Mrs. Emma
 Jackson, Mrs. K.
 Jaljee Bai (Mrs. Pettit)
 Jainath, Atal Pandit
 Jambusarala, A. Hargovandas
 Jamshed Ali Khan, Lieut. Kunwar
 Jervie, Mrs. Edith
 Jerwood, Miss H.
 Jivannandan
 Joglokar, Rao Bahadur Ganesh Venkatesh
 John, Rev. Brother
 Johnson, Augustus Frederick
 Johnstone, Mrs. Rosalie
 Jones, The Rev. John Peter
 Jones, The Rev. Robert
 Jones, The Rev. John Longworth
 Jones, Mrs. A. V.
 Jones, Mrs. V. E. B.
 Joshi, Mr. Keshavji Durgashankar
 Joshi, Narayan Malhar
 Joshi, Trimbak Waman
 Joshi, Miss P.
 Joti Prasad, Lal
 Joti Ram
 Joyce, Mrs. M. L.
 Judd, C. B.

- Jugalsing, M
 Jung, Sher, Khan Bahadur
 Jwala Prasad, Mrs.
 Jwala Singh, Sirdar
 Kailubhai, Asam Kesarkian
 Kanow, Yusuf
 Kapadia, M. K.
 Kapadia, Miss Motilal
 Karsanjia, Mr. B. N.
 Karve, Dhoodo Keshav
 Keene, Miss H.
 Keldavkar, Miss Krishnabai
 Kelly, Claude Cyril
 Kelly, Miss Eleanor Sarah
 Kemp, V. N. The Rev
 Ker, Thomas
 Kharabedji, Miss S. K.
 Kharjoorina, Nadirahab Nowrojee
 Kikar Nath, Lala
 King, Rev. Dr. R. A.
 King, Robert Stewart
 Krihsakar, Lakshman Kashinath
 Krihsakar, L. K.
 Kitchin, Mrs. M.
 Knight, H. W.
 Knollys, Major Robert Walter Edmund
 Knox, Major Robert Welland
 Kothewala, Mulla Yusuf Ali
 Kreyer, Lieut.-Colonel Frederick August
 Christian
 Krishnan, Rao Bahadur Kottayil
 Kugler, Miss Anna Sarah
 Kumaran, P. L.
 Kyaw, Maung Hsin
 Lajja Ram
 Lal, Bihari
 Lal, Pandit Nand
 Lamb, Dr. J.
 Lambourn, G. E.
 Lang, John
 Langhorne, Frederick James
 Lankester, Dr. Arthur Colborne
 Latham, Miss J. L.
 Laughlin, Miss L. H. M.
 Lawrence, Captain Henry Rundle
 Lawrence Henry Staveley
 Laxmidas Pitambaradas
 Lear, A. M.
 Leslie-Jones, Leycester Hudson
 Little, Mr. M.
 Lloyd, Miss Elizabeth
 Lloyd, Mrs. E. M.
 Locke, Robert Henry
 Longhurst, Miss H. G.
 Low, Charles Ernest
 Love, Miss L. E.
 Luck, Miss Florence Ada
 Lund, George
 MacAllister, The Rev. G.
 Mackay, Rev. J. B.
 Mackenzie, Alexander McGregor
 Mackenzie, Howard
 Mackenzie, Miss Mina
 Mackinnon, Miss Grace
 Macleod, Lieut.-Colonel John Norman
 Mac Kellar, Dr. Margaret
 McIlwrick, L.
 Macnaghten, Hon. Florence Mary
 Macphail, Miss Alexandrina Matilda
 Macphail, The Rev. James Merry
 Macrae, The Rev. Alexander
 Madan, Mr. Rustamji Hormasji
 Maddox, Lieut.-Colonel Ralph Henry
 Madeley, Mrs. E. M.
 Mahadevi, Srimati
 Mahommed Allauddin Khan
 Mahommed Salamtullah, Captain, I.M.S.
 Maiden, J. W.
 Maltra Babu Bhuvan Mohan
 Malik, Saahib Bhuvan
 Marcan, Kamal Kadir
 Margaret Mary, Sister
 Marler, The Rev. Frederick Lionel
 Marshall, W. J.
 Mary of St. Vincent, Sister
 Mary, Sister Eleanor
 Masani, Rustam Pestonji
 Mathias, P. F.
 Maung Maung
 McCarthy, Lady
 McCowen, Oliver Hill
 McDonald, Joseph James
 McGregor, Duncan
 McIlwrick, Leslie
 McKenzie, Miss Alice Learmouth
 Mead, Rev. Cecil Silas
 Mederlet, Rev. Father E.
 Mehta, Khan Sahib M. N.
 Mehta, Valkuntral Lalubhai
 Mill, Miss C. B.
 Miller, Capt. L. G.
 Miara, Miss Sundri Singh
 Mitcheson, Miss
 Mitra, Mrs. Dora
 Mitter, Mrs.
 Moens, Mrs. Agnes Swettenham
 Mohammed Khan
 Mokee, Rev. W. J.
 Moitra, Akhoy Kumar
 Monica, The Rev. Mother
 Moore, Mother T.
 Moore, Nursing Sister Dora Louisa Truskove
 Moore, Miss Eleanor Louisa
 Morgan, Miss Elizabeth Ellen
 Morris, Major Robert Lee
 Motilal, Seth of Piparia
 Mount, Captain Alan Henry
 Moxon, Miss Lala
 Moxumdar, Jadu Nath
 Mudalliar, Bangalore Perumal Annaswami
 Mudali, Valappakkam Daivasigomoni Than-
 davarayan
 Mugaseth, Dr. K. D.
 Muhammad Usman Sahib
 Muhammad Yusuf, Shams-ul-Ulama, Khan
 Bahadur
 Mukharji, Babu Jogendra Nath
 Mukerji, Babu A. K.
 Muller, Miss Jenny
 Munshi Abdul Haqq, Khan Bahadur
 Munshi, Dr. J. D.
 Murphy, Edwin Joseph
 Nag, Mrs. Basu Mukhi
 Naimullah, Mohamed
 Noomi, Rev. Mother
 Naoum Abbo
 Napier, Alan Bertram
 Narein, Har.
 Narayanjee Laljee
 Narayan Singh, Rai Sahib
 Narayanaso Yeshwant Mirkar
 Nariman, Khan Bahadur Manekji Kharsedji
 Narpat Singh, Babu
 Nasrulla Khan, Mirza
 Naylor, Miss N. F.
 Nicholson, Rev.

- Newton, Miss Jeanie
 Norris, Miss Margaret
 Oakley, Mrs Winfred Nelly Vale
 O'Maung Po
 O'Brien, Lieut.-Colonel Edward
 O'Connor, Brian Edward
 O'Hara, Miss Margaret
 Old, Frank Shepherd
 Oldreive, Rev F
 Orman, Honorary Captain Charles Henry
 Orr, Adolphe Ernest
 Orr, James Peter
 Orr, Mrs. Amy
 Outram, The Rev A
 Owen, Major Robert James
 Owen, C B
 Owens, Miss Bertha
 Pal, Babu Barada Sundar
 Palin, Major Randle Harry
 Pandit, Vasudeo Ramkrishna
 Parbati Bai
 Park, The Rev George W
 Parker, Miss Ada Emma
 Parker, Dr (Miss) H E
 Parker, Mrs B J
 Parsons, Ronald
 Patch, Miss K.
 Patel, Barjorji Dorabji
 Patel, Jeona
 Pathak, Ram Sahai
 Paterson, Miss Rachel
 Patrick, Sister
 Pearce, W B
 Pearson, E A
 Penn, The Rev W O
 Ferroy, Rev Father
 Fervhad, Pundit Thakur
 Peters, Lieut.-Colonel Charles Thomas
 Pettigara, B J
 Pettigrew, The Rev William
 Phadke, V K
 Phadibus, Miss Rose Margaret (bar)
 Phelps, Mrs. Maude Marion
 Philip, Mrs. A J
 Pidkar, S V
 Pierce, Miss Ada Louise
 Piggott, Miss B
 Pillay, Chinnappa Singaravallu
 Pim, Mrs. Rance
 Pinney, Major John Charles Digby
 Pinto, Miss Preciosa
 Plowden, Lt.-Col Trevor Chichele
 Po Nya U
 Popen, Mrs L V
 Ponsell, Miss E
 Powell, John
 Prabhu, Anant Rao Raghunath
 France, Miss G
 Prasad, Capt Tulsi of Nepal
 Prithidas Shevakram
 Price, The Rev Eustace Dickinson
 Pridcaux, Frank Winckworth Austice
 Provost, Father F
 Purnshotandas Thakurdas
 Pyy, Maung Tot
 Rai, Babu Ram Kinkar
 Raikes, Mrs. Alice
 Rait, Miss Helen Anna Macdonald
 Rajadnya, B N
 Raj Bahadur, Pandit
 Rajendra Pal, Tika Rani
 Ram, Mr Bhagat
 Ramchandra, Daji
 Ramgopal, Mallani, Seth
 Ram Singh, M V O
 Ranjit Singh
 Rao, Narayan Cawasji
 Rattan Chand
 Rattana Mulji
 Ranshan Lal
 Ray, Babu Sarat Chandra
 Ray, Harendra Nath
 Reed, Lady
 Richards, Mrs H F
 Richardson, Mrs Catherine Stuart
 Rita, Stiffani Edward
 Rivenburg, The Revd Dr
 Robarts, Captain Charles Stuart Hamilton
 Roberts, Miss Adelaide Pollette
 Roberts, The Rev
 Robilliard, H
 Robinson, James
 Robinson, Lieut.-Colonel William Henry Baunee
 Robson, J
 Rocks, Captain Cyril R. A. Spencer
 Roe, Colonel Cyril Harcourt
 Roe, Mrs. Edith Mary
 Rokade, Mrs Janabai
 Rose, Miss Maude
 Rukhmabai, Dr
 Rulach, Rev George Bernard
 Rustonji Faridoonji
 Rutherford, Miss Mary Elizabeth
 Sadiq, Shams-ud din
 Sadler, A. W Woodward
 Sahai, Ram
 Sahani Ram Kali
 Sahay, Lala Deonath
 Sallio, K
 Saint Monica, The Rev Mother
 Salkield, Tom
 Samarth, Wasudeo Mahadeo
 Samuels, Joseph
 San Bow U
 Sankara Kandar Kandaswami Kandar
 Savidge, Rev Frederick William
 Saw Ba La
 Sawhney, Lala-Isher Das
 Schultz, The Rev Frederick Volkmar Paul
 Scotland, Lieut.-Colonel David Wilson
 Scott, Dr D M
 Shah, Babu Lal Behari
 Shah, Mohamed Kamal
 Shah, Mohammad Nawas
 Shah Nawaz Ghulam Murtaza Bhatto, Kh u
 Bahadur
 Shah, Reverend Ahmad
 Shammath Bai Bahadur
 Shankar, Mr O P V
 Shaw, Mrs Hawthorne
 Sheard, Mr B
 Shiroore, William
 Shroff, Dr E D
 Shyam Elkt, Raja Francis Xavier
 Shyam Sunder Lal
 Simeox, Arthur Henry Ad isenbrooke
 Simkins, Charles Wykins
 Simon, Sister M
 Simonsen, J L
 Simpson, Miss J P
 Sinclair, Reginald Leaby

Singh, Ajai Dhu
Singh, Makkhan
Singh, Rev P L
Singh, Babu Ramdhari
Singh, Bhai Ganga
Singh, Rai Bahadur Sundar
Singh, Rukhmina
Singh, Bhai Lehua
Singh, Bhai Takhut
Singh, Risaldar Major, Hanwant
Singh, Sardar Gurdit
Singh, Sitala Bakab
Singh, G Sher
Singh, Sohan
Singhe, Mrs L. N. V
Singi, J
Small, Miss J M
Smith, Miss Katherine Mabel
Smith, Miss Ellen
Smith, E G
Smith, The Rev Frederica William Ambery
Smith, Rev G A
Smith, Mrs. Henry
Smith, Miss Annie Caroline
Sommerville, The Rev Dr James
Spencer, Mrs E M
Sri Ram Kunwar
Starte, Oliver Harold Baptist
Steel, Alexander
Steele, The Rev John Ferguson
Stephens, John Hewitt
Stephens Mrs Grace
Stevens, Mrs L K
Stevens, Mrs (Ethel)
Stevenson, Surgeon General Henry Wickham
Stewart, Miss E F
Stewart, Major Hugh
Stewart, Mrs. Lillian Dorothea
Stewart, Thomas
St Joseph, J D
Stockings, The Rev H M
Strip, Samuel Algernon
Strong, Mr W A
Strutton, Rev H H
Stuart, Dr (Miss) Gertrude
Sultan Ahmed Khan
Sunder Lal
Sundrabai, Bai
Swain, Mrs Walker
Swainson, Miss Florence
Swinhoe, R C J
Swiss, Miss Emily Constance
Talcherkar, Mr H C A
Talyarkhan, Mrs M
Taleyardkan, Mr Manckshah Cawasha
Tahib Mehdi Khan, Malik
Tambe, Dr Gopal Rao Ramchandra
Tarafdar, Mr S K
Tara Dutt Gairola
Tarapurwalla, Fardunji Kuvarji
Taylor, Rev Alfred Pridoux
Taylor, Mrs. Florence Pridoux

Taylor, John Norman
Tha, Maung Po
Tha, Maung Shwe
Theln, Maung Po
Theobald, Miss
Thomas, Miss F B
Thomas, Mrs Mabel Fox
Thomas, Samuel Gilbert
Thompson, B. C
Thomsen, The Rev G Nicholas
Thorn, Miss Bertha
Thoy, Herbert Dominick
Timothy, Samuel
Todd, Capt
Tomkins, Lionel Linton
Tudball, Miss Emma
Turner, Mrs Vera
Udipi Rama Rao
Umar Khan, Malik Zorawar Khan
Vajifdar, Mrs. Hormausji Maneckji
Vale, Mrs. K
Valentine, Capt C R
Valpy, Miss K
Vaughan Stevens, Dudley Lewis
Vergese, Diwan Bahadur G T
Vijayaraghava Acharyar
Vince, Thomas Humphrey
Viswecarays, Mokshagundam
Wait, Robert William Hamilton
Wakefield, George Edward Campbell
Walayatullah, Khan Bahadur Hafiz Muhammad
Walewalker, P Baburao
Waller, Frederick Chighton
Wanless, Dr William James
Ward, Mr W A P
Wares, Donald Horne
Webb-Ware, Mrs Dorothy
Welghell, Miss Anna Jade
Welsh, The Rev T W Boose
Western, Miss Mary Priscilla
Weth, Mrs Rosa
White, Miss J
Wildman, Miss Elizabeth Annie
Wilkinson, Mrs A
Wilson, Miss Anna Margaret
Wilson, Mrs. E. B. B.
Winco, Miss Jane
Wiseman, Capt. Charles Sherif
Woerner, Miss Lydia
Wood, The Rev A
Wright, Mrs B
Wylie, Miss Iris Eleanor
Wynne, Mrs. Ada
Yaw, Maung
Yerbury, Miss J.
Young, Dr M. Y.
Zahur-ul-Husain Muhtasim

THE VICTORIA CROSS.

The announcement, made at the Delhi Durbar in 1911, that in future Indians would be eligible for the Victoria Cross gave satisfaction which was increased during the War and afterwards by the award of that decoration to the following—

Sabadar (then Sepoy) Khudadad Khan, 193rd Baluchis.—On 21st October 1914, at Hollebeke, Belgium, the British Officer in charge of the detachment having been wounded, and the other gun put out of action by a shell, Sepoy Khudadad, though himself wounded, remained working his gun until all the other five men of the gun detachment had been killed.

Naik Darwan Sing Negi, 1-39th Garhwal Rifles.—For great gallantry on the night of the 23rd-24th November 1914 near Festubert, France, when the Regiment was engaged in retaking and clearing the enemy out of two trenches, and, although wounded in two places in the head, and also in the arm, being one of the first to push round each successive traverse, in the face of severe fire from bombs and rifles at the closest range.

Sabadar (then Jamadar) Mir Dast, 55th Coy's Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery and great ability at Ypres on 28th April 1915, when he led his platoon with great gallantry during the attack, and afterwards collected various parties of the Regiment (when no British Officers were left) and kept them under his command until the retirement was ordered. Jamadar Mir Dast subsequently on this day displayed remarkable courage in helping to carry eight British and Indian Officers into safety, whilst exposed to very heavy fire.

Rifleman Kalbir Thapa, 2-3rd Gurkha Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery during operations against the German trenches south of Manquismart. When himself wounded, on the 25th September 1915, he found a badly wounded soldier of the 2nd Leicestershire Regiment behind the first line German trench, and though urged by the British soldier to save himself, he remained with him all day and night. In the early morning of the 26th September, in misty weather, he brought him out through the German wire, and, leaving him in a place of comparative safety, returned and brought in two wounded Gurkhas one after the other. He then went back in broad daylight for the British soldier and brought him in also, carrying him most of the way and being at most points under the enemy's fire.

Hasidhar (then Lance-Naik) Lala, 41st Dogras.—Finding a British Officer of another regiment lying close to the enemy he dragged him into a temporary shelter which he himself had made, and in which he had already bandaged four wounded men. After bandaging his wounds he heard calls from the Adjutant of his own Regiment who was lying in the open severely wounded. The enemy were not more than one hundred yards distant, and it seemed certain death to go out in that direction, but Lance-Naik Lala insisted on going out to his Adjutant, and offered to crawl back with him on his back at once. When this was not permitted, he stripped off his own clothing to keep the wounded officer warmer and stayed with him till just before dark when

he returned to the shelter. After dark he carried the first wounded officer back to the main trenches, and then, returning with a stretcher carried back his Adjutant. He set a magnificent example of courage and devotion to his officers.

Sepoy Chatta Singh, 9th Bhopal Infantry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in leaving cover to assist his Commanding Officer who was lying wounded and helpless in the open. Sepoy Chatta Singh bound up the officer's wound and then dug cover for him with his entrenching tool, being exposed all the time to very heavy rifle fire. For five hours until nightfall he remained beside the wounded officer shielding him with his own body on the exposed side. He then, under cover of darkness, went back for assistance, and brought the officer into safety.

Naik Shahamad Khan, 60th Punjabs.—For most conspicuous bravery. He was in charge of a machine-gun section in an exposed position in front of and covering a gap in our new line within 150 yards of the enemy's entrenched position. He beat off three counter-attacks, and worked his gun single-handed after all his men, except two belt-fillers, had become casualties. For three hours he held the gap under very heavy fire while it was being made secure. When his gun was knocked out by hostile fire he and his two belt-fillers held their ground with rifles till ordered to withdraw. With three men sent to assist him he then brought back his gun, ammunition, and one severely wounded man unable to walk. Finally, he himself returned and removed all remaining arms and equipment except two shovels. But for his great gallantry and determination our line must have been penetrated by the enemy.

Lance Dafadar Govind Singh, 28th Cavalry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in thrice volunteering to carry messages between the regiment and brigade head quarters, a distance of 1½ miles over open ground which was under the observation and heavy fire of the enemy. He succeeded each time in delivering his message although on each occasion his horse was shot, and he was compelled to finish the journey on foot.

Rifleman Karan Bahadur Rana, 23rd Gurkha Rifles.—For conspicuous bravery and resource in action under adverse conditions, and utter contempt of danger during an attack. He with a few other men succeeded, under intense fire, in creeping forward with a Lewis gun in order to engage an enemy machine gun which had caused severe casualties to officers and other ranks who had attempted to put it out of action. No. 1 of the Lewis gun party opened fire and was shot immediately. Without a moment's hesitation Karan Bahadur pushed the dead man off the gun, and in spite of bombs thrown at him and heavy fire from both flanks, he opened fire and knocked out the enemy machine gun crew. Then switching his fire on the enemy bombers and riflemen in front of him, he silenced their fire. He kept his gun in action, and showed the greatest coolness in removing details which had twice prevented the gun from firing. He did magnificent work during the remainder of the day and when a withdrawal was ordered

assisted with covering fire until the enemy was close to him. He displayed throughout a very high standard of valour and devotion to duty.

Ressaidar Badlu Singh, 14th Lancers attached 29th Lancers.—For most conspicuous bravery and self-sacrifice on the morning of the 23rd September 1918, when his squadron charged a strong enemy position on the west bank of the River Jordan, between the river and Kh. es Samarivah Village. On nearing the position Ressaidar Badlu Singh realised that the squadron was suffering casualties from a small hill on the left front occupied by machine guns and 200 infantry. Without the slightest hesitation he collected six other ranks and with the greatest dash and an entire disregard of danger charged and captured the position, thereby saving very heavy casualties to the squadron. He was mortally wounded on the very top of the hill when capturing one of the machine guns single-handed, but all the machine guns and infantry had surrendered to him before he died. His valour and initiative were of the highest order.

Riflesman Gobhar Sing Negi, 2nd Battalion, 39th Garhwal Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery on 10th March 1915 at Neuve Chapelle. During an attack on the German position he was one of a bayonet party with bombs who entered their main trench, and was the first man to go round each traverse, driving back the enemy until they were eventually forced to surrender. He was killed during this engagement.

Sepoy Ishaw Singh, 28th Punjab.—For devotion and bravery "quite beyond all praise" in Waziristan on 10th April, 1921. He received a severe gunshot wound in the chest while serving a Lewis gun, and when all the havildars had been killed or disabled he struggled to his feet, called to his assistance two men, and charged and recovered the gun, restoring it to action. He refused medical attention, insisting first on pointing out where the other wounded were and on carrying water to them. While the medical man was attending to these wounded he shielded him with his body and he submitted to medical attention himself only after he was exhausted through three hours' continual effort and by loss of blood.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

A.—British Subjects.

1 British Indian passports are only issued to British subjects and to British protected persons.

2 The Indian Passport Regulations do not require persons to obtain passports before embarking from any port in British India, but as practically every other country requires travellers to be in possession of passports for landing, travellers are therefore advised to have passports before embarkation. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Royal Indian Marine Service travelling on duty and members of the families of any such person when travelling to the United Kingdom on Military entitled passages need not have passports.

3 Passports are not required for journeys by sea from Bombay to British ports in India or to Burma or Ceylon, nor are passports required by British Indian subjects travelling to the Federated Malay States or the Straits Settlements, unless they propose to continue their journey onward.

4 As a passport is valid for two years, there is no objection to anyone applying for a passport weeks or even months in advance of the date of sailing, and much inconvenience will be avoided by early application. A notice of at least four days should be given for the preparation of a new passport and at least two days for an endorsement, renewal or visa.

5 In order to obtain a passport an application form showing, among other things, the reasons for the proposed journey, must be filled up by the applicant and certified by a Political Officer, Magistrate, Justice of the Peace, Police Officer not below the rank of Superintendent, or Notary Public resident in India. Copies of this form can be obtained from any District Magistrate, from the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, by post from the Passport Office to the Government of Bombay, by personal application at the Passport Office, or from any of the leading Banking and Shipping Agents in Bombay. Two unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant and a fee of Rs. 3 should be submitted with the application form. Fees are not accepted in stamps or by cheque.

6 The application form when filled up should either be posted with the photographs and fee to the Passport Office to the Government of Bombay, or should be presented in person at the Passport Office, Bombay.

7 The Passport Office in Bombay is situated in the Civil Secretariat. The office is open from 11 a.m. to 4 p.m. daily, except on Saturdays when it closes at 1 p.m. and on Sundays and public holidays when it is not open at all.

8 The Passport Office cannot issue passports outside the working hours shown above, and the preparation of a passport takes time. Applicants, therefore, who postpone application to the last moment do so at their own risk.

Iraq

9. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Indian Forces in uniform, and *bona fide*, Muhammadan pilgrims travelling in organised parties and holding a pilgrim pass do not require passports for the journey to Iraq. All other travellers must be in possession of passports, which, except in the case of *bona fide* representatives of firms, will not be granted without the previous permission of the local authorities in Iraq. The Passport Officer will on request, ask for this permission by post, or, if the applicant, is prepared to defray the cost of a telegram by cable. Applicants must state clearly the nature of their business and give one or more references in Iraq to enable the local authorities to make inquiries regarding the *bona fides* of their visit.

10. Restrictions also exist on travel to various parts of the British Empire and to certain foreign countries. Amongst these may be mentioned Australia, Canada, Egypt, Gibraltar, Mexico, Mohammedan and Abadan, New Zealand, Palestine, Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa, South West Africa and the United States of America. The restrictions apply particularly to Indians. Detailed particulars with respect to each country will be supplied on application.

11. Passports for journeys to or through foreign countries require, after issue, the visa of the Consul concerned. Visas are however, not necessary for Belgium, Denmark, France, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Norway, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

12. Passports are valid only for two years, but can be renewed for four further periods of two years each. Application for renewal must be made in the prescribed form, copies of which may be obtained from any of the offices mentioned in paragraph 5 above. The fee for renewal is Rs 1 8-0.

13. A passport is valid only for the country or countries endorsed on it and fresh endorsements from a British Passport authority are not needed during the validity of the passport for subsequent journeys to these countries. Fresh endorsements may, however, be obtained on the passport for additional countries. Passports endorsed as valid for the British Empire are also available for travelling to territories under British protection or mandate, not however including Palestine and Iraq for which countries the passport must be specifically endorsed. No fee is payable for an endorsement.

14. A lady on marriage or re-marriage requires a fresh passport.

15. In the case of a joint passport issued in favour of a husband and wife, the latter cannot travel alone, on it, but should take out a fresh passport, surrendering the joint passport for cancellation of her name from it.

B—Foreigners

16. No foreigner can hold a British passport.

17. Foreigners proceeding direct to their own country or to, or through, any other foreign country or countries do not require a British visa on their passports. The nationals of the following countries do not require a British visa for travelling to the United Kingdom. (This concession also applies to certain nationals proceeding to certain British Dominions and Colonies and information on this point can be obtained from the Passport Officer).—Belgium, Denmark, France, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Norway, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

18. Foreigners who are subjects of the countries shown in the appendix below and who are travelling to a British territory for which a British visa is necessary should first obtain passports from their consular representatives and should then present them to the Passport Officer for visa, together with a written statement of the reasons for the journey. If the passport of a foreigner bears a British visa which terminates in India and the holder desires to undertake another journey to a territory under British jurisdiction he should first obtain an endorsement from his consular representative and then present it to the Passport Officer for visa. There are three kinds of visas granted, viz., the Non transit, Transit and Transhipment. Fees for these vary according to rates charged to British subjects by the foreign countries concerned.

19. Other foreigners should apply for Identity Certificates through the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, or, where such foreigners, reside in the mofussil, through the District Magistrate of the district in which they are residing. Two copies of the applicant's photograph should accompany the application. The fee for a Certificate of Identity is Rs 1 8-0.

20. The holder of a foreign passport who has obtained a visa granted by a British Passport Authority outside India for a destination which involves landing in or passing through, India does not need a further visa from the authorities in India.

21. Copies of this notice can be had free of charge on application.

The School of Oriental Studies.

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This School was established by Royal Charter in June 1916. The purposes of the School (as set out in the Charter) are to be a School of Oriental Studies in the University of London to give instruction in the languages of Eastern and African peoples, Ancient and Modern, and in the Literature, History, Religion and Customs of those peoples, especially with a view to the needs of persons about to proceed to the East or to Africa for the pursuit of study and research, commerce or a profession, and to do all or any of such other things as the Governing Body of the School consider conducive or incidental thereto, having regard to the provision for those purposes which already exists elsewhere and in particular to the co-ordination of the work of the School with that of similar institutions both in this country and in its Eastern and African Dominions and with the work of the University of London and its other Schools.

The School possesses noble and adequate buildings, in Finsbury Circus, provided for them by Government under the London Institution (Transfer) Act of 1912. The sum of £25,000 required for the alteration and extension of the buildings of the London Institution for the purposes of the School was voted by Parliament. The School buildings are quiet, although

they are in the heart of the City. The School provides teaching in more than forty languages. In a considerable proportion of the spoken languages instruction is given by teachers belonging to the countries where the languages in question are spoken, as it is the aim of the School to provide as far as possible both European and Oriental Lecturers in the principal languages included in the curriculum.

Courses on the History, Religions, and Customs of Oriental and African countries form a special feature in the teaching of the School. Inter-collegiate arrangements have been made with University College for instruction in Phonetics, modern phonetic methods being used to facilitate the acquirement of correct pronunciation. Inter-collegiate arrangements will also be made with the London School of Economics for instruction in the Sociology and Anthropology of the less civilised races.

Courses are also provided in Indian Law and the History of India, and arrangements are made from time to time for special courses of lectures to be given by distinguished orientologists not of the staff of the School.

Patron, H. M. the King *Chairman of the Governing Body, Sir John Hewitt, G.C.B., K.B.E., C.I.E.* *Director, Professor Sir H. Denison Rose, C.I.E., Ph.D.*

Teaching Staff

<i>Name</i>	<i>Subjects</i>	<i>Title.</i>
1 Sir T. W. Arnold, C.I.E., Litt D., M.A.	Arabic (Classical)	Professor
2 T. Grahame Bailey, M.A., B.D., D. Litt.	Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi)	Reader
3 L. D. Barnett Litt D., M.A.	Ancient Indian History and Sanskrit	Lecturer
2 C. O. Blagden, M.A.	Malay	Reader
G. H. Darab Khan	Persian	Lecturer
3 Caroline A. F. Rhys Davids D. Litt., M.A.	Pali	"
3 W. Doderet, M.A., I.C.S. (retired)	Gujarati	"
6 H. H. Dodwell, M.A.	History	Professor
Sheikh K. Dojaliv	Arabic (Mesopotamian)	Lecturer
8 A. S. Domiach B. Litt.	Modern Hebrew	"
B. Dora Edwards	Chinese (Mandarin)	"
H. A. R. Gibb, M.A.	Arabic (Classical)	"
J. Withers Gill, O.B.E.	Hausa	"
3 A. L. Hough	Burmese	"
Commander N. E. Isomonger, R.N. (retired)	Japanese	"
Sheikh H. Abdel Kader	Arabic (Egyptian)	"
S. G. Kanhere	Marathi	"
G. E. Leeson	Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi)	"
3 W. Sutton Page, B.A., B.D., O.B.E.	Bengali	Reader
3 T. G. F. Palmer	Hindustani	Lecturer
2 Vacant	Chinese	Reader
3 Ali Riza Bey	Turkish	Lecturer
Sir E. Denison Rose, C.I.E., Ph.D.	Persian	Professor
3 A. Sabonadiere, I.C.S. (retired)	Indian Law	Lecturer
3 A. Sefi	Arabic (Syrian and Classical)	"
O. C. Shu	Chinese (Mandarin)	"
S. Topalian	Turkish	"
7 R. L. Turner, M.A., M.C.	Sanskrit	Professor,
Alice Werner	Swahili & other Bantu languages	"
2 M. de Z. Wickremasinghe, M.A.	Tamil and Telugu	Reader
3 C. E. Wilson, B.A.	Persian	Lecturer
S. Yoshitake	Japanese	"

- University Professor of Arabic and Appointed Teacher
- University Reader and Appointed Teacher
- Recognised Teacher in the University of London
- University Professor of Persian and Appointed Teacher
- University Professor of Swahili and other Bantu languages
- University Professor of the History and Culture of British Possessions in Asia, with special reference to India.
- University Professor of Sanskrit.

8, Abad Ha'am Lectureship in Modern Hebrew

The Public Trustee.

The Public Trustee of England is a Government Official created by Statute (Public Trustee Act, 1906) whereby the State acts as an executor or as a trustee under Wills, and as a trustee under Settlements, whether these instruments are new or old, and in other offices of an analogous character.

The office has been a great success, in the seven years that it has been open the value of the trusts in course of administration have amounted, in round figures, to £50,000,000, while the estimated value of Wills lodged in the Department which have yet to mature is put at some £59,000,000, showing a total value of business of all kinds negotiated at £110,000,000.

Fees chargeable.—The office is now entirely self-supporting and is no charge upon the tax-payer. A provision of the Statute declares that the Office is to make no profit but to charge only such fees as may provide the working expenses and constitute a reserve fund against the liabilities assumed by the State for breach of trust. In accordance with this mutual principle the fees have already been reduced from their original scale, and the cash surplus of fees over expenses, regarded as the nucleus of a reserve fund for all contingencies, is now £14,585.

The main fees are of two kinds—a fee on capital and a fee on income. The fees on capital are taken in two instalments—an instalment of half taken at the beginning, and an other instalment of half taken at the end of a trust—each instalment being calculated at the following rates—

On the first £1,000, fifteen shillings per cent.

On the excess of £1,000 to £20,000, five shillings per cent.

On the excess of £20,000 to £50,000, two shillings and six pence per cent.

On the excess of £50,000, one shilling and three pence per cent. The fee on income is one per cent. If, as is usual, the income be paid direct from its source to the person entitled, on any income in excess of £2,000 a year the fee is only $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Where the income is paid through the Department then the fee is two per cent. up to £500 a year, and one per cent on any excess of £500 a year, and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on income in excess of £2,000 a year. The fee on investment is $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The Public Trustee, out of this fee paying the brokerage. There is power to vary these fees to meet the peculiar circumstances of special cases, but owing to the low range of the fees, and their mutual character the power of reduction is but seldom exercised, except perhaps in the case of large trusts.

The Department has been organised upon lines followed by commercial organisations. Forms are avoided wherever possible, the methods of the Office prescribing prompt attention to all matters within the day.

The particulars of any trust in which it is desired that the Public Trustee should act may be brought to his notice by letter or by personal interview, and upon his assent being obtained, his appointment should be effected in the ordinary way as in the case of private trustees. In the case of a Will about to be made, his appointment can be secured by the simple provision "I appoint the Public Trustee of England as the executor and trustee of this my Will."

One of the forms of trusteeship which would appeal to English people residing in India is a scheme known as a "Declaration of Trust." An official pamphlet explains that the Public Trustee's services have been requested by people who, either because of professional or business pre-occupation, or from want of experience in dealing with money matters, or from the disadvantages which might attach to Governmental, professional or business disabilities abroad, are not well placed to select and supervise their investments. It would appear that the services of the Department in this matter were first requisitioned by officers taking up appointments in India, and, following out their request for individual assistance, this scheme of trust came to be devised, and has been found to commend itself to the circumstances of a very large circle of persons similarly disadvantaged. A Declaration of Trust is an inexpensive form of trusteeship by virtue of which the owner practically retains full control over his capital. The property is made over to the Public Trustee either in the form of money to be invested or specific securities transferred into his name, and thereupon the Public Trustee executes a short "declaration" setting out that he holds the money invested or the securities in trust for the transferor. The result of this is that income, as it accrues, is paid to the owner or to any beneficiary as he may direct. A wide field of investment is permissible, as the trust provides that the funds may be invested as the owner may from time to time direct. As the pamphlet sets out interest at the rate of at least 4 per cent is to be looked for under the scheme from investments of a non-speculative character. It should be understood that this form of trusteeship is not analogous to a bank deposit, where the return of the capital at par, given the solvency of the bank, is expected. Investments are selected with the greatest care in consultation with the owner, but it must be understood that the Public Trustee does not accept responsibility for any fluctuation of any of the investments chosen. The fees payable for this scheme of trusteeship, so far as the capital fees are concerned, are half those payable in the case of an ordinary settlement. The other fees are the same as the ordinary fees.

The appointment of the Public Trustee secures certain definite advantages inasmuch as he is by Act of Parliament a Corporation Sole and thus it is said the Public Trustee never dies, so that the expense of appointment of other Trustees is permanently avoided. His

integrity is guaranteed by the State, while the measure of his success would indicate that he is necessarily experienced and skilled in his duties.

Close personal attention is given by the Public Trustee and his senior officers to the details of every trust, and as regards the work of investment, a large organisation has been set up to give the best consideration not only to the selection of investments but to the duty of keeping them under frequent observation.

An Advisory Committee of men of recognised authority has, in the past year, been appointed by the Lord Chancellor to assist the Public Trustee by a quarterly review of the investments made. In the last Annual Report the Public Trustee speaks of having secured a return of £8-10-4 per cent. upon his trustee investments and a return of £4-10-1 per cent. upon his non trustee investments.

The success of the Department would seem to show that there is a widespread public need in England for such an Office, and the energy and efficiency with which the Department has been constituted and conducted has been a great factor in commending it to the public. The State Guarantee is also doubtless a factor of great importance. A statutory rule pro-

vides that strict secrecy shall be observed in respect of all trusts administered in the Department.

The administration is subject to an audit by the Controller and Auditor-General (the Government Auditor), while the internal organisation has been built up upon the principle of a check and counter-check upon the administration.

An important section of the Statute gives the Public Trustee power to direct an audit and investigation of the condition and accounts of any trust.

Officials in India will doubtless tend to make an increasing use of the Department. As a Government Office, its stability will commend itself to them as a medium to safeguard their interests under Wills or Settlements which can be entirely relied upon, and free from the risks and expense attendant upon any other forms of trusteeship.

Further information upon details and copies of the official pamphlet, reports and rules, etc., can be obtained of the official agents to the Department, viz.—Messrs. King, Hamilton & Co., Calcutta and in Bombay, Messrs. King, King & Co., whose head office is Messrs. Henry & King & Co., 65, Cornhill, London, E. C.

THE ADMINISTRATOR-GENERAL.

In India the functions of a Public Trustee are divided in each Province between two officials, the Administrator-General and the Official Trustee.

The office of Administrator-General was first constituted by Indian Act VII of 1849. There were several later enactments on the subject, all of which have ceased to be in force. The present law is to be found in Indian Act III of 1913, which contains the following provisions:—There are three Administrators-General in each of the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. Their combined jurisdiction covers the whole of British India. The Administrator-General is entitled to letters of administration when granted by a High Court, unless they are granted to the next of kin. In the other Courts he is entitled to letters in preference to a creditor, a legatee other than a universal legatee, or a friend of the deceased.

If any person who is not an Indian, Christian, a Hindu, Mohammedan, Persian, Buddhist dies leaving within any Presidency assets exceeding the value of Rs. 1,000 and if no person to whom any Court would have jurisdiction to commit administration of such assets has, within one month from his death, applied in such Presidency for probate or letters of administration, the Administrator-General is required to apply for letters of administration. In case of apprehended danger of misappropriation, deterioration, or waste of assets left by the deceased in the towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, the High Courts may direct the Administrator-General to apply for letters of administration. He can also be required to collect and hold assets until a right of succession or administration is determined. Probate and letters of administration granted to an Administrator-

General have effect throughout the Presidency but the High Court can direct that they have effect throughout one or more of the other Presidencies. A private executor or administrator may with the assent of the Administrator-General transfer the assets of the estate to the Administrator-General. There are provisions in the Act with regard to the revocation of grants and the distribution of assets. When the assets do not exceed Rs. 1,000 in value, the Administrator-General may, when no probate or letters of administration have been granted, give a certificate to a person, claiming otherwise than as a creditor to be interested in such assets, entitling him to receive the assets. There is also power in certain events to give such certificate to a creditor. There is a further power to send the residue of the assets to the country of domicile of the deceased. The Government of India is required by the Act to make good all sums for which the Administrator-General would be personally liable if he had been a private administrator, except where the Administrator-General and his officers have in no way contributed to the liability.

Fees both on capital and on income are payable out of the estates taken charge of by the Administrator-General. The fees on capital vary from 8 per cent on the gross value in the case of small estates to 3 per cent in the case of large estates. The fees on income vary in the case of moveable property from 2 per cent to 3 per cent, and in the case of immovable property from 3 per cent to 5 per cent. When the Court has directed the Administrator-General to collect and hold the assets a fee of 1 per cent on the value of the assets taken possession of, collected, realised, or sold is payable. A small fee is also payable to assessors of the

Administrator-General grants a certificate, the Administrator has power to reduce the fees to one-half.

Official Trustee—The office of Official Trustee dates from the year 1843. By Indian Act XVII of that year the Supreme Court had power to appoint the Registrar or other officer of the Court to be a trustee, where there was no trustee willing to act. Act XVII of 1843 was repealed by Act XVII of 1884, which was in its turn repealed by Act II of 1913, which contains the present law on the subject. There are three Official Trustees. The Official Trustee of Bengal has powers in the greater part of India. The powers of the Official Trustee of Bombay extend to the Bombay Presidency and the Province of British Baluchistan, those of the Official Trustee of Madras extend to the Madras Presidency and the Province of Coorg. The Government can appoint Deputy Official Trustees.

An Official Trustee can (a) act as an ordinary trustee, (b) be appointed trustee by a Court of competent jurisdiction. He has, except as otherwise provided the same powers, duties,

and liabilities as ordinary trustees. He may decline any trust. He may not accept any trust under any composition or scheme of arrangement for the benefit of creditors, nor of any estate known or believed by him to be insolvent. He cannot accept a trust for a religious purpose, or for the management or carrying on of any business. He cannot administer the estate of a deceased person unless he be sole executor and sole trustee under the will. He cannot be appointed trustee along with any other person. With his consent he may be appointed trustee in the instrument making the trust, and he may accept a trust contained in a will. When property is subject to a trust, and there is no trustee within the jurisdiction willing or capable to act, the High Court may appoint the Official Trustee as trustee. He may also be appointed a trustee by the surviving or continuing trustees of a trust, and all persons beneficially interested therein.

As in the case of an Administrator-General, the Government of India is responsible for the acts or defaults of an Official Trustee. Fees are payable at rates fixed by the Government.

The Fisheries of India.

The fisheries of India, potentially rich, as yet yield a mere fraction of what they could were they exploited in a fashion comparable with those of Europe, North America or Japan. The fishing industry, particularly the marine section, has certainly expanded considerably within the last 50 years concurrently with improvement in the methods of transport and increase in demand for fish, cured as well as fresh, from the growing populations of the great cities within reach of the seaboard. The caste system, however, exerts a blighting influence on progress, fishing and the fish trade are universally relegated to low caste men who alike from their want of education, the isolation caused by their work and caste, and their extreme conservatism, are among the most ignorant, suspicious and prejudiced of the population, extremely averse from amending the methods of their forefathers and almost universally without the financial resources requisite to the adoption of new methods, even when convinced of their value. Higher caste capitalists have hitherto fought shy of association with the low caste fishermen, and, except in the case of joint stock companies to engage in large operations on new lines, these capitalists cannot be counted upon to assist in the development of Indian fisheries. As in Japan, it appears that the general conditions of the industry are such that the initiative must necessarily be taken by Government in the uplift and education of the fishing community and in the introduction and testing of new and improved appliances and methods.

The first local Government to lead the way was that of Madras, which in 1905 initiated an investigation of the industry, both marine and fresh water, appointing Sir F. A. Nicholson to supervise operations. Bengal followed suit in 1906, and from these beginnings have sprung the local Fisheries Departments of Madras, Bengal, and Behar and Orissa. Bombay, the remaining seaboard province, has comparatively small fresh water interests compared with Madras and Bengal, and as it happens that her marine fisheries are favoured with good harbours and the most enterprising race of sea fishermen in India, there was less urgent need for State help in the industry. Fisheries there were a subject of Government solicitude for five years after the war but they finally ceased to receive any attention after the abolition in 1924 of the short-lived Department of Industries to which this subject was allotted.

Madras.

The Madras coast line of 1,750 miles is margined by a shallow water area within the 100 fathom line of 40,000 square miles, outside of a mere fringe inshore, this vast expanse of fishable water lies idle and unproductive. The surf-swept East coast is singularly deficient in harbours whereon fishing fleets can be based, and to from Ganjam to Negapatnam, the unshakable catamaran, composed of log tied side by side, is the only possible seagoing fishing craft. Its limitations circumscribe the fishing power of its crews and consequently these men are poor, and the produce of their best efforts

measures compared with what it would be if better and larger boats were available and possible. The West coast is more favoured. From September till April, weather conditions are good enough to permit even dugout canoes to fish daily. The people of this coast are fond of fish and, as no difficulty is found in beaching canoes and boats throughout this season, the fishing population is a large one. The 1921 Census gave 66,684 adults as subsisting on fishing in districts in Malabar and 8 Kanara, a small number after all, considering the immense wealth of these seas. The chief fishes are sardines, mackerel, catfishes and jewfishes (*kora* or *gol*) the two first overshadow all others. So greatly in excess of food requirements are the catches of sardines that every year large quantities are turned into oil and manure. Fishing outside the 5 fathom line is little in evidence, save by Bombay boats (*Rainagiri*) which are engaged in drift netting for bonito, seer and other medium-sized fishes. These strangers are entreprising fishers and bring large catches into Malpe and Mangalore and other convenient centres, the material is largely cured for export.

Fish-curing is practised extensively every where on the Madras coasts, its present success is due primarily to Dr Francis Day who, after an investigation during 1869-71 of the fisheries of the whole of India, pressed for the grant to fishermen of duty free salt for curing purposes within fenced enclosures. He advocated much else, but the time was not ripe and the salt concession was the sole tangible result of his long and honourable efforts. His salt suggestions were accepted by the Madras Government, and from 1882 a gradually increasing number of yards or bonded enclosures were opened at which salt is issued free of duty and often at rates below the local cost of the salt to Government. At present about 106 of such yards are scattered along the coast and over 55,000 tons of wet fish are annually cured therein.

The pearl and chank fisheries in Palk Bay and the Gulf of Mannar are Government monopolies. The former promise to yield a good fishery during 1926-27 when the young pearl oysters found extensively are expected to mature for fishing, the latter have been brought to a high state of efficiency and bring in substantial returns; the net profit for 1923-24 was Rs 85,868. Chanks or conches (*Turbinella pum*) are hard, some porcelain-white shells of great thickness and considerable size, much in demand in Bengal, particularly Dacca, where the industry centres, for manufacture into bangles.

The inland fisheries of Madras compare unfavourably with those of Bengal. Many of the rivers dry up in the hot season and few of the many thousands of irrigation tanks throughout the province hold water for more than 6 to 9 months. As a consequence inland fisheries are badly organized and few men devote themselves to fishing as their sole, or even main, occupation. The custom is to neglect or ignore the fishery value of these streams and tanks so long as they are full of water, only when the streams shrink to pools and the tanks to puddles do the owners or lessees of the fishing rights turn out to catch fish. The result is a dearth of fish throughout the greater part of the year,

a glut for a few days, and often much waste is consequent. The chief fresh-water fishes of economic importance are the murrel, notable for its virtue of living for considerable period out of water, various carps, and catfishes, the hilsa (in East Coast rivers only), and the catla. In the Nigiria, the Rainbow trout has been acclimatized and thrives well. The Government working in conjunction with the Nigiria Game Association maintain a hatchery at Avellanche, where quantities of fry are hatched and reared for the replenishment of the streams of the plateau.

The Madras Department of Fisheries.—As Government attention has been given in Madras over a longer period to the improvement of fisheries, and a larger staff concentrated upon the problems involved than elsewhere, the Presidency has now the proud position of knowing that her fisheries and collateral industries are better organized and more progressive than those in other provinces. The credit for the wonderful success which has been achieved and the still greater promise of the future, is due in large measure to the wise and cautious plans of Sir F. Nicholson, who from 1905 to 1918 had the guidance of affairs entrusted to him. In 1905 he was appointed on special duty to investigate existing conditions and future potentialities, in 1907, a permanent status was given by the creation of a Fisheries Bureau, and this in turn has developed into a separate Department of Government, which till August 1923 was being administered by Mr James Hornell, F.L.S., as Director, and is now controlled by his successor Dr R. Bandara Raj, M.A. Ph.D. The higher staff consists of a Superintendent of Pearl and Chank Fisheries, two Assistant Directors, a Master Fisherman and a Cannery Superintendent. These are respectively in charge of (a) the departmental fisheries (pearling, chanka, bocha-de-mer, etc.), (b) the co-operative and socio-economic side of the Department's operations, (c) inland pisciculture, and (d) the experimental and demonstrational fish cannery at Chellayam in South Malabar. Other officers have charge respectively of sections dealing with education and industrial work, which include a Training Institute for village teachers, fish curing yards, and oil and guano factories. All the public fish curing yards till now under the control of the Salt and Abkari Department have passed into the charge of the Fisheries Department. Till recently as a trial measure, only a few yards were operated directly under the latter Department, with a view to the introduction of better methods, and improved hygiene. Other newly opened yards are also being administered on model lines by the Department. Its activities are so varied and far reaching that it is difficult even to enumerate them in the space available, much less to give details. So far its most notable industrial successes have been the reform of manufacturing processes in the fish-oil trade, the creation of a fish-guano industry, the establishment of a fish cannery and the development of canned goods other than sardines, which alone had been canned previously in Malabar, and the opening of an oyster farm conducted under hygienic conditions. (For details see the Bulletin of the Department issued from the Government Press,

Madras; seventeen volumes have been issued to date). All this work has been carried on under serious handicap for want of suitable accommodation for the research staff, prior to the war, proposals were elaborated for headquarters building; in Madras comprising laboratories, experimental hatcheries, and a large public aquarium, postponed owing to war conditions but subsequently abandoned. In Madras the Department controls a small public aquarium, deservedly popular as the first and only one on the Asiatic mainland.

Fishing rights in the large irrigation tanks were transferred from Government to local authorities many years ago these tanks are now being reacquired by Government in order that they may be restocked periodically by the Department. The results so far have shown a profit on the operations. To breed the necessary fry, three fish farms are in operation and the construction of three more is in progress. In these the chief fish bred are the Gourami, obtained from Java, the Murrel and *Stropius suratanensis*, which has the excellent attribute of thriving and breeding as well in brackish as in fresh water, all three protect their eggs while developing a useful habit, both the Gourami and *Stropius* are largely vegetarian in diet. A further activity is represented by the breeding of small fishes specially addicted to feed upon the aquatic larvae of mosquitoes. These are supplied in thousands to municipalities and other local authorities at a nominal price, for introduction into mosquito-haunted sheets of water, these anti-malarial operations have proved most successful in those places where the local authorities have given proper attention to the directions given. The educational work of the Department is becoming one of its most important branches whether it be specially training teachers for schools in fishing villages, in training men in the technology of curing, canning, and oil manufacture, in co-operative propaganda and in the supply of zoological specimens for the use of college classes and museums. The last named has filled a long felt want and is contributing materially to the advancement of the study of zoology throughout India, there is now no need to obtain specimens from Europe.

The development of deep-sea fishing is engaging the attention of Government, splendid trawl grounds are indicated off Cape Comorin extending over an area of some 4,000 square miles, other promising areas are known elsewhere, but so far the limiting factors are the lack of cold storage accommodation at any port in the Presidency, and the want of a deep-water harbour in the south, where steam-trawlers can discharge direct into store. An experiment in deep sea fishing made recently with the help of a motor launch and Danish Sein net failed due to the unsuitability of the launch employed. The purchase of a regular Danish cutter for this purpose and a trawler for other works besides is under the consideration of Government.

Welfare Work.—A remarkable feature in the work of the Madras Fisheries Department is the energy which it devotes to the improvement of the condition of the fisherfolk. On Sir Frederick Nicholson's initiative the department has

always recognised the duty of spreading among them education and the habits of thrift, temperance and co-operation. The work has been specially successful on the west coast. The number of fisherman's co-operative societies last year had risen to 57. These societies it is reported worked satisfactorily, allowance being made for the inexperience and illiteracy of the members. But the formation and working of co-operative societies are not the only social activity among these fishermen. There is a vigorous temperance society at Mangalore. The Collector of South Kanara has granted sites for the construction of village halls for the fishermen in two villages and the fishermen have themselves collected Rs. 3,000 for the building. In another village, Kishur, the fishermen have already completed a building in which they hold meetings while an elementary school carries on its work in the same building. In Madras itself at Nadukuppam a temperance organisation has got to work with the assistance of the Fisheries Department. To promote the education of fishermen a training institution was opened in the middle of 1918 at Calicut to train teachers to work in elementary schools for the fisherfolk. The pupil teachers under training are familiarised with the work carried on in the fishery stations at Tanur and Chaliyam. They are given practical instructions in fishing, a boat having been purchased for the purpose. By the end of June 1924 27 schools for the fisherfolk were being maintained by the department on the west coast with a total of 4,761 pupils. In some places the villagers themselves started the schools and then handed them over to the department. In other places schools were opened by the department at the request of the fishermen. Local men are appointed as honorary managers of schools.

Bengal & Bihar & Orissa.

The fishing value of this extensive deltaic region lies primarily in the enormous area occupied by inland waters—rivers, creeks, shoals, and swamps, to say nothing of paddy fields and tanks. These swarm with fish and, as the Hindu population are free to a large extent from the aversion to a fish-diet which is widely prevalent among the better castes in the south the demand for fish is enormous. Rice and fish are indeed the principal mainstays of the population and not less than 80 per cent. of the people consume fish as a regular item of diet. It is calculated that 1.6 per cent. of the population is engaged in fishing and its connected trades, a percentage that rises to 2.6 in the Presidency, Raj Shahi, and Dacca Divisions. 644,000 persons in Bengal subsist by fishing with 324,000 maintained by the sale of fish, and this in spite of the fact that fishing is not considered an honourable profession. As a fresh-water fisherman the Bengali is most ingenious, his traps and other devices exceedingly clever and effective—in many cases too effective—so eager is he for immediate profit, however meagre this may be. The greatest inland fishery is that of the hilsa (*Opsanus beta*) which annually migrates from the sea in innumerable multitudes to seek spawning grounds far up the branches of the Ganges and the other great

river. Other valued and abundant fishes are the rohu (*Labeo rohita*) and the kalia (*Osteichthys*), trawled about everywhere. Of important fishes taken in the lower reaches of the river and in the great network of creeks spread throughout the Sunderbans, the beki (*Labeo calcaratus*) and the mullets are the most esteemed. Apart from these estuarine fish the most valuable sea-fishes are the mango-fishes (*Polydora*), pomfrets and soles. The sea-fisheries are as yet little exploited, the fishermen of Orissa, where alone coastal fishing is of any local importance, having no sea craft save catamarans of inferior design and construction.

Following the inquiry begun in 1906 by Sir K. G. Gupta, an investigation of the steam trawl possibilities of the head of the Bay of Bengal was undertaken, the trawler *Golden Crown* being employed for the purpose. The results showed that there are extensive areas suitable for trawling and capable of yielding large quantities of high class fish. Much attention was devoted during these trawl cruises to the acquisition of increased knowledge of the marine fauna, the results being published in the Records and Memoirs of the Indian Museum. For various reasons, the chief perhaps being the hostility of vested interests, the lack of cold storage facilities and the loss of time involved by the trawler having to bring her catches to Calcutta instead of sending them by a swift tender, the experiment was financially a failure and was dropped. With ever-increasing demand for fish in Calcutta and the concurrent rise in prices, the prospects of remunerative steam trawling are now much more promising and there seems a prospect of one or more steam trawling companies being floated in the immediate future. The trade is a difficult one to organize and without a rare combination of technical fishery knowledge and far sighted and comprehensive organization the danger run by the investing public will be considerable. Originally one Fisheries Department served the needs of the two provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Separation was effected in after which fisheries in Bengal were administered by the Director of Agriculture. The Bengal Fishery Department was abolished under retrenchment in 1923. In Bihar and Orissa, Fisheries form a section of the Department of Industries.

Government has ordered that the Bengal Fisheries Department be reconstituted on an improved basis as soon as funds permit. A Bengal Fisheries Department has of necessity a more limited scope for its activities than in the case of Madras. Practically no coastal minor industries exist, neither do the natural conditions lead us to suppose that any can be created without extreme difficulty, and in the absence of a great trawl industry which alone might be able to call into existence factories devoted to the utilization of fish by-products. Apart from this, much can be done by its officers for the uplift of the general fishing population with a view to free them from the tyranny of the mahajans (fish contractors, and middlemen) and enable them to put more capital into their business and to conduct it co-operatively. This is necessarily extremely slow work, but the old Department made a begin-

ning and once a few societies can be made successful, the nerve of the benefits conferred on the members will constitute the best possible form of propaganda. The temporary abolition of the Bengal Fisheries Department was regretted by many and it is hoped that it will soon be revived. The fishery wealth of Bengal is enormous and nothing but good can come of intensive investigation and propaganda.

Fresh-water mussels are used extensively at Dacca in the manufacture of cheap pearl buttons. The Dacca bangle factories carry on an important local industry of very ancient standing, their material is almost entirely obtained from the South Indian and Ceylon chank fisheries already alluded to.

Bombay.

Whereas Bengal's fisheries are at present confined principally to inland waters, those of Bombay are concerned, save in Sind, almost entirely with the exploitation of the wealth of the sea. Bombay is favoured with a coast line abounding with excellent harbours for fishing craft, a fair-weather season lasting for some seven months, and a fishing population more alive to their opportunities and more daring than those of the sister Presidencies. Bombay sea fisheries are of very great importance financially as well as economically and, though there is less necessity for a special department to develop marine industries, there is ample scope for most useful work in improving curing methods, in introducing canning, and in the development of minor marine industries particularly those connected with the utilisation of bye products. With this end in view the Director of Industries administered the subject of "Fisheries" from 1918 and had for a time two officers in the Department engaged upon fishery investigation and development. A steam trawler was bought for work in Bombay waters in 1920 and began work in May 1921 off Bombay. The experiment continued until March, 1922, and the trawler was subsequently sold to the Government of Burma. At the outset the results seemed promising, but the experiment as a whole showed that the cost of maintaining a trawler of the type used could not be met by sales of fish at current market rates. Cold storage has since been installed at the principal fish market in Bombay, but for a trawler special facilities are needed also for rapid coaling, supplying ice and stores, and for unloading catches. More than this a change is needed in the medieval conditions under which the local fish market is conducted and there is much to be done in popularising little known species of edible fish, such as karel, pain, tambura, and particularly the ray or skate which formed on the average 25 per cent of the total catch but which is a little esteemed locally that it sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs for a rupee.

Owing to retrenchment the appointments of Fisheries officers have been abolished and subsequently the whole Department of Industries was closed down.

The more important sea-fish are pomfrets, soles and sea perches among which are included the valuable Jew-fishes (*Scoloma* spp.) often attaining a very large size and notable as the

chief source of "fish-maws" or "sounds," largely exported from Bombay for eventual manufacture into binglams. The finest of Bombay fishing boats hail from the coast between Basmin and Surat. These boats are beautifully constructed, attain a considerable size and are capable of keeping the sea for weeks together. In the season they fish principally off the Kutch and Kathiawar coasts and in the mouth of the Gulf of Cambay. Their main method of fishing is by means of huge anchored stow nets, which are left down for several hours and hauled at the turn of the tide. The chief catches are bombil (Bombay ducks), pomfrets and jew fishes. The first named are dried in the sun after being strung through the mouth upon lines stretched between upright posts. South of Bombay the fishermen of Ratnagiri and Rajpur make use of another and lighter class of fishing boat, specially designed for use in drift-net fishing. Fine hauls of bonito seer (a large form of mackerel) and allied fishes are often made during the season from September to January and later of shark and rayfish. For the latter specially large and powerful nets are employed. For part of the fair season, when fishing is not usually remunerative, many of the larger Bombay fishing boats are employed as small coasters, a fact which shows how large they run in size.

In Sind considerable sea-fishing is carried on in the neighbourhood of Karachi chiefly for large and coarse fish, as shark, rays and jew-fishes. The edible oyster trade of Karachi was once extensive, the creeks of the Indus producing a species of oyster superior to that found in Bombay and Madras backwaters and estuaries. Unrestricted exploitation of beds of limited extent inflicted great harm, and now, when various salutary restrictions are imposed, the beds are slow to respond. Occasionally large deposits of the window-pane oyster (*Placoma placenta*) are found in the Indus creeks and as these produce seed pearls in abundance, Government leased the beds to the highest bidder. The pearls are largely exported to China for use in medicine. Considerable fisheries exist in the River Indus, chiefly for the fish known as palla, which are annually leased out by Government for about Rs. 20,000.

In the Gulf of Kutch two pearl fisheries exist, one for the true pearl oyster, the other for the window-pane oyster. The former is carried on by His Highness the Maharaja of Jamnagar, the other partly by this Prince and partly by the administration of His Highness the Maharaja Gaekwar of Baroda. The latter industry owes its local existence to the enterprise of the Baroda Government which in 1906 obtained the services on deputation of Mr J. Hornell, formerly Director of Fisheries in Madras, for the purpose of examining the marine potentialities of the Baroda territory in Kathiawar. One of the consequences was the discovery of large deposits of pearl-bearing window-pane oysters, until then unknown. Of late years these beds have produced annually from Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 25,000 in revenue, perhaps the best example we have in India of the profitable nature of well-directed scientific enquiry into fishery problems. The Baroda Government, recognizing their enlightened interest in the fishery developments,

have had two officers trained in the Madras Fisheries Department and now employ them in development work on the Baroda coast.

Experiments in canning are now in progress at one of the chief fishing centres on the Southern Kathiawar coast and already promise considerable success particularly with regard to pomfrets.

Burma.

The exclusive right of fishing throughout the province of Burma belongs by custom of the country to Government and the Burma Fisheries Act provides for the protection of this right and for conceding the enjoyment of it to the people subject to certain restrictions for the conservation of the fish. The work of the fisherfolk, involving as it does the taking of life, is generally viewed with disfavour by the Burman Buddhists. In certain tracts this attitude is intensified where the proportion of the fisherfolk is not only small but their economic conditions are more or less demoralised. Though fishing is generally denounced by Burman Buddhists, yet they consume the fish. The usual argument of the consumers is that they have not taken the life of the fish and therefore have committed no sin. Where fishing is the principal means of livelihood of the majority as in the Delta Districts, religious scruples tend to disappear.

REVENUE.—The economic value of any industry or tract of country can, to some extent, be gauged by the revenue it yields. The fisheries yield a substantial revenue (about one-eighth of the total land revenue), and therefore they are one of the most important sources of national wealth. There are two methods of catching fish, namely by nets in the rivers and seas and by traps in leased fisheries. The fishery revenue demand from net licensees amounts to over three lakhs while that from the leased fisheries amounts to more than 40 lakhs. Of the net licensees the greatest revenue comes from Mergul District where not only is the Pearl Industry carried on, but leases for collecting green snails and sea slugs are issued. Open lakes, pools of water and small rivers are classed as leased fisheries and are leased by Government to the highest and best bidder at public auction. Here the Irrawaddy Division equals in importance the rest of the province, and of the five districts in the Irrawaddy Division, Maunlin District alone yields as much as half of the whole division. Maunlin District therefore stands easily first in respect of fishery revenue, and out of the total collected in any year from the whole province, this district alone contributes at least a quarter.

The Delta consists of a series of saucer-shaped islands, many of which have embankments round the greater part of them along the north, east and west. In the hollows of these islands most of the fish come into spawn, and with the floods which overflow the embankment during October the young fry come down-country from Upper Burma.

The principal kinds of fish caught in nets on the sea-coast are (1) Kakuyan, (2) Kathabang, and (3) Kathahmyin. These are generally made into salt fish which fetch Rs. 2 to Rs. 3

per viss. The creek and fresh water fish from fisheries are generally ngakhin, ngayan and ngayyi. Most of them are sold fresh, but some are converted into salt fish. The fish caught in the rivers are generally ngathalaik, ngayyin, and ngamyayin, the predaceous fish.

Fees for net licenses are charged according to the size of the nets. Fisheries which consist of lakes, pools, and streams are put up to auction, but as no Burman fisherman has ever been known to keep a proper system of accounts, he seldom or never can gauge the real worth of the fisheries, this coupled with his impulsive nature frequently results in his bids at auction exceeding the value of the fisheries, several fishermen have thus not only brought ruin on themselves but also on their sureties who have not infrequently been sold up. Until these fisheries are brought under some settlement system for revenue assessment, bona fide fishermen must suffer from time to time. Moreover, the local authorities demand more than adequate securities and the furnishing as well as the verifying of these securities invariably mean much unnecessary expenditure of time and money both to the fisherfolk and to the Government staff. With a view to ameliorate uneconomic conditions by rendering the provisions of security easier, as well as to facilitate collection, Government recently introduced what is known as the group system whereby the value of the fisheries is fixed at a reasonable rental, and, instead of an individual system of furnishing security, the groups hold themselves severally responsible. In order to enable the poorest of the actual workers to reap the benefit of their labours nothing short of a co-operative system would be of any avail, this co-operative system has been tried in Tharrawaddy District with some success, by this system every fisherman employed in a fishery becomes a partner in the business and no non-fisherman can ever sweat the bona fide fisherman, poor though he be. The group system, though an improvement on the individual system of bidding and furnishing securities does not do away with the sweating system. With the gradual introduction of the co-operative system, which is an urgent necessity in the Delta District, the poorest fisherman of every fishing village and hamlet, after gradual and systematic training will, in course of time be able, not only to reap the full benefit of their labours, but also by mutual control and aid to develop into a more useful and contented peasantry. Fishery leases for three to five years are now being granted instead of leases for only one year and fishermen obtaining the long-term leases have begun to realise the need of improving the fisheries by clearing the

streams and pools of that Burma pest—the water hyacinth—and other weeds.

The principal articles of manufacture are ngapi (fish paste) and salt-fish, the manufacturing methods are primitive and with more industrial education and capital, these could be considerably improved.

The Punjab.

A Punjab Fisheries Department came into being as an experimental measure in 1912 and received the official sanction of Government as a regular department of the Punjab in April 1916. It operates under a Warden of Fisheries, under control of the Financial Commissioner. During the first three years the Department was almost entirely concerned with preliminary work, consisting largely of investigations and experiments in the Beas and Ravi Rivers.

These rivers were examined with a view to ascertain the indigenous species which inhabited them, their habits, spawning grounds and other data which would enable Government to frame regulations for their protection. The various fishing communities were interviewed and their views and statements carefully considered as to their rights in Government waters. Rules based upon the evidence when collated were subsequently drafted and approved by Government for the regulation of fishing in various districts, and are said to be working smoothly and satisfactorily. Those for each district take account of special local conditions, with a view both to conserve the fish supply and to secure a reasonable revenue to Government.

Trout culture flourishes in the hill streams, good sport being enjoyed by anglers in the Kulu Valley where operations were first initiated. The Kangra streams are now receiving attention, various consignments of ova having been sent there, successfully hatched out, and turned into suitable waters.

Travancore.

This State has affiliated Fisheries to the Department of Agriculture and with the help of two officers trained in Madras, the Department has already accomplished a notable amount of development work. Special attention has been given to the regulation of fisheries in backwaters to the establishment of co-operative societies among the fishing community and to the introduction of improved methods of sardine oil and guano production. Useful work has been done by one of the officers in elucidating the life-histories of the more valuable food fishes and prawns.

The Forests.

Even in the earliest days of the British occupation the destruction of the forests in many parts of India indicated the necessity for a strong forest policy, but whether or not our earlier administrators realized the importance of the forests to the physical and economic welfare of the country the fact remains that little or nothing was done. The year 1855 marked the commencement of a new era in the history of forestry in India, for it was then that Lord Dalhousie laid down a definite and far-sighted forest policy. Further progress was delayed for a time by the Mutiny, but from 1860 onwards forest organization was rapidly extended to the other provinces. The earlier years of forest administration were beset with difficulties, which is not surprising considering that the Department was charged with the unpopular duty of protecting the heritage of Nature from the rapacity of mankind, a duty which naturally roused the antagonism of the agricultural population of India. Exploration, demarcation and settlement, followed by efforts to introduce protection and some form of regular management were the first duties of the Forest Department. Work on these lines, which is not yet completed in the more backward parts of the country, has been pursued steadily from the commencement, and in consequence large tracts of forest have been saved from ruin and are gradually being brought under efficient management. Whatever may have been the opinions held in some quarters half a century ago as to the need for a policy such as that expressed in Lord Dalhousie's memorable enunciation of 1855, there is no longer any doubt that results have amply justified the steps taken, and that in her forests India now possesses a property of constantly increasing value, the future importance of which it is hardly possible to over-estimate.

Types of Forest.—More than one-fifth of the total area of British India (including the Shan States) is under the control of the Forest Department. These areas are classified as reserved, protected or unclassified State forests. In the reserved forests rights of user in favour of individuals and the public are carefully recorded and limited at settlement while the boundaries are defined and demarcated, in the protected forests the record of rights is not so complete, the accrual of rights after settlement not being prohibited, and the boundaries are not always demarcated, while in the unclassified forests no systematic management is attempted, and as a rule the control amounts to nothing more than the collection of revenue until the areas are taken up for cultivation or are converted into reserved or protected forests. The total forest area of British India (including the Shan States) in 1920-21 was 323,704 square miles, or 20.8 of the total area. This was classed as follows: Reserved 190,922, Protected 7,328, Unclassed State 115,454.

Throughout this vast forest area, scattered over the length and breadth of India from the Himalayan snows to Cane Coromandel and

the arid juniper tracts of Baluchistan to the eastern limits of the Shan States, there is, as may be imagined, an infinite variety in the types of forest vegetation, depending on variations of climate and soil and on other local factors. Broadly speaking, the following main types of forest may be distinguished—

(1) Arid country forests, extending over Sind, a considerable portion of Baluchistan, part of Baluchistan and the south of the Punjab, in dry tracts where the rainfall is less than 20 inches. The number of species is few, the most important tree being the babul or khar (*Acacia arabica*), which however in the driest regions exists only by the aid of river inundations.

(2) Deciduous forests, in which most of the trees are leafless for a portion of the year. These forests, which extend over large areas in the sub-Himalayan tract, the Peninsula of India and Burma, are among the most important, comprising as they do the greater part of the teak and sal forests.

(3) Evergreen forests.—These occur in regions of very heavy rainfall, such as the west coast of the Peninsula, the eastern sub-Himalayan tract, and the moister parts of Burma and are characterised by the great variety and luxuriance of their vegetation.

(4) Hill forests.—In these the vegetation varies considerably according to elevation and rainfall. In the Eastern Himalaya, Assam and Burma, the hill forests are characterised by various oaks, magnolias and laurels, while in Assam and Burma the Khadia pine (*Pinus khasya*) grows gregariously at elevations of 3,000 to 7,000 feet. In the North-Western Himalaya the chief timber tree is the deodar (*Deodar deodara*), which occurs most commonly at elevations of 6,000 to 8,000 feet, and in association with oaks or blue pine (*Pinus waltonii*), towards its upper limit the deodar merges into very large areas of spruce and silver fir, while below it are found extensive forests of the long needled pine (*Pinus longifolia*) which is tapped for resin.

(5) Littoral forests.—These occur on the sea coast and along tidal creeks. The most characteristic trees belong to the mangrove family (*Rhizophoraceae*). Behind the mangrove belt is an important type of forest occasionally inundated by high tides, in which the most valuable species is the "sundri" (*Heritiera fomes*).

Forest Policy.—The general policy of the Government of India in relation to forests was definitely laid down in 1904 by the classification of the areas under the control of the Department into four broad classes, namely—

(a) Forests the preservation of which is essential on climatic or physical grounds. These are usually situated in hilly country, where the retention of forest growth is of vital importance on account of its influence on the storage of the rainfall and on the prevention of erosions and sudden floods.

(b) Forests which afford a supply of valuable timbers for commercial purposes, such, for example, as the teak forests of Burma, the sal forests of Northern, Central, and North-Eastern India, and the deodar and pine forests of the North-Western Himalaya.

(c) Minor forests, containing somewhat inferior kinds of timber, and managed for the production of wood, fodder, grazing, and other produce for local consumption, these forests are of great importance in agricultural districts.

(d) Pasture lands.—These are not "forests" in the generally understood sense of the term, but grazing grounds managed by the Forest Department merely as a matter of convenience.

These four classes of forest are not always sharply divided from each other and one and the same tract may to a certain extent be managed with more than one object.

Administration—The forest business of the Government of India is carried out in the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Inspector-General of Forests is the head of the Forest Department and is the technical adviser to the Government of India in forest matters.

Territorial charges—The various provinces are divided into one or more Forest Circles, each in charge of a Conservator of Forests, provinces containing three or more circles also have a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department for his province. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in charge of members of the Imperial or Provincial Forest Service; these Divisions in most cases correspond to civil districts. Each Division contains a number of Ranges in charge of junior members of the Provincial Service or of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers; heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into Subdivisions. The Ranges are further subdivided into a number of beats or protective charges held by Forest Guards or in some cases by Foresters.

Non-territorial charges—Apart from territorial charges there are various important posts of a non-territorial nature connected with Forest Research and Education, the preparation of Forest Working Plans, and other special duties.

The Forest Service—The Forest Service comprises three branches—

(1) The Indian (Imperial) Service with a total personnel of 339 officers consisting of the Inspector General of Forests, Chief Conservators, Conservators, Deputy and Assistant Conservators. Of these 296 have been recruited direct to the service and 43 promoted from the Provincial Forest Service. The officers of this service are recruited as probationers—

(a) by direct appointment in the United Kingdom and India, and

(b) by promotion from the Provincial Forest Service in India.

Recruitment in the United Kingdom and in India of candidates nominated for direct appointment is carried out under regulations laid down by the Secretary of State for India and the Government of India, respectively. Candidates for direct appointment in the United Kingdom are required to have obtained a degree

with honours in some branch of Natural Science in a University of England, Wales or Ireland, or have passed the final B.Sc. examination in Pure Science in one of the Universities of Scotland. A degree in Applied Science is not considered as fulfilling these conditions. Candidates are required to produce evidence that they have a fair knowledge of either German or French. Weight is attached to the possession of a diploma or degree in Forestry.

Candidates for direct appointment in India are required to possess an Honour or a first class degree in Science or an M.Sc. degree of any class of a University incorporated by law in India.

Probationers are at present trained at a University possessing a forest school approved by the Secretary of State (Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh at present), this training being supplemented by a practical course, partly on the continent of Europe.

(2) **The Indian Forest Engineering Service**—This service was created in 1919 and at present consists of 17 Forest Engineers.

(3) **The Provincial Service**—Formerly it consisted of Extra Deputy and Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests. All Extra Deputy Conservators who were considered to be fully qualified to hold a major charge were transferred to the Imperial Forest Service in 1920. Except for five unpromoted officers the class of Extra Deputy Conservators has been abolished and the service now consists of Extra Assistant Conservators only. The fixation of the strength of the personnel of the service rests with the local Governments.

Officers of this service are eligible for promotion to 12½ per cent of the posts in the Indian Forest Service, such promotion being made by local Governments. These officers are recruited and trained in India, their recruitment being a matter for the local Governments. A certain number of posts in this service are filled by the promotion of specially promising Rangers. A two years course of training for the Provincial Service is conducted by the Government of India at the Forest Research Institute and College, Dehra Dun and it is open to local Governments on payment of prescribed fees to depute candidates to undergo that course provided they are qualified for admission under the rules governing the course.

(4) **The Subordinate Service**, consisting of Forest Rangers (about 840), Deputy Rangers (about 900), Foresters (about 2,000) and Forest Guards (about 11,500). The Rangers are at present trained at three different centres—the Forest College at Dehra Dun (for provinces other than Burma), the Burma Forest School at Pymmana (for Burma), and the Madras Forest College at Coimbatore (for Madras and the Central Provinces). These three institutions were established in 1878, 1898 and 1912 respectively. The training of subordinates below the rank of Ranger is carried out in various local forest schools and training classes.

Research—For the first fifty years of the existence of the Forest Department in India no attempt was made to co-ordinate the conduct of forest research, and thus to co-ordinate and elaborate the scientific knowledge so necessary

to successful economic working. A commencement in organized forest research was at first made in 1906 by the establishment, at the instance of Sir Baintill Hardley-Wilmet, then Inspector-General of Forests, of a Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. The Forest Research Institute, which is under the administrative control of the Inspector General of Forests, is in the charge of a President. There are five main branches of research, namely Silviculture, Forest Botany, Forest Economic Products, Entomology and Chemistry, each branch being in charge of a research officer. In addition specialists are appointed temporarily when necessary and are attached to the Institute to carry out investigations in subjects of particular economic importance. Thus a paper pulp expert has been employed for some time to investigate possible new sources of paper-making materials of which the forests of India contain abundant supplies. Besides this, there are the Seasoning, the Timber Testing, and the Wood Preservation experts engaged temporarily on short term contracts. Indian Assistants have been lately appointed

under them to receive the necessary technical training and experience in these subjects, with the object of eventually taking the place of experts if and when properly qualified.

Since 1906 research work has been prosecuted energetically so much so that in 1920 a new scheme was sanctioned for the expansion of the staff and site of the Institute. Since the new land has been acquired, on which new buildings are being built for accommodating the various expanded branches and the new machinery obtained from the United Kingdom. As a result of this and the employment of specialists in Seasoning Timber Testing and Wood Preservation steady progress is being made in the investigations which will ultimately lead to the fuller and better utilization of the raw products produced by Indian forests.

Forest Products.—Forest produce is divided into two main heads:—(1) Major products that is timber and firewood, and (2) Minor products, comprising all other products such as bamboo, leaves, fruits, fibres, gums, resins, barks, animal and mineral products, etc.

The average annual volume of timber and fuel and the value of minor produce removed from State forests during the year 1922-23, is given in the following statement.

Forest produce removed from State forests during the year 1922-23

Agency of exploitation	MAJOR PRODUCE (VOLUME)		MINOR PRODUCE (VALUE)			
	Timber	Fuel	Bamboos	Grazing and fodder grass	Other minor produce	TOTAL
	c ft	c ft	Rs	Rs	Rs.	Rs
By Government	14,974,963	19,778,091	95,105	17,576	19,99,668	21,12,840
By purchasers	88,531,547	140,514,221	15,19,146	34,64,968	29,57,079	79,41,193
By free grantees	2,116,348	10,524,440	38,488	4,47,417	2,47,056	7,32,931
By right-holders	4,017,237	71,849,120	1,18,401	34,91,203	1,79,594	87,89,198
TOTAL ..	107,640,095	242,665,879	17,71,140	74,21,164	53,83,897	1,45,75,701

Forest Industries.—The important role which the forests of a country play in its general commercial welfare and in providing employment for its population is not always fully recognised. Fifteen years ago it was estimated that in Germany work in the forests provided employment for 1,000,000 persons while 2,000,000 persons, earning £30,000,000 a year, were employed in working up the raw material yielded by the forests. If accurate estimates were available for India, they would no doubt show that apart from the jungle population which is directly dependent on the forests and the large numbers of wood-cutters, sawyers, carters, carriers, raftsmen and others working in and near them, employment on an extensive scale is provided to persons engaged in working up the raw products. Among these latter may be mentioned carpenters, wheelwrights, coopers, boat-builders, tanners, rope-makers, lac-manufacturers, basket-makers,

and many other classes of skilled labourers. The Indian census of 1911 gave 1,191,867 people and their dependents so employed in British India, and a further 394,097 in Native States, but these are probably below the actuals, as much forest labour is not whole-time labour, devoting seven or eight months in the year to forest work and the rest to agriculture. With the opening up of the forests, the extension of systematic working, the wider use of known products, and the possible discovery of new products, a steady and extensive development of industries dependent on the forests of India may be confidently anticipated in the future.

Financial Results.—The steady growth of forest revenue, expenditure and surplus during the past 60 years is shown in the following statement, which gives annual averages for quinquennial periods:—

Financial Results of Forest Administration in British India from 1864-65 to 1918-19 (in lakhs of rupees)

Quinquennial period	Gross revenue (average per annum)	(Expenditure average per annum)	Surplus (average per annum)	Percentage of surplus to gross revenue
	Lakhs	Lakhs	Lakhs	Lakhs.
1864-65 to 1868-69	27.4	23.8	13.5	86.4
1869-70 to 1873-74	58.3	39.3	17.0	30.2
1874-75 to 1878-79	66.6	45.8	20.8	-1.2
1879-80 to 1883-84	88.2	56.1	32.1	36.4
1884-85 to 1888-89	116.7	74.3	42.4	36.2
1889-90 to 1893-94	159.5	86.0	73.5	46.1
1894-95 to 1898-99	177.2	98.0	79.2	44.7
1899-1900 to 1903-04	196.5	112.7	83.9	42.7
1904-05 to 1908-09	257.0	141.0	116.0	45.1
1909-10 to 1913-14	296.0	163.7	132.3	44.7
1914-15 to 1918-19	371.3	211.1	160.2	43.1

The financial year 1922-23 showed a total revenue of Rs. 5,52,14,072, an expenditure of Rs. 3,95,72,604, and a surplus of Rs. 1,56,41,468. The proportion of surplus to gross revenue was about 28.

Prospects.—The past work of the Forest Department has already borne fruit, not only in a steady rise of revenue but also in the improved condition of the forests resulting from careful protection and tending. Much has been done in the way of opening up the forests to regular exploitation, but there is still room for enormous development in this respect, for there are extensive areas of valuable forest as yet almost untouched, and these represent a vast capital locked up and not only lying idle but even deteriorating. Perhaps the two most pressing needs at present are the introduction of improved silvicultural systems and the extension of roads and other export works to facilitate and cheapen extraction. These two must proceed simultaneously since they are inter-dependent, for it is obvious that timber and other produce can be extracted far more economically if it is available in large quantities within a limited radius than if it is scattered in small quantities over large tracts of country. Indeed this question must often decide whether extraction is possible or not. Silviculture teaches us how to effect this concentration and is therefore the bed-rock on which future results, financial and otherwise, must rest. It is of little avail to seek and develop new markets for timbers and other products if these cannot be produced in regular and sufficient quantities and extracted at a reasonable cost.

Forest Products. **Exploitation.**—The exploitation by the Forest Department, as a Commercial Department on business lines, of the great timber forests which are among the most valuable natural assets of the country, continues to attract the special attention of the various local Governments. In Madras, for instance, the working of the Forest panchayat system whereby the increased knowledge of the difficulties of forest administration which the villager obtains when he has a voice in forest management is bringing home to him an understanding of the necessity for that administration. A further important step taken in regard to forest exploitation was the recruitment of a Chief Forest Engineer and a Logging Engineer from America. In Burma the work under way in the Government Timber Depot at Rangoon proves to be of great value to

Government from the point of view of revenue and of considerable importance to the public from the point of view of industrial development. Research work on the seasoning of timbers has been started and results which promise to be of great value have already been obtained. Experimental work on the manufacture of furniture and in other similar directions are expected to give a value to a number of different timbers which are at present more or less unknown. The Myittha River Training Works started in 1908, and which have since then been continued for the sale of Government oak timber are of more than departmental interest. These works have also proved of great value to local people inasmuch as they have led to the reclamation of a very considerable amount of land which was previously too low lying and swampy to be fit for cultivation. In the United Provinces, the institution of the Government Sawmill and Turnery, the Government Central Wood Working Institute and the Resin Distillery have led to important results. These, and many other examples which could be quoted, go to show that local Governments are fully alive to the importance of exploiting their forest resources to the fullest possible extent for the benefit of the country.

Commercial Accounts.—The question of the institution of a commercial system of accounts for forest enterprises is engaging attention and the system has already been introduced in regard to certain forests in Madras. Proposals for its introduction in the Burma Forest Utilization Circle and in the Punjab Forest Department are in hand and its extension to the Andaman Forest Division is also likely to be made at an early date.

Agencies.—An agency has been established in India by the Government of India for the sale of Government timber and it is at present held by Messrs Martin & Co., Calcutta. The Government of India have also appointed Messrs W. W. Howard Bros., London, as their agents in England for the sale of Indian timbers. Local Governments, and the Andamans especially, make full use of these two agencies for the sale of their woods and the London agency has in addition been the direct means of bringing to the notice of outside countries the immense possibilities of India's wealth in this direction.

Bibliography.—A large number of bulletins and other publications has been issued by the Forest Research Institute, and of these a list can be obtained from the Superintendent, Government Printing, India, Calcutta.

AREA OF FOREST LANDS, OUTTURN OF PRODUCTS, AND REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES OF FOREST DEPARTMENTS.

Province.	Area of Province	Forest Area.				Proportion of Forests to whole Area of Province	Outturn of Products.		Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus.
		Reserved Forests.	Protected Forests.	Unclassified State Forests, &c.	Total.		Timber and Fuel.	Minor Products.			
		Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Per cent.	Cub ft.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	142,257	18,868	441	19,866	23,800,000	13.6	18,95,706	42,69,171	51,15,356	-2,46,185	
Bombay	133,225	12,094	638	12,682	10,682,000	9.5	74,83,563	74,83,563	50,25,946	24,99,617	
Bengal	78,668	4,892	1,702	4,030	10,624,000	13.5	4,48,089	18,98,089	12,85,122	6,10,587	
United Provinces.	106,720	7,873	4	67	7,414,000	7.0	8,328,000	24,06,213	86,46,677	12,41,968	
Punjab	97,231	2,068	4,085	522	6,616,000	6.8	35,210,000	27,30,560	49,91,178	43,70,070	
Bihar (including Shan States)	243,232	30,066	114,622	144,768	144,768,000	59.5	119,251,000	13,85,072	90,83,094	1,30,32,683	
Bihar and Orissa	83,987	1,761	1,971	10	3,032,000	3.7	20,229,000	4,55,199	9,00,372	9,94,466	
Central Provinces & Berar	99,947	19,792		19,792	19,792,000	19.8	27,702,000	21,33,997	41,83,693	27,16,371	
Assam	49,247	5,564		15,879	21,463,000	43.6	16,670,000	7,03,864	12,97,027	9,91,511	
North-West Frontier Province	13,067	286		286	2,842,000	1.8	2,842,000	61,462	5,74,838	7,49,384	
Yamhoctien	54,228	318	472	785	2,717,774	5.0	2,717,774	50,351	17,929	53,275	
Almor-Morwara	2,767	142		142	201,914	5.1	201,914	53,570	40,812	1,320	
Chong	1,682	830		520	400,463	32.9	400,463	19,779	7,33,781	6,30,445	
Andamans and Nicobars.	3,143	89		2,122	1,496,000	70.2	1,496,000	2,770	5,50,068	-1,02,066	
Total 1921-22	1,098,241*	103,759	7,550	138,169	249,504	22.7	361,383,074	1,38,07,264	5,88,16,071†	4,08,51,878†	1,74,64,193†
1920-21	1,082,246*	103,401	7,516	139,466	250,473	22.3	368,653,899	1,38,00,037	5,41,13,495	3,94,19,097	1,77,53,588
1919-20	1,080,814*	103,008	7,941	14,006	250,949	23.3	349,515,938	1,28,77,188	3,86,75,750	3,77,63,190	1,19,12,540
1918-19	1,070,781*	101,693	8,657	141,272	251,468	23.3	343,850,918	1,24,04,566	4,08,40,257	2,59,75,391	1,19,12,540
1917-18	1,060,650*	101,233	8,722	141,537	251,512	23.3	323,666,379	1,23,75,668	4,08,40,257	2,51,51,083	1,98,12,194
1916-17	1,070,585*	99,808	9,140	137,131	246,570	23.9	304,465,058	1,24,50,503	3,10,41,680	1,87,41,933	1,83,16,047
1915-16	1,079,431*	99,203	9,712	140,083	249,000	23.10	296,516,111	1,16,84,233	3,10,41,680	1,85,92,907	1,59,23,740
1914-15	1,079,149	97,890	10,403	141,382	249,397	23.15	270,453,469	1,07,94,903	2,97,09,734	1,80,03,430	1,17,03,304
1913-14	1,079,688	96,237	8,391	140,225	245,612	23.7	240,453,323	1,07,94,903	3,01,51,546	1,75,43,455	1,17,03,304
1912-13	1,079,163	95,867	8,402	138,564	238,928	22.1	230,718,866	1,03,51,674	2,82,06,309	1,72,07,810	1,50,01,999

* Includes Dabul Province and the British Part of Manipal (Central India)

* Excludes Delhi Province and the British Parganas of Munir (Central India).
† Unmeasured state forests or "public forest lands," as they are often called, include in many provinces all unoccupied waste, often entirely devoid of trees. So the statistics do not necessarily represent the wooded area.
‡ Including receipts under the following heads of the sums stated against them—Imperial (Rs. 27,808), Imperial Forest College (Rs. 24,117) and Imperial expenditure under the following heads of the sums stated against them—Imperial (Rs. 2,67,011), Imperial Forest College (Rs. 7,22,494), Forest Survey (Rs. 1,07,113).
§ Including deficits under the following heads of the sums stated against them—Imperial (Rs. 2,29,208), Imperial Forest College (Rs. 7,08,707), Forest Survey (Rs. 1,07,113).

RUBBER CULTIVATION.

The most important rubber-yielding tree found growing naturally in the Forests of India is *Ficus elastica*, a very large tree of the outer Himalayas from Nepal eastwards, in Assam, the Khasia Hills and Upper Burma. It has also been cultivated in Assam in the Charduar plantation in the Terpur Sub-Division, as also in the Kulsi plantation of the Gauhati Sub-Division in the Kamrup Division. There are also a number of other rubber-yielding trees found in the Indian and Burman forests from which rubber can be collected on terms quoted by Government. Attempts have been made to cultivate Para, Ceara and Castilla in various parts of India and Burma. In India proper the chief attempts were made on the west coast, about 180 acres being planted from 1908 onward at Gerooppa. Similar attempts have been made in Madras but at present Para rubber is being grown as a commercial product rather in Burma than the rest of India.

The production of rubber in India is confined to Assam, Burma, and the Madras Presidency.

The number of rubber plantations in 1921 mainly in Southern India and Burma, was 972 covering an area of 198,758 acres, as against 1,080, with an area of 191,267 acres, in 1922. New lands planted with rubber in the estates during 1923 amounted to 4,244 acres, and the area of

old cultivation abandoned to 1,424 acres, showing a net increase of 2,820 acres, and raising the total under rubber to 198,787 acres. Of this area only 74,371 acres were tapped. Of the total area under cultivation 49 per cent. was in Burma, 32 per cent in Travancore, 9 per cent in Madras, and 7 per cent. in Cochin.

The total production during 1923 is reported as 14,469,428 lb. as against 11,912,950 lb. in 1922. The yield per acre of tapped area was 252 lb. as against 209 lb. in 1922 in Cochin, 202, as against 208 lb. in Travancore, 193, as against 194 lb. in Burma, and 162, as against 160 lb. in Madras.

There was a general increase in the total production, especially in Travancore, Burma, and Madras. The total stock of dry rubber held on Dec. 31, 1923, was estimated at 4,661,184 lb. as compared with 3,688,533 lb. at the end of 1922. The exports of rubber by sea from British India to foreign countries during 1923-24 amounted to 15,000,000 lb. showing an increase of 33 per cent as compared with the preceding year.

Bibliography.—For fuller details see "Dictionary of the Economic Products of India" and the abridged edition of the same published in 1908 under the title "The Commercial products of India" by Sir George Watts; and the "Commercial Guide to the Forest Economic Products of India" by R. S. Pearson, published by the Government Press, Calcutta, 1912.

MATCH FACTORIES

Imports of matches before the war averaged (for the two years 1912-13, 1913-14) 14½ million gross. This figure has been falling during the past three years, and in 1923-24 was about 11½ million gross, valued at Rs. 1,45,92,000.

Indian timbers for matches.—In an article on the Indian match industry which appeared in the *Indian Agriculturist* the woods of the following species are to be employed in Burma for match splints: *Bombex insignis*, *B. melaniorum* (simul), *Anthocephalus Cadamba* (Indian), *Sarcocaulis cordatus*, *Spondias mangifera* (smra), and *Engelhardtia spicata* (palech). These woods are not the best for the

purpose, but are those most easily procurable. There are other kinds of white wood, such as poplar, pine, willow, and alder, in abundant quantities, but they are difficult to extract and transport and are therefore costly.

The attempts to manufacture matches in India have not hitherto been attended with great success, but recently two well-equipped factories have been started in Burma which give promise of good results. One of these is in Rangoon and is owned by Chinese, the other is at Mandalay, and is under European management. Still more recently a Swedish match company has started operations at Ambernath, outside Bombay.

PAPER MAKING.

There are five large paper mills in the country working on up-to-date Western lines, viz., at Titagarh, Kankinara and Raniganj in Bengal, the Upper India Couper Mills at Lucknow and the Beay Mill at Poona. There are also two smaller mills at Bombay and Surat which make only country paper, and there are one or two other mills which recently were not working. The five large mills have a large Government connection, as the greater part of Gov-

During the past year an interesting experimental paper making plant has been installed at the Government of India Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. Specially designed to incorporate a new system patented by Mr. Ratti, Cellulose Expert to the Government of India, the object of this plant is to test the various paper-making fibres which are available over vast forest and hill areas in India and Burma, and thus encourage the establishment

After many delays the Carnatic Paper Mills Company commenced operations at Rajahmundry, on the Godavari river, during the year, and it is estimated that the daily output will be ten tons of pulp and five tons of paper made from bamboos and paddy straw. In Southern India the Sri Minakshi Paper Mills, established many years ago as a small concern in Travancore State, appears to have taken a new lease of life and has ordered a new plant capable of turning out fifteen tons of paper per day, whilst in Assam a new company has been formed and is said to be waiting for the arrival of its plant. At Chittagong a new plant for manufacturing paper pulp from bamboos has commenced operations whilst another company has obtained a comprehensive concession for Bhabbar grass in the Punjab and is erecting a factory near the headworks of the Western Jumna Canal, about 200 miles from Lahore.

The possibility of utilizing the dense growths of bamboo in the hinterland of Uttar Pradesh has again been under consideration during the year, and the project has been investigated afresh by Mr. Raitt on behalf of the Government of Bihar and Orissa. Mr. Raitt estimates that in this area alone there is sufficient raw material for an output of 10,000 tons of paper pulp per annum.

Raw Materials.—The existence of the local industry depends chiefly on the supply of Sabal grass which on account of unfavourable seasons sometimes yields short crops. It is of great importance, therefore, to look for materials according to a constant outturn, and various reports have been published on the available paper making materials. Considerable attention has been devoted to Bamboo, since 1875 when it was found that this plant—of which there are four chief varieties in India—yielded a fibrous paper stock which made a quality of paper superior to esparto grass and at a considerably less cost. It was at that time estimated that one acre of bamboo would yield 10 tons of dried stems equivalent to 6 tons of merchantable cellulose. In 1905 Mr. E. W. Sindall was invited by Government to visit Burma with a view of enquiring into the possibility of manufacturing paper pulp. His report on the subject appeared in March 1906. He made numerous experiments with bamboo and woods of Burma and laid down lines along which further enquiry should be made. Subsequently Mr. W. Raitt, a pulp expert, was engaged at the Forest Research Institute in conducting tests on the treatment of bamboos by the soda and sulphate processes, the treatment of bamboo before boiling, with remarks on the utilization of nodes and internodes. His results were embodied

in the "Report on the Investigation of Bamboo or Production of Paper-pulp," published in 1911. Mr. E. S. Pearson of the Forest Service, Dehra Dun, as the outcome of enquiries made throughout India published in 1913 a note on the Utilization of Bamboo for the manufacture of Paper-pulp. The yield per acre from bamboo is larger than that of grasses usually used for paper. The cost of working into pulp has been estimated to yield a product cheaper than imported unbleached spruce sulphite and unbleached sabal grass pulp. In 1915 Mr. Durva Sumanas published a pamphlet, *Dendrocalamus Strictus* Bamboo of the Danes, as the result of investigations carried on in Banasa State.

In a paper read before the Royal Society of Arts in 1921 Mr. Raitt gave an answer to the question, "What India can do to fill the gap in the world's shortage of paper." He said that he thought it was "a modest estimate to say that from bamboo, taking only that which is available under 'possible' manufacturing conditions, Burma, Bengal and South West India could produce ten million tons of pulp per annum, and Assam from *Savannah* grasses three million. India could therefore produce pulp for the whole world."

The leading Indian paper grass for the last thirty years has been the bhalb, bhabbar, or sabal grass of Northern India. It is a perennial grass plentiful in drier tracts from Chota Nagpur and Rajmahal to Nepal and Garhwal. The Calcutta mills draw their supplies from Sahibganj, Chota Nagpur and the Nepal Terai. The quantity annually exported from Sahibganj is between three to four lakhs of maunds. The cutting in these districts is said to commence in October when the plants are six or seven feet high. Sabal grass yields from 36 to 45.5 per cent of bleached cellulose. A report by Mr. E. S. Pearson, Forest Economist, Dehra Dun, on the use of elephant grasses in Assam was issued in 1919. The most important species of grass found in the areas in which investigation has been made are Khagra (*Saccharum spontaneum*) and Batta (*Saccharum narenga*) with patches of Nal (*Pennisetum barbatum*) on the more swampy ground. Hand samples of the above grasses were sent to England to be tested on a laboratory scale, while several tons were sent to an Indian paper mill to be made into paper. The results were satisfactory and proved that a very fair quality of paper can be produced from these grasses at a relatively low price. Small samples of such paper can be obtained by persons interested in these grasses from the Forest Economist, Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, who can also supply further details.

Who's Who in India.

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- AGARWALA, LALA GIRDHARILAL, B.A.,** Vakil, High Court, Allahabad, and Member, Legislative Assembly b 1877 Educ. Agra College. Was Director, Moradabad Spinning and Weaving Mills for 10 yrs. and of Baraia Cotton Gm and Press Co. Ltd., for 6 years, original member, U.F. Chamber of Commerce, Secy., U.F. Hindu Sabha Elected Member of the Royal Society for encouragement of Arts, Manufacture and Commerce and of the Royal Society, London in 1909 Address 25, George Town, Allahabad
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Newton Scholar) Göttingen (Ph. D.) and Allahabad (D.Sc.), Member of Calcutta University Council. Pro-Vice-Chancellor Address: Muslim University, Aligarh

AHMED HUSSAIN AMIN JUNG RAHA DUB, NAWAB, Govt. of Madras, B. L., C. S. I. (1911) Nawab (1917) C. I. E. (1928). Minister in Waiting on H. M. H. the Nizam and Chief Secretary to H. E. H. the Government b 11 Aug 1888 m Fatima Lady Amin Jung Educ Christian College and Presidency College, Madras High Court Vakill, 1890, Deputy Collr and Magte 1890-92 Asstt Secretary to the Nizam 1898, Personal Secretary to Nizam 1898, Chief Secretary to Nizam's Government 1915, Minister in Waiting on Nizam since 1915 Publications Notes on Islam articles in Periodicals Address Amin Mansil, Saidabad Hyderabad, Deccan

AHMED, KAMBERUD DIN, M. L. A. Bar at Law and Advocate, Calcutta High Court and Landholder b. 1886 Educ at the Malda Govt. High English School and at Magdalene College, Cambridge Called to the Bar in 1910; Founder of Bengal Jotedars and Raydya Association and its Hon Secretary takes great interest in agriculture was elected Presdt, Bengal Agricultural Confee in 1917, Director, Darjeeling Himalayan Tea Co., Ltd., Calcutta, Organizer, Founder and President, Indian Seamen's Union, Calcutta, elected member, Bengal Council in 1920 elected member, Legislative Assembly, 1921 re-elected again in 1924 for the Rajshahi Division Member Central National Mahomedan Assocn Calcutta; Member Governing Body of Indian Nationalistic Society Calcutta, Member, Democratic Party in Indian Legislature 1921-24 Vice President Anjuman-e-Wotani Bengala Publications Handbook of Equity Roman Law, etc Address 7, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta Bishwanathpur, Kansant P O Malda (Bengal)

AHMED, KHAN BAHADUR KAZI ARIZUDDIN, O. B. E., I. S. O. Chief Minister, Datta State b 7 April 1861 Educ at Gonda High School Served in the P. C. S. U. P. for 34 years during which time acted as Magte and Collr Bulandshahr and Asstt Director of Agriculture and Commerce U. P., was on deputation with His Majesty the late Amir of Kabul during his Indian tour, services lent to Bharatpur State in 1910 for employment as Rev Member of Council of Regency, transferred to Dholpur 1913 and retired from Govt Service in 1920 but continued to serve His Highness the Maharaja of Dholpur as Judicial Minister, appointed Chief Minister Datta in 1922 Publications Author of about 40 books in English and Urdu including life of H. M. King George V and H. B. H. the Prince of Wales, Commentaries on Criminal Procedure Code, and U. P. Land Revenue Act, translated into Urdu at the request of Government of India proceedings of the War Confee 1919 and History of Coronation Durbar, 1911 Address Datta

AKSHAN, DAVID WANN, C. I. E. (1912), Consulting Engineer to the Cawnpore Improvement Trust b 8 December 1865 Educ

Cooper's hill m. Marion, Dransfield Shroff, joined P. W. D., 1885 Retd. 1918. Publications Roorkee treatise on water supply Address The Shrubbery, Simla, and Civil Lines, Cawnpore

AINSOUGH, THOMAS MARLAND, O. B. E. (1918), M. Com., F. R. G. S. His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon b 1886 m Mabel, d of W Lincolne of Ely, Cambs Educ Manchester Gr School; Switzerland and Manchester University in business in China, 1907-13 Spl Commissioner to the Board of Trade in China, 1914, Sec Board of Trade Textile Committee, 1916 Sec, Empire Cotton Growing Committee, 1917, Expert Assesst to Persian Tariff Revision Commission, 1920 Publications "Notes from a Frontier" Address 11, Clive Street, Calcutta

AIYANGAR, CHELURU DURASWAMI, B. A., B. L. High Court Vakill Chittoor and Member, Legislative Assembly b 1878 Educ Madras Christian College and Law Colleges Schoolmaster for two years then Vakill from July 1899, occupied offices of President, District Congress Committee, Dist. Conference, etc. President Taluk Board and Chairman, Municipal Council Chittoor for some years Publications Estates Land Act in Telugu Sri Venkatesa or the First Arch, Gandhi Unvelled Address Chittoor

AIYAR, CHETPAT P. RAMASWAMI, B. A., B. L., C. I. E. (1923), Law Member, Madras Executive Council b 12 Nov., 1879 m Sitalakshmi, d of C V Sundaram Shastri and sister of Justice Kumaraswami Sastri Educ Wesley College Presidency College and Law College Madras English and Sanskrit University Prizeman, Enrolled as Vakill, 1903 and as Advocate 1928 For many years member of the Madras Corporation and Standing Committee Fellow and Syndic of Madras University, Trustee of various educational institutions Secretary to Congress 1917-18, connected with the National Congress until 1918 Gave evidence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on Reforms 1919, also before Weston and Southborough Committees Member of Committee to draft Regulations for Madras under the Reform Act Represented Madras Presidency at War Conference, Delhi Returned to Legislative Council by University of Madras, 1918, and by City of Madras, 1920 Advocate-General, 1920-1923 Member, Executive Council, 1923 Publications various pamphlets and articles on Financial and Literary topics Address The Grove, Cathedral Madras and DeLisle, Ootacamund

ALI, KHAN BAHADUR MIR ABAD, Merchant, Jagirdar and Member, Legis Assembly b August 1879 m to Leakat Anisa Begum, d of Nawab Ali Yaver Jung, Bahadur of Hyderabad (Deccan) Educ Nizam Coll, Hyderabad Hon Magte, Madras, 1912 Member, Imperial Legis Council 1913-20, President Elect, Dist Political Confee of Cuddapah, 1916, Presdt Elect, Dist Political Confee, Malabar, 1918, Presdt Provincial Educational Confee, Poona, 1919, Presdt, Madras Presidency Muslim League, 1917-20, Presdt, elect of All India Union Confee, Delhi, 1917;

President, Unani Ayurvedic Confce, Hydrabad, 1922. *Publications* "Maasharat," Urdu translation of the *Use of Life* by Lord Arbuthnot. *Address* Cosmopolitan Club Mount Road, Madras

ALI, MOHAMMED b December 1878 *Educ* Rampur State School, Bareilly High School M A O Coll, Aligarh and Lincoln Coll Oxford Chief Educational Officer, Rampur (State), (1902-08), H H the Gaekwar's Civil Service (1904-1910), Editor and Proprietor of the *Comrade*, weekly English newspaper (Calcutta 1911-12, Delhi 1912-1914) and of the *Hamdard Urdu* daily newspaper (Delhi 1918-1919) Interned under the Defence of India Act at Mehrauli, Lamsdowne, and Chhindwara (1915-19), Confined in Betul (C P) Jail (June to December 1919) under Regulation III of 1818, Sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment, Nov 1921. Head of the Indian Khilafat Delegation to Europe (Feb to Oct 1920), Founded the All-India Muslim League in 1906, Khuddam-i-Kaaba Society in 1918 and the National Muslim University Aligarh, 1920. *Publications* "Thoughts on the Present Discontent" (1908) *Address* Sultan Mansion, Dongri Bombay

ALI MAHOMED RAHIMTULLA MECKLAI merchant, b 15 Dec 1892 First All India President of the Recreation Club Institute Hon Secretary of the General Department of H H the Aga Khan Hon Major of H H the Aga Khan's volunteers *Address* West View Chowpatty Bombay

ALI, SHAUKAT *Educ* M A O Coll, Aligarh (Capt Cricket XI) In Govt Opium Dept for 15 years Sec and Organiser, Aligarh Old Boys' Assoc Trustee M A O Coll Organised collection of funds for Aligarh University Interned during the war Prominent leader of the Khilafat movement, 1919-20 and of Non-co operation movement Sec, Central Khilafat Committee Founder and Secretary of Khuddam-i-Kaaba Society, sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment Nov 1921 *Address* Sultan Mansion Dongri Bombay

ALLEN, BASIL COLESTON B A (Oxon) I C S C S I (1922) Commissioner, Assam b 12 July 1870 m Mabel, J of Sir William Erskine Ward K C S I *Educ* Haileybury Coll, and CCC Oxford Asst Commr, Assam, 1898, Census Superintendent 1900, Collr of Dacca 1905-1907 Secy to B B and Assam Govt 1909 Chief Secy, Assam 1914 Commissioner 1920 *Publications* Report on the Census of Assam, 1901, Assam District Gazetteers *Address* Ganhati Assam

ALWAR, COLONEL H H RAJ RAJESHWAR SRI BHAWI MAHARAJ SRI JYI SINGHJI VERMAN DRA DRY SHRI MAHARAJ of G C S I (1924) G C I E, (1919) K C I E (1911) K C S I (1909), Colonel in the British Army 1919, General in-Chief of the Alwar State Forces, maintains State Forces which served in operations for relief of Feking 1900 and in Great War, represented India at the Imperial Conference, 1923 b 1882, Son of H H Shri Bewal Maharaj Shri Mangal Singhji Dev, G.C.S.I. *Address* The Palace, Alwar, Rajasthan

ANDERSON, SIR GEORGE, KT (1924), C.I.E (1920), M A (Oxon) Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, since 1920 b 15 May 1876, m to Gladys Alice Morony *Educ* Winchester College University College Oxford Transvaal Educational Department, 1903-1910; Indian Educational Service, Professor of History Elphinstone College, Bombay, Asstt Secretary, Department of Education, Government of India, Secretary, Calcutta University Commission, 1918-19 *Publications* The Expansion of British India, British Administration in India, Short History of the British Empire *Address* Grant Lodge, Simla

ANDREWS, CHARLES FRANK Professor in the International University of Rabindranath Tagore at Santiniketan Bengal b 12 February 1871 *Educ* King Edward's School, Birmingham and Pembroke College, Cambridge Fellow and Lecturer of Pembroke College, Cambridge, 1899 Professor in St Stephen's College Delhi, and member of Cambridge University Brotherhood, Fellow and some time member of Syndicate, Punjab University from 1904 to 1913 since that date at Santiniketan, Bengal *Publications* The Renaissance in India, "Christ and Labour," "The Indian Problem," "Indians in South Africa," "To the Students," "The Drink and Drug Evil" *Address* Santiniketan, Bolpur, Bengal

ANKLIKER, JT COL AMIR UL-UMRA SARDAR SIR APPAJIRAO SAMBASTOLA DESHMUKH, SAMA HARDOO, SAN SHRI, K B E (1919), C.I.E (1918), Member of the Gwalior Government in Department of Revenue and Agriculture since 1918 b 1874 *Educ* Belgium Pte Secretary to the Maharajah of Gwalior 1897 m the youngest daughter of the late Maharajah Jijajirao Sahib Solandia of Gwalior *Address* Gwalior

ANNESLEY, FRANCIS CHARLES, Merchant, Partner Killick Nixon & Co, Bombay b 3 March 1879 *Educ* at Birkenhead School, Cheshire Joined firm of Killick Nixon of Bombay in 1906 after being engaged in various firms in Liverpool and London from 1895 to 1902 when came out to Bombay to the firm of James Mackintosh & Co *Address* Pedder Road Cumballa Hill, Bombay

ARBOT, PRINCE OF, SIR GHULAM MAHOMED ALI KHAN BARADUR, G.C.I.E (1887), K C I E (1909) b 22 Feb 1882 s father, 1903 Premier Mahomedan nobleman of Southern India, being descended from the former Musulman dynasty of the Nawabs of the Karnatic *Educ* Newington Court of Wards Institution, Madras Member of Madras Legislative Council, 1904-6, Member of the Imperial Legislative Council (Mahomedan Electorate) of the Madras Presidency, 1910-13, Member of the Madras Legislative Council by nomination, 1916, President, All India Muslim Association, Lahore, President, South India Islamiah League, Madras *Address* Amir Mahal, Madras.

ASH, HERBERT DUDLEY, A M J E.S., Director, Turner House & Co Ltd b 1878, m. Madeline Emma Ash *Educ* Redbury College. Attended 292d Lancers 1915-17, Staff Captain

Indian Cav Brigade, 1917-19 Twice mentioned in despatches. Address: C/o Turner Moore and Co, Ltd, Bombay

ASTON, ARTHUR HENRY BOUTCHER, M.A. (Oxon), Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind & 4 July 1874 m to Lilian, d of the Late Col A R Savile Educ Harrow School Balliol College, Oxford, Joined Lincoln's Inn, called to the Bar, read in Chambers with H Tindal Atkinson, Esq, and G R Lowndes, Esq, practised as a Barrister, Bombay High Court, 1902, Public Prosecutor in Sind, 1906, Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay 1906, Acting Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind, 1920-21 Publications Joint Editor Stirling's Indian Criminal Law (8th Edition), Editor (9th Edition) Address Judicial Commissioner's Bungalow, Karachi

AYYAR, TIRUCHANDARAN VAIDYANATHA SUBBAGAM, B.A., B.L. Member, Legislative Assembly 6 September 1880 Educ at Trichinopoly and Madras Vakil, High Court, Law Professor, Mem of Senate for 20 years, Judge, High Court (retired 1920) President of numerous institutions in Madras connected with Social Service, represented Madras Univ on the local Legislative Council for 5 years before 1918 Address Govardhan, Kilpank, Madras.

BABER, SHUM SHER JANG BAHADOOR BABA, General of the Nepalese Army, G.B.E. (Hon Mili) or 1919, K.C.S.I. (Hon) or 1919, K.C.I.E. (Hon) or 1916, & 27 January 1888, 2nd s of Maharaja Sir Chandra of Nepal, m 1908, Deva Vakti Lakshmi Devi, 2 s & 2 d Director-General, Police Forces, Katmandu, since 1903, was present at the Delhi Coronation Durbar, 1903, visited Europe, 1908, was in charge of shooting arrangements during King George's shoot in Nepal Terai, 1911, attached to the Army Headquarters, India (March 1915 to February 1919) as Inspector-General of Nepalese Contingents in India during the Great War (Despatches, specially, thanks of Commanders in Chief in India, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., for Meritorious Service, received the 1st class Order of the Star of Nepal with the title of Supraditpa Manyabara, 1918, the thanks of the Nepalese Government and a Sword of Honour), Warrian Field Force, 1917 (Despatches, special mention by Commander in Chief in India and Governor General in Council the Nepalese Military Decoration for bravery the British War and Victory Medal) at Army Head quarters India, as Inspector General of Nepalese Contingent during Afghan War 1919; (Despatches G.B.E., India General Service Medal with Clasp) In memory of his son Bala Shum Shere supplied (1921) Pokhara, a hill-station in Nepal, with pipe drinking water at a cost of over Rs 1,00,000 Address Bahar Mahaj Katmandu, Nepal, via India

BAGCHI, SATYCHANDRA, B.A., LL.D., Bar-at-Law, Principal, University Law College, Calcutta, & Jan 1892, Educ. Santipur Hindustani School, Calcutta, St. John's College, Cambridge, B.A., Calcutta University, 1901, B.A., LL.B., Cambridge and Dublin; LL.D., Trinity College, Dublin, 1907; Fellow, Calcutta University, 1908;

Tagore Professor of Law, 1915 called to Bar, Gray's Inn, 1907 Address Principal's Quarters, Darbhanga Buildings, University Law College, Calcutta.

BAIG, SIR ABHAS AIA, K.C.I.E., (1917) C.S.I., B.A., LL.D., m 1st Aryana, d of Shaikh Mira of Wai (died), 2nd 1901, AIMA, d. of Shaikh Ali Abdulla Esq Wilson College, Joined Statutory C S 1882 as Dy Educational Inspector, Hindustani Schools, Bombay Presidency, Dewan, Janjira State, March 1888 to March 1890, admitted to the Statutory Civil Service, 1890- Asst Coll and Magr., 1890-92 on special duty in the Junagadh State, January to April 1893, off as 4th Presidency Magr., April 1893, appointed Oriental Translator to Government, June 1893 Reporter on the Native Press, Registrar of Indian Publications, Secretary, Civil and Mil Examination Boards, 1894-1906, appointed Dewan of Junagadh State, July 1906 to 1910; Talukdari Settlement Officer, July 1906, Member of Council of State for India, July 1910-17, LL.D. Glasgow, 1912, Commissioner of Income-tax, 1915-17, Represented Bombay Univ at the Congress of Universities of Empire 1912 on Special Political duty in Egypt in connection with the war, 1914-15, Vice President, Council of India, 1916-17 Address The Paragon, Bristol England

BAJPAL, PANDIT SANKATA PRASADA, Rai Bahadur B.A., Zemindar and Banker, & Nov 18, 1886 m Shrimati Sumitra Devi Educ Canning College, Lucknow, Ewing Christian College, Allahabad and University School of Law, Allahabad Elected Member, Benares Hindu University in 1917, Elected Hon Secy, Kheri Dist Board, 1918, Appointed Hon Magistrate, 1918 Elected Chairman, Lakhimpur Municipality, 1919, and Member of the Imperial Legislative Assembly 1920 Address Lakhimpore, Kheri (Oudh)

BAKER, CHARLES MAURICE, B.A. (Oxon), I.C.S. Member, Council of State (1920), & 3 March 1872 m Mabel d of Maj Genl Edmeades of Newstead Court, Kent Educ Tonbridge School Trinity Coll, Oxford Address The Secretariat, Bombay

BALRAMPUR, MAHARAJA PATESHWARI PRASAD SINGH SAHER minor under guardianship of the Court of Wards, United Provinces Address Balrampur

BANATVALA, COL. SIR HORAMSVEN EDULJEH, C.S.I., 1917, I.M.S. (ret'd) & 20 Oct 1859 First Commission, 1884, military duty until 1891 served Burma 1886-89, Medal with 2 clasps Lushai Expedition, 1891-92 Address Mount Villas, Bandra, Bombay

BANERJEE, SIR SURENDRANATH, K.T. (1921) & 10 November 1848, m. 1867 Educ. Davon College, Calcutta University College, London Entered I.C.S., 1872, left the service 1874, Professor of English Literature, Metropolitan Institution of Calcutta, 1875; founded Indian Association, 1876, founded Ripon College, Calcutta, 1882, was twice President of the Indian National Congress; Presdt. of the first Moderate Conference held in Bombay, 1918; for eight successive years a Member of the Bengal Legislative Council;

again elected 1913, Member of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1913. For many years Editor of the "Bengalee" Minister (for Local Self-Government) in the Govt of Bengal, 1921-23. Address The Secretariat, Calcutta

BANNERJEE, MAHENDRANATH, C.I.E. (1921), M.A. (Cal), M.R.C.S. (England), L.S.A. (London), Prince Carmichael Medical Coll., Calcutta, since 1916, & Sept 1886, Educ. Presy Coll., St. Xavier's Coll. and Medical Coll., Calcutta Edinburgh Univ., and King's Coll. London Resident Medical Officer, B. Free Hospital, London, 1883-86, Lecturer of Medicine, Calcutta Med. Sch., 1890-1915. Additional member, Imp. Leg. Council 1916, Senior Physician, Albert Victor Hospital, 1900-19 Consulting Physician since 1919. Member of the State Med. Faculty of Bengal, Fellow and Member of Senate of Calcutta Univ. Member of Sanitary Conference Simla, 1919, President Ayurvedic Committee lately appointed by Government of Bengal. Address 32, Theatre Road Calcutta

BANNERJI, ALBION RAJKUMAR, I.C.S., C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E. 1912, Dewan of Mysore (1922) & Bristol 10 Oct 1871. m. 1898, d. of Sir Krishna Gupta. Educ. Calcutta University, Balliol College, Oxford, M.A., 1892. Entered I.C.S., 1895, served as district officer in the Madras Presidency. Diwan to H. H. the Maharaja of Cochin 1907-14, reverted to British service 1915, Collector and District Magistrate Cuddapah services placed at the disposal of Government of India, Foreign Department, for employment as Member of the Executive Council of H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore, March 1916. Officiated as Dewan of Mysore 1919. Retired from the I.C.S. and appointed Dewan. May 1922 Awarded I Class title Rajamanudhrana of Ganda bherunda Order, with Khillats by H. H. The Maharaja in open Durbar, Oct 1923. Address "Ballabrooke" High Ground Bangalore

APTISTA, JOSEPH, BAR AT LAW, b. 17 March, 1864. Educ. St. Mary's School, Bombay, Coll. of Science, Poona Cambridge University. L.C.B. (Bom), B.A. and LL.B. (Gaut.) has taken a prominent part in the Indian labour movement. Delegate to the Labour Conference Geneva 1924. Publications Lectures on Roman Law Government Law School, Bombay. Address Mathar peadry, Bombay

ARLA, CAPTAIN (HON.) HIS HIGHNESS MA HARWAL SHER SIKH RANGITSINGH, RAJA OF, K.O.B.I. (1922) b. 10 July 1886, two s. one d. Educ. Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Imperial Cadet Corps Dehra Dun, and in England. Served in European War, 1914-15 and in the Afghan War 1919. Boy Scouts Commissioner for Northern Division, Bombay Presidency. Address Devgad Baria via Piprod (B.B. & C.I. Ry.), Bombay

ARNARDO, LT.-COL. FREDERICK ADOLPHUS FENNING, M.A., B.Sc., M.B., 1899, F.R.C.S., M.R.C.P. (Edin.), O.B.E. (1919). C.I.E. Civil Surgeon, Simla, b. June 6, 1874, m. to Violet Kathleen Ann, dau. daughter of the late Henry Trevitt-Kerr, seventh son of the late Rev. Lord Henry Frances Trevitt-Kerr. Educ. Edinburgh University served with the Field

and Fort Light Horse Imperial Yeomanry in South Africa, 1899-1903, entered Indian Medical Service, 1902. Somaliland Campaigns, 1903-04, Asst. Director of Medical Services, Embarkation Staff, Bombay, during the Great War. Publications: Many contributions to medical publications, and the following monographs—Surgical Shock, Intestinal Stasis, The causation of the Onset of Labour, etc. Address Simla

BARNE, REV. GEORGE DUNSFORD, M.A. (Oxon) C.I.E. (1923), O.B.E. (1919), V.D. (1924), Principal Lawrence Royal Military School, Banawar and Chaplain, Bengal Ecclesiastical Establishment b. May 6, 1879. m. Dorothy Kate Akerman. Educ. Clifton College and Oriel Coll., Oxford. Asst. Master Summerfields Oxford, 1902-06, Curate of Christ Church Simla, 1906-10, Chaplain of Sikot 1910, Chaplain of Hyderabad Sind 1911 and Asst. Chaplain of Karachi 1911-12. Address Banawar, Simla Hills

BARNES, HERBERT CHARLES, C.I.E. (1919) Indian (Civil Service) b. 30 May 1870. Educ. Westminster School Christ Church, Oxford, M.A. Address Gauhati, Assam

BARODA, H.H. MAHARAJA GANAKAR SIB SAIYAJI RAO III, G.O.B.I. (1881), G.O.B.I.E. (1919), b. 10 March, 1868, m. 1st 1881, Chinnabai Maharani 2nd, 1888, Chinnabai Maharani II, C.I., one s. one d. Educ. Maharaja's School, Baroda. Succeeded, 1878. Invested with powers, 1881, Publications "Famine Notes" and "From Caesar to Barron" Address Baroda

BARRON, CLAUD ALEXANDER, C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E. (1911) C.V.O. (1922) F.R.G.S. financial Commissioner, Punjab since 1924, b. 22 December 1871 s. of Col W. Barron, B.S.C. m. 1912 Ida Mary, s. d. of Major General Sir R. H. Ewart K.C.M.G., C.B., one s. Educ. Grammar School and University Aberdeen. Clare College Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 1890. Chief Secretary, Punjab Government 1912-16, Chief Commissioner, Delhi 1918-24. Address—Lahore

BARBOW, Lieut-General Sir George de Symonds, K.C.B., cr 1919, K.O.M.G., cr 1918, O.B., 1916, A.G. in India (1922) b. 25 October 1864, m. 1902, Sybil, d. of late Colonel G. Way, O.B. Entered Army, Connaught Rangers, 1884, Indian Staff Corps, 1886. D.A.Q.M.G., India, 1903, D.A.A.G. Staff College, 1908, General Staff Officer, 1914, served Wairaratan, 1904-8, China, 1900 (medal with clasp), European War, 1914-18 (despatches O.B., promoted Maj-General), including capture of Jerusalem (K.O.M.G., K.C.B.), Commander Legion of Honour, 1917 Order of the Nile, 1918 Afghan War, 1919 G.O.C. Peshawar Dist until 1923. Address Army Headquarters, Simla

BARTHE, RT. REV. JEAN MARIE, Bishop of Panaji since 1914, d. Leignan, Tarbes, 1849, Educ. St. P. Seminary Bishop of Trichinopoly, 1890-1914. Address: Shem-baganur, Madras Presidency

BARUA, RAI BANADUT DEBCHANDRA, B.A., B.L., M.I.A., Tea Planter b. 1864. Educ. Ceylon College, Presidency College and the General

Assembly's Institution, Calcutta joined the Bar in 1888 and taking to tea plantation and having acquired 3 tea gardens at Jorhat retired from the Bar in 1917. Secretary, Jorhat Sarva Janik Sabha for nearly 17 years since 1890. Elected member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921. Hon. Magistrate, Jorhat Bench. Address Jorhat, Assam.

BEACHCROFT, HON. MR. JUSTICE CHARLES PORTER, Pulne Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1915, b 13 March 1871. 4th son of late Francis Porter Beachcroft, Bengal Civil Service, m Elizabeth d of late A. N. Ryca. Educ. Rugby, Clare College, Cambridge. Passed Indian Civil Service, 1890. Assistant Magistrate and Collector, Bengal, 1892. Officiating District and Sessions Judge, 1900. District and Sessions Judge, 1906. Officiating Judge, High Court, Calcutta 1912. Address 4, Little Russell Street Calcutta.

BEDI RAJA SIR BABA GURBUX SINGH, K.T., C.I.E. (1920), C.I.E. 1911, Hon. Extra Asst. Commissioner in the Punjab b 1861, A Fellow of the Punjab and Hindu Universities, was a delegate to the Indo-African Peace Conference in 1919. Address Kallar, Punjab.

BELL, ROBERT DUNCAN C.I.E. (1919), on special duty in the P.W.D. b 8 May 1878. Educ. Heriot's School, Edinburgh and Edinburgh University, m Jessie d of D. Spence, Esq. Appointed I.C.S. Bombay 1902. Secretary, Indian Industrial Commission 1916-17. Controller, Industrial Intelligence 1917-18. Controller, Oils and Paints 1918-19. Director of Industries Bombay, 1919-24. Address c/o Grindlay & Co. Bombay.

BENARES, H. H. SIR PRABHU NARAYAN SINGH MAHARAJA RAHADUR OF LT. COL. G.C.I.E. (1898), G.C.B.I. (1921), b 26 November 1855. S. uncle 1889. Address Ramnagar, Benares State.

BENJAMIN, VEN. T. Kuruville, B.A. Arch. deacon of Kottayam since July 1922. Formerly Incumbent of Pro Cathedral Kottayam 1895-1922, Acting Principal, O.N.I., Kottayam, 1912-13. Surrogate 1922, Bishop's Commissary 1923. Publications (in Malayalam) Notes on the Epistles to the Hebrews. Notes on the Epistles to the Thessalonians. Devotional Study of the Bible. Editor of Treasury of Knowledge Family Friend. Address Kottayam.

BENZIGER, RT. REV. ALOYSIUS MARY, O.C.D. Bishop of Quilon since 1905, b Einsiedeln Switzerland, 1864. Educ. Frankfurt, Brussels, Downside. Came to India, 1890. Bishop of Tahr, 1900. Address Bishop's House, Quilon, Travancore.

BEEBHOUD EDWARD HENRY, B.A. (Oxon.) 1898. Member Council of State and Commissioner of Excise and Inspector General of Registration, Bihar and Orissa b 13 Sept 1876. m Phyllis Hamilton Cox. Educ. at Uppingham and New College Oxford. Asst. Magte. Joint Magte. and Magte. and Collector in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa since 1900. Address Patna.

BESANT, ANNIE, President, Theosophical Society and of National Home Rule League, author and lecturer on religious, philosophical, political, and scientific subjects, General Secretary, Indian National Convention, b 1 October 1847 d of William Page Wood and Emily, d of James Morris m 1867, Rev. Frank Besant (d 1917) Vicar of Stoney, Lincolnshire. Legally separated from him, 1873. One's one d Educ. privately in England, Germany, France, joined the National Secular Society, 1874. worked in the Free Thought and Radical Movements led by Charles Bradlaugh, M.P., was co-editor with him of the National Reformer, Member of the Fabian Society. Member of the London School Board 1887-90. Joined the Theosophical Society in 1888, became a pupil of Mme. Blavatsky, elected its President in 1907. 1914 and 1921. Founded 1898 the Central Hindu College, Benares, 1904, the Central Hindu Girls' School Benares. Is on Court Council and Senate of Benares Hindu Univ. and on Council and Senate of the National University, given Hon. D.L., Benares Hindu University, 1921. In recognition of unique services. Elected President of the Indian National Congress, 1917. 18. Editor of *The Theosophist*, monthly, *The Adyar Bulletin*, *The Young Citizen*, monthly and editor of *Nru India* daily and weekly. Address Adyar Madras.

BHABHA, HOMERAJI JEHANGIR, M.A., J.P. and Hon. Prof. Magte, Director of Tata Hydro Electric Power Supply Co., Member of Council of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. Member of Committee of David Sassoon Reformatory Institution, Fellow of the Bombay, Madras and Mysore Universities b 27 June 1862. Educ. Elphinstone College and in England. Asst. Professor, Mathematics College 1874-76, Vice-Principal and Professor of Logic and Ethics, Central College Bangalore 1878. Principal, Maharaja's College Mysore, 1884. Education Secretary to Government Mysore, 1890. Inspector General, Education, Mysore, 1896-1909. Munir ul Talim (Mysore) 1909. Publications: Special Report on Manual Training in Schools of General Education. Report on the education of Parsi boys 1920, and a visit to Australian Universities 1923. Address 81 Pedder Road Bombay.

BHAGWATI PRASAD SINGH, MAHARAJA SIR, OF BALARAMPUR, K.C.I.E., or 1906, b 1896. Address Gonda, Oudh, India.

BHANDARI, SIR GOPAL DAS, K.T., RAJ RAHADUR (1907), Kaiser Hind Gold Medal (1915), M.B.E. (1919), C.I.E. (1921), M.L.C. (1924) Advocate, High Court b June 1859. Educ. Government College Lahore. Elected Member, Amritsar Municipal Committee 1889-1902. Non-instant member, 1902, to the present date. Chairman, Finance Committee for 80 years. First non-official President Municipal Com. elected March 1921. elected second time June 1922. Member Sanitary Board, Punjab, 11 years. Member, All India Sanitary Conferences, Punjab, Madras, and Lucknow. Special Commr twice, Lahore Conspiracy cases, 1916-17. Member, Imperial Police Selection Board, October 1922. President, Hindu Sabha,

Amritsar; His Majesty's Guest Delhi Durbar 1911; Member, Executive Committee, D.A.V. College, Lahore, Chairman Board of Directors Punjab National Bank, Member and Punjab representative, Imperial Malaria Conference, September 1908 President Managing Council, Hindu College, Amritsar Publications Malaria, booklet, 1908, Town planning, Milk Sanitary Conditions in boys' and girls' schools in India, etc Address President, Municipal Committee, Amritsar

HANDARKAR, SIR RAMKRISHNA GOPAL, K.C.I.E (1911), C.I.E (1899), M.A., Hon. LL.D., Bombay and Edinburgh, Hon. Ph.D., Calcutta, Professor of Oriental Languages, Deccan College, Poona, 1882-98, b. 1837, m. two s one d Educ. Ratnagiri Government English School, Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1847-58 Headmaster of High Schools, 1864-68, Professor of Sanskrit, Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1869-1881, Fellow, and for two years Vice-Chancellor of Bombay University, Fellow of Calcutta University Nominated to membership of Viceroy's Legislative Council in connection with Lord Curzon's Educational Reforms, 1903, Member of Bombay Legislative Council, 1904-08, a leader of Hindu social and religious reform movements, Dakshina Fellow, 1889-64. Publications First and Second Books of Sanskrit, Early History of the Deccan Sanskrit and the Derived Languages, article on Vaishnavism, Saivism and minor religious systems, in the Encyclopaedia of Indo-Aryan Research, edited Bhavabuti's Malati Madhava and has written six reports on Sanskrit MSS., philological and antiquarian articles and essays in the transactions of learned societies Address: Poona

HARATPUR, MAHARAJA OF, Lt Col H H SRI MAHARAJA BHIRJENDRA SAWAI KISHEN SINGH BAHADUR, BAHADUR JUNG, b. 4 October 1899 s of Maharaja Ram Singh, m. als of H H the Raja of Faridkot Educ. Mayo College, Ajmer and Wellington Address: Bharatpur, Rajputana

HARGAVA, RAI BAHADUR PANDIT JAWAHAR LAL, B.A., LL.B., Vakil, High Court, Lahore b. 1st Oct. 1870 m d of L. Madan Lal Bhargava of Rewari Educ. Strna M.B. School, Rewari M.B. School, Lahore Mission Coll., Lahore Government Coll. and Law School Vice-President Hissar Municipal Committee, got Durbar Medal and War Loan Sanad, noted as Secretary India War Relief Fund, The Aeroplane Fleet Fund King Edward Memorial Fund, was elected member, Punjab Legislative Council 1916-20, and Legislative Assembly 1921-23 Life member, St John Ambulance Association and Chairman, District Centre at Hissar Address: Hissar (Punjab)

JAYNAGAR, H H MAHARAJA KRISHNA KUMAR SINGH, MAHARAJA OF, b. 10th May 1918, s father Lt-Col. H H Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji Takhtsinhji, K.C.B., July 1919 Educ., Rajkumar College, Rajkot Address: Bhavnagar, Kathiawar

JOPAL, H H NAWAB SULTAN JEWAN BEGUM, BEGUM OF, C.I., cr 1911, G.C.S.I., cr 1910,

G.O.I.E., cr 1904, G.B.E., cr 1918, b. 9 July 1858, s mother, H H Nawab Shah Jehan Begum, G.C.S.I., C.I., 1901, m. 1874, Ahmed Ali Khan, two s Eight in lineal descent from the famous Dost Mahomed Khan, founder of the dynasty Address: Bhopal, Central India

BIGGS, ALBERT ASHLEY, Member of Institution of Civil Engineers (Member of Council and Ag. Chairman of the Advisory Committee in India), Member of Institution of Engineers, India (Member of Council) Ag. Agent, Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway and Chairman, Madras Port Trust b. 1872 m. Edith Helen Polak Educ. Blundells, Tiverton, Devon, University College, Bristol, Technical Training, Stothert and Pitt, Bath Assistant to Chief Engineer, London and India Docks Joint Committee, Asst. Engineer, S. M. Railway, Executive Engineer, Madras Famine Feeder Lines Resident Engineer and H. B. M. Consul, Mormugao, Portuguese India, Ch. Engineer, M & S M. Railway Address: "Blenheim" Nungamlaikun, Madras

BIKANER, MAHARAJA OF, MAJOR-GENERAL H H MAHARAJA DEWRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR NARENDRA SHIVOMANI SRI SRI GAUGA SINGHJI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., cr 1911, G.O.I.E., cr 1907, K.C.S.I., cr 1904, K.C.I.E., cr 1901, G.C.V.O. cr 1919 G.B.E. (Military Division), 1921, K.C.B., cr 1918, A.D.C. Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, cr 1918, Hon. LL.D., Cambridge and Edinburgh, Donat. of the Order of St John of Jerusalem in England, son of Maharaj Sri Lal Singhji Bahadur and adopted son of his own elder brother His late Highness Maharajah Sri Dungar Singhji Bahadur; born 3 October 1880, educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, m. 1897, is one of the Ruling Princes of India (succeeded 31st August 1887) and is entitled to a salute of 19 guns Two sons, one daughter one grandson, one grand daughter Invested with full ruling powers, 1898, granted Hon. Commission of Major in the British Army, 1900, and attached to 2nd Bengal Lancers, promoted Lt Col, 1909, Col, 1910 Major-General, 1917, served with British Army in China in command of Bikaner Camel Corps, 1901, (medal, despatches, K.C.I.E.), served European War, 1914-15 in France and in Egypt (despatches France and Egypt, K.C.B.) Major-General, 1914 Bronze Star Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile G.B.E. (Military Division) Awarded gold medal (1st Class) of Kaiser-i-Hind for public service in India during Great Famine of 1899-1900, attended the Coronation of King Edward VII, 1902, and of King George V, 1911, Hon. A.D.C. to H. B. H. the Prince of Wales, 1902, A.D.C. to H. I. M. the King Emperor since 1910 Was selected as one of the three Representatives of India at the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, 1917 Received the Freedom of the Cities of London, Edinburgh, Manchester and Bristol Was selected again as one of the two Representatives of India at the Imperial War Cabinet and the Peace Conference, 1919 Elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, 1921, and re-elected in 1923 and continued as such in 1923 Represent-

of the Ruling Princes of India for the third time at the Assembly of the League of Nations, 1924. Is a Patron of the Benares Hindu University and Sri Bharat Dharma Mahamandal, Benares, a Vice-President of the East India Association, London, the Royal Colonial Institute, London, the Indian Gymkhana Club, London, the Indian Army Temperance Association, Simla, a member of the General Council of the Mayo College, Ajmer, and of the Managing Committee, Mayo College, General Council, Daly Coll. Indore, the first Member of the Indian Red Cross Society, the Benares Hindu University Court is a Freemason, Past Master of Lodge 'Rajputana, Abu, a past Dy Dist Grand Master of the Dist. Grand Lodge Bombay, Founder and Scribe E of the Royal Arch Chapter "Sir Ganga Singh," Abu, holds the rank of the Past District Grand Scribe Nehemiah in the Dist. Grand Chapter of Bombay, Mem of Royal Arch Chapter, Ajmer and the Phulkian Lodge, Patiala *Her Apparent* Captain Maharaj Kumar Sri Sadul Singhji Bahadur, O.V.O., b 7 September 1902, second son Maharaj Sri Bijay Singhji Bahadur, b 29 March 1909 Grandson Bhanwarji Sri Karni Singhji Bahadur, b 31 April 1924 Address Bikaner, Rajputana

BILGRAMI, SYED HOSAIN, NAWAB, IMADUL MUJIB, BAHADUR, C.B.L., 1908, b Gya, 18 October 1842, s. of Syed Zainuddin Hossain Khan Bahadur of the Unconquered Civil Service, Bengal, m. 1st, 1864, wife died 1897 m. 2nd, Edith Boardman, I.S.A. (London), M.D., four s one d. Educ. Preedy College, Calcutta. Professor of Arabic, Canning College, Lucknow, 1866-78, Private Secretary to H. E. Sir Salar Jung till his death, Private Secretary to H. H. the Nizam Director of Public Instruction of H. H. the Nizam's Dominions, Member of the Legislative Council, Member of the Universities Commission, 1901-2, retired 1907, Member of Council of Secretary of State for India, 1907-09, Publications: Life of Sir Salar Jung, Lectures and addresses. (in collaboration) Historical and Descriptive Sketch of His Highness the Nizam's Dominions, 2 vols Address "Rooklands," Saifabad, Hyderabad Deccan.

BILIMORIA, ARDASHER JAMSHETJEE, B.A., J.P., b 18 September 1864 Educ. Chandrauway High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay Joined Messrs Tata, in 1884 Address Tata, Ltd., London.

BINNING, SIR ARTHUR WILLIAM, Kt. (1916); Merchant in Rangoon, A. 5 August 1861 s. of Robert Binning, Glasgow, unmarried, Educ. Glasgow Academy Address Rangoon, Burma.

BIRDWOOD, GENERAL SIR WILLIAM RIDDILL, G.C.B., 1838, 1st Bt. cr 1919, G.C.M.G. cr 1919, K.C.B., cr 1917, K.C.S.L., cr 1915, K.O.M.G., cr 1914, C.B., 1911 A.D.C. General, C.I.E., 1908, D.S.O., 1908, Acting Commander-in-Chief, India, 1924, General Officer Commanding in Chief, Northern Command, since November 1920, b 18 Sept. 1855; s. of late H. M. Birdwood, C.B.L., M.A., LL.D. (Oxonab), late Judge of High Court and Member of Council, Bombay,

I.C.S., m. 1894, Jeannette Hope Gordon, s.d. of Col. Sir B. P. Broadhead, C.B., 14th Bart., of Thornby Hall, Lincoln. Educ. Officer College, R.M.C. Sandhurst. Lieut., 4th Batt Royal Scots Fusiliers, 1883, 12th Lancers, 1885, 11th Bengal Lancers, 1886, Gen. 1917; Adjutant, Viceroy's Bodyguard, 1897; Brig. Major, S. Africa, 1899, D.A.G., S. Africa, 1904, Military Secretary to Com-in-Chief, S. Africa (Lord Kitchener), 1902, A.M.S. and Interpreter to Com-in-Chief, India, 1902, A.G. Headquarters, India, 1904, Military Secretary to Com-in-Chief, India, 1905, Brigade Commander, 1909, Quarter-Master General in India, 1912, Secy to Govt of India, Army Dept and Member of Governor General's Legislative Council, 1912-14, G.O.C. Australian Imperial Force, 1915-20, A.D.C. to the King, 1906-11, A.D.C. General to the King, 1917, served Hazara, 1891 (medal with clasp), Ismail, 1892, N.W. Frontier, India, 1897-98 (medal, two clasps), Tirah, 1897-98 (despatches, clasp), S. Africa, 1899-1902 (severely wounded), despatches 5 times, brevets of Major and Lieut.-Col., Queen's Medal, 6 clasps, King's medal, two clasps, Chief Staff Officer, Mohmand Expedition, 1908 (despatches, medal and clasp, D.S.O.), served in command of detached landing of Australian and New Zealand Army Corps above Gaba, Tepe, European War, 1914-18 (wounded, despatches, Commander-in-Chief, Mediterranean Expeditionary Force and Commander, Dardanelles Army, 1915-16, Commandant, Australian and New Zealand Army Corps and Australian Forces, France, 1918-18, C.O.M.G., Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, Croix de Guerre, Grand Officer of the Crown, Belgium, Croix de Guerre, France, 1918-19, Colonel, 12th Lancers, 1920; General, Commonwealth of Australia Military Forces, 1920, LL.D. Cambridge, 1919, LL.D. Melbourne (Victoria) and Sydney (N.S.W.), 1920, Fellow, Royal Colonial Institute, Hon. Captain Christopher Bromhead Birdwood, 11th P.W.O. Lancers Address Rawalpindi

BLACKETT, SIR BASIL PHILLOTT, K.C.B., cr 1921, C.B., 1915, Finance Member, Government of India, Nov 1922, b 1882, s. of late Rev William Russell Blackett, M.A., Vicar of Holy Trinity Church, Nottingham, 1885-91, m. 1920, Beatrice, d. of late Edward H. Bonner, New York Educ. Marlborough, University College, Oxford M.A., 1st Class Litt Hum., 1904, entered Treasury, 1904, Secretary to Indian Finance and Currency Commission, 1912-14, and to Capital Issues Committee, 1915, went on special mission to U.S.A. Government October 1914, in connection with exchange problems arising out of the war, Member of Anglo-French Financial Mission to U.S.A. which raised the Anglo-French Loan of 500,000,000 dollars, October 1915, Member of National War Savings Committee, 1916, Representative of British Treasury, in U.S.A., 1917-19, Controller of Finance Treasury, 1919-1922, Commander of the Order of the Crown of Italy, Officer of the Legion of Honour Address Delhi and Simla.

BLAIR, ANDREW JAMES FRASER, "Statesman" Editorial staff, Calcutta, Founded the Eastern Bazaar, Limited, Calcutta, 1912, late Editor and Managing Director, The Empire, Commerce, The Empire Gazette, (daily and weekly newspapers published in Calcutta), b Dingwall, Rose-shire, 30 September, 1872, v s. of late Andrew Blair, Rector, Dingwall Burgh School, and Mary Ann Campbell, d. of late Thomas Duff, Glasgow, m 1900, Constance, e d of Thomas Ibbotson, one s one d Educ. Glasgow High School. Engaged in journalism, since 1890 Address Bengal Club, Calcutta.

BLATTER, THE REV ETHELBERT, S.J., Ph.D (1923), Prof of Botany, St Xavier's College, Bombay b 15 Dec 1877 Educ in Switzerland, Austria, Holland, France England Joined the Society of Jesus in 1896. Professor of Botany, St Xavier's College Bombay since 1903. Principal of the same College from 1919-1924. Fellow and Syndic of the Bombay University since 1919 Publications Bibliography of Indian Botany, The Ferns of Bombay, Natural Orders in Ceylon, The Palms of British India and Ceylon, The Flora of Aden, The Flora of the Indian Desert, Flora Arabica, Flowering Season and Climate, Contributions to the Flora of Baluchistan Bionomic der Palmen der Alten Welt, numerous botanical papers in English and German Scientific Journals Address St Xavier's College, Bombay

BLENKINSOP, EDWARD ROBERT KATZ, C.I.E (1911), Settlement Commissioner Jaipur, 1923, b 15 May 1871, s of Col. Blenkinsop, m Florence, Edith, d of late Sir Stanley Ismay, K.O.S.I., three s Educ. St. Paul's School, Christ's College, Cambridge Entered I.C.S., 1890, Settlement Officer, 1897, Deputy Commissioner, 1902, Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1903, Commissioner of Excise, 1906, Chief Secretary to Chief Commissioner 1912-13 Commissioner, 1916 Address 14/15, Rajghatta.

BLOWERS, ARTHUR R. (Holloway, London, 1884), Commissioner Territorial Commander in the Salvation Army, Southern India Was a Field Officer in Great Britain, and in India has held Secretarial and Divisional appointments Has also been Chief Secretary in two Territories and Territorial Commander of three others His last appointment was that of Secretary for India and Ceylon. m Staff Captain Tomlinson, 1896 Address Broad way, George Town, Madras

BOILEAU, COLONEL GUY HAMILTON, C.B (1919), C.M.G. (1917), D.S.O. (1915) on the staff of Royal Engineers, Army Headquarters, b 27 Sep 1870 m Violet Mary (Ferguson) Educ Christ's Hospital, R.M.A. Woolwich Active service W Africa 1892, Chitral Relief, 1895, China 1899, Great War France, 1914-19, Afghan War 1919 Address Simla

BOMBAY, BISHOP OF, since 1908, Rt Rev EDWIN JAMES PALMER o s of late Archdeacon Palmer of Oxford, and nephew of 1st Lord Selborne, b 10 Jan 1869 m 1912, Hazel y s of Col E H Manning Lee, Brighton Manor, Alford Educ Winchester and Balliol Coll, Oxford Ordained, 1896, Fellow, Balliol College, 1891, Tutor, 1893, Chaplain, 1896, Examining Chaplain to Bishop of Southwell, 1899-1904; to Bishop of Rochester, 1904-05

to Bishop of Southwell, 1906-08. Publications The Great Church Awakes (Longmans, Green & Co) Address Bishop's Lodge, Malabar Hill, Bombay

BOSE, SIR BINI KUMARA, K.O.I.E (1930), Kt or 1907, C.I.E., 1898, M.A. Advocate in the Central Provinces, Vice-Chancellor, Nagpur University b 1861 Educ Nagpur, C.P.

BOSE, SIR JAGADIS CHANDRA, Kt., C.I.E., 1903, C.S.I., 1911, M.A., D.Sc (Lond), LL.D., F.R.S., Emeritus of the Presidency College, Calcutta, Founder Director of Bose Research Institute, b 30 Nov 1858, Educ Calcutta, Christ's College, Cambridge, Delegate to International Scientific Congress, Paris, 1900, scientific member of deputation to Europe and America, 1907, 1914 and 1919 Published series of papers on Electric waves and other electric phenomena (Proc Roy Society) Publications Response in the Living and Non-living, Plant Response, Electro-physiology of Plants, Irritability of Plants, Life Movements of Plants, Vols I and II Address Bose Institute, Calcutta

BOSE, SIR KAILAS CHUNDER, RAI BAHADUR, Kt., or 1918, C.I.E., 1910, Kaiser-i-Hind 1909, O.B.E. b Dec 28 1860 Educ Calcutta Training Academy, Calcutta University and Medical College Fellow, Calcutta University, Vice-President, Indian Medical Congress, Fellow, R Institute of Public Health, Member, British Medical Association, ex Member of the Corporation of Calcutta and Hon Presidency Magistrate, connected with many literary and scientific Societies of India and England and most of his contributions to the Medical Journals have been reproduced in the English and American Press End s of late Babu Bhadram BASU Address 1, Sures Street, Calcutta.

BOWEN, SIR JOHN CURTIS GRENWICH, Kt (1925), Solicitor to the Govt of Bombay b 1b Aug 1850 m Winifred Mary, d of Colonel C E Hussey Educ privately Partner in the firm of Little & Co, Solicitors, Bombay Address Byculla Club, Bombay

BRADLEY-BIRT, FRANCIS BRADLEY, B.A (Oxon), I.C.S., Collector of Calcutta, and Member, Legislative Assembly b 25 June 1874. m to Lady Nora Spencer Churchill, d of 8th Duke of Marlborough Educ Brasenose Coll, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1893, Inner Temple, 1895, Magte and Collr, Hooghly, Midnapore, Bhulna and Calcutta, Asst Director, Local Resources, Manipal, with rank of Lt-Col 1915, attached to British Legation, Teheran, 1918-19, mentioned in Despatches 1919 Publications "Chota Nagpore", "The Story of an Indian Upland", "The Romance of an Eastern Capital", "Sybil Thackeray", "Through Persia", "Twelve Men of Bengal", "Raguel Fairy Tales" Address United Service Club, Calcutta.

BRAY, DENYS DE SAUMAREZ, C.S.I (1925), O.B.E., 1919, C.I.E., 1917, I.C.S., B.A., Gold Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1912, Foreign Secretary (1920), b 28 Nov 1875, m Catherine d of Lt-Col. H P P Leigh, C.I.E. Educ. Real Gymnasium, Stuttgart, Hindell's School, Tiverton, Balliol College, Taylorian

- Scholar, Oxford, 1906 Entered I.C.S. 1908; served in the Punjab, N.W.F. Province, Baluchistan, and with the G.D. of India, Queen's Superintendent, Baluchistan, 1910, *Sec. Secy., Foreign and Political Dept.*, 1916, *edg. Private Secretary to the Viceroy* 1918 *Joint Foreign Secy.*, 1919 *Publications* *Brabai Language*, 1909, *Life History of a Brabai*, 1918, etc *Address* The Secretariat, Simla or Delhi
- REAY, SIR EDWARD HUGH, Kt., *or* 1917, *Senat Parliament, Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.*, President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce, Member of Imperial Legislative Council, Controller of Contracts, Army Headquarters, 15 Apr 1874, *m.* 1912, Constance, *d.* of Sir John Gibb, 1st Bt. *Secy. Charter house; Trinity College, Cambridge. Address* Gillander House, Calcutta.
- BRAYNE, ALBERT FREDERICK LUCAS, M.A. (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. 1923, Indian Civil Service, Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs *off* Financial Adviser, Military Finance *b* 1 April 1884, *m.* 1906 Mary *d.* of James Thomson, M.D. Irvine, Ayrshire *Educ.* Irvine, Royal Academy, Glasgow University, Oxford (Trinity College) Appointed I.C.S. Bombay, 1908, Assistant Collector, Seters 1908-1918, Superintendent, Land Records, 1918-1916, Under Secretary and Deputy Secretary to Bombay Government, Revenue and Financial Departments 1916-20 Subsequently Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India and in 1923-25 attached to the Inchope Committee on Retrenchment *Address* Finance Department, Government of India
- BROWN, FRANK, A.B.C.A. 1898, Indian Educational Service, 1899; Principal, Government School of Art, Calcutta, since 1909, *b* Birmingham, 1872, *m.* 1908, *d.* of Lt.-Col Sir Adelbert Talbot, K.C.I.E., *Educ.* Edward VI Grammar School and School of Art, Birmingham, Principal, Mayo School of Art and Curator, Museum, Lahore, 1899-1909 on *Bundell's School*, Tiverton, Balliol College, deputising, Assistant Director, Art Exhibition, Delhi Durbar, 1902-03, *Officer-in-charge* Art Section and Treasures, Indian Museum, 1910, *Publications* *Picturesque Nepal*, 1912, *Indian Painting*, 1917, *Tour in Sikkim* 1917 (2nd Edition, 1923), *Indian Painting* under the Mughals, 1924 *Address* 28, Chowringhee, Calcutta
- BUCHANAN, SIR GEORGE CUNNINGHAM, K.C.I.E. (1917), Kt Bachelor (1914), C.I.E. (1911), Consulting Engineer to the Bombay Development Department. Partner in firm of C. S. Meik and Buchanan, 16, Victoria St., Westminster, *b.* 20 April 1865, *m.* Elizabeth Isabella Mead Trained for the profession of a Civil Engineer on the works of the River Tyne Improvement Commissioners and other Port and River Works as a pupil of the Chief Engineers. Subsequently employed on Public Works in England, Venezuela, Spain, Canada, Argentina, West Indies; Chief Engineer, Dundee Harbour Trust (1896-1901), Chairman, Rangoon Free Port Trust (1901-1915), Director, Port and River Works, Mesopotamia Expeditionary Force (1915-17), Member, Indian Munitions
- Board, 1917-1918. *Publications*, Professional papers read before the Institution of Civil Engineers and the Royal Society of Arts. *Address* The Secretariat, Bombay
- BUCK, EDWARD JOHN, O.B.N. (1916), C.B.M. (1918), *Reuter's Agent* with Government of India and Director, Associated Press of India, late Vice-Chairman, Alliance Bank of Simla, Director Associated Hotels of India and Boroach Timber Co *b* 1862, *m.* Anna Margaret, *d.* of late General Sir R. M. Jennings, R. C. B. *Educ.* St. John's College, Hurstpierpoint Was in business in Australia, Assistant and Joint Secretary, Countess of Dufferin's Fund for 25 years, Honorary Secretary, Executive Committee, "Out day" in India, 1917-18 *Publication* "Simla, past and present" *Address* Northbank, Simla.
- BUCKLAND, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE PHILIP LINDSAY, Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1919 *Educ.* Eton and New College, Oxford, *m.* Mary, *d.* of Livingstone Barclay Called to the Bar Inner Temple, 1896 Practised in High Court, Calcutta, *Publication* "Text Book on the Indian Companies Act, 1913" *Address* Bengal Club, Calcutta.
- BUNBURY, EVELYN JAMES BA (Oxon) M.C., J.P., Joint General Manager, Messrs Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd., Bombay *b* 31 Oct 1888 *Educ.* The Oratory School, Queen's College, Oxford and Caen Univ. France Joined Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd and came to Bombay in 1912 served with Grenadier Guards in 1917 and 1918 in France ending up as Captain *Address* Mount Ida, Cumballa Hill, Bombay
- BUNDI, H. H. MAHARAO RAJA, SIR RAGHUNATH SINGHI BAHADUR, G.O.B.I., 1919, K.C.B.I., *or* 1897, G.C.I.E. *or* 1900, G.O.V.O. *or* 1911, *b.* 26 Sept 1869 *S* 1889 *Address* Bundi, Rajputana
- BURDON, ERNEST, BA (Oxon), C.I.E. (1921); Secretary to Government of India, Army Dept., 1922, Member, Legislative Assembly, *m.* 1 *ones* 2, Mary, *d.* of the Rev. W. Fairweather D.D., Kirkcaldy *b.* 27 Jan 1881 *Educ.* Edinburgh Academy, Univ. Coll. Oxford Entered I.C.S. 1905, Financial Under Sec. Punjab Govt. 1911 Financial Under Sec. to Govt. of India 1914 Deputy Financial Adviser, Military Finance 1916 Financial Adviser to G. O. C. in Chief Mesopotamia Expedition Force, 1918, Financial Adviser, Military Finance, 1919 *Address* Alderton, Simla
- BURDWAN, HON. SIR BUJAY CHAND MANTAR MAHARAJADHIRAJA BAHADUR, *or* G.C.I.E. (1924), K.C.B.I., *or* 1911 I.O.M. *or* 1909, F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A., F.R.C.I., F.N.B.A., M.R.A.S. *b.* 19 Oct 1881, a Member of 3rd class in Civil Division of Indian Order of Merit for conspicuous courage displayed by him in the Overtown Hall, Calcutta, 7 Nov 1906, adopted by late Maharajadhiraja and succeeded, 1887, being installed in independent charge of sandur, 1903, *m.* 1897, Radharani (Lady Mahab) of Lahore, a Member of Imperial Legislative Council, 1906-12; Bengal Legislative Council 1907-1913; Member, Beng. Executive Council, from Jan 1919 to

- April 1924, Trustee of The Indian Museum, 1908, President, Agri-Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta, 1911-12, President of the British Indian Association Calcutta, 1911-18, Trustee of the Victoria Memorial, Calcutta since 1914. *Heir* Maharajadhiraja Kumar Uday Chand Mahtab, b 14 July 1905. *Address*. The Palace, Burdwan Bijay Manzil, Allpore Calcutta, Tejvilash Palace, Kalna. The Retreat, Kurseong, Rose Bank, Darjeeling, Monapher Manzil, Agra, U P.
- BURFOOT, HENRY FRANCIS**, (Daysagar) b March 1st, 1867 (Hastings). Became a Salvation Army Officer in 1885. Secretary for the Salvation Army's Publicity and Literary work in the Western India Territory. Arrived in Bombay from England in January 1887. Has held various appointments in N India, Punjab Rajputana, Gujarat and Telugu country. Has edited the Gujarathi Salvation Army periodicals for the past 16 years. *Address*. The Salvation Army Hd qrs, Morland Rd, Byculla, Bombay.
- BUTLER, Sir** (SPENCER) HARCOURT G.C.I.E. (1923) K.C.B.I., or 1911, C.B.I., 1909, C.I.E., 1901, I.C.S., D Litt LL.D., F.R.G.S. F.Z.S., Hon Life Member of the American Museum of Natural History New York. Governor of Burma, 1923 b 1 Aug 1869, m 1894, Florence, d of F Nelson Wright, *Edue* Harrow, Balliol College, Oxford. Served as Secretary to Famine Commissioner. Financial Secretary to Government, Director of Agriculture, Judicial Secretary to Government, Deputy Commissioner, Lucknow, Foreign Secretary to the Government of India. Member of the Executive Council of the Governor General. Lieut Governor of Burma, 1913. Lieut Governor and Governor of the U.P., 1918-1922, Governor of Burma, 1922. *Address*. Rangoon.
- CADILL, PATRICK ROBERT**, C.B.I., 1919, C.B.I., 1913, V.D., Indian Civil Service, Chairman, Bombay Port Trust (1923), b 6 May 1871, m in 1920, Agnes, d of John Kemp, Bar at Law, London. *Edue* Edinburgh Academy Hallybury, Balliol College, Oxford. Member of Oxford University Football XV, 1890-91, selected to play for South of England, service in India since 1891, served in Bombay Presidency and in Calcutta, Lieut.-Col commanding 15th Bombay Battalion, Indian Defence Force, Chief Secretary, Govt. of Bombay Commissioner in
- Bind, 1919-20. Commissioner, Southern Division, Bombay, 1920-1923. Temp. Member of Council, 1924. Hon. Officer, A.D.C. to Viceroy. *Address*. North Hill, Hill, Bombay.
- CAUCOTTA, BISHOP OF**, Rt. Rev Foss Wharcott, D.D. b 23 October 1862, s of the Rt. Rev B F Westcott (late Bishop of Durham). *Edue* Cheltenham and Peterhouse, Cambridge. Joined the S. P. G. Mission, Cawnpore, 1889, Bishop of Chota Nagpore, 1905. Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan in India, 1919. *Address*. Calcutta.
- CALVERT, HUBERT**, B.Sc. (Lond), M.L.A., I.C.S. Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Punjab b 30 Nov 1875 m Ocland, d of late Edward O'Brien, I.C.S. *Edue* Univ Coll and St Thomas Hospital, London and Kings Coll., Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 1897, arrived India 1898, Asst Commr and Deputy Commr Special Duty in Western Thibet 1906. Registrar, Co-operative Societies, 1916 to date, President, All India Association of European Govt Servants (1924), Member Punjab Legislative Council 1923-24. *Publications*. Laws and Principles of Co-operation (2nd Ed 1921), The Wealth and Welfare of the Punjab (1922), Co-operative Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab (Agric Jour of India), Progress in the Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab (Fringe Indian Economic Assn). Agricultural Co-operation in India, and The Higher Finance of Agricultural Co-operation in India (International Review of Agricultural Economics). Agricultural Co-operation in the Punjab, The Reconstruction of the Punjab, pamphlets and various articles on economic subjects in the Bengal Economic Journal, Indian Journal of Economics, Bombay Co-operative Quarterly, etc. *Address*. Civil Secretariat, Lahore, Punjab.
- CAMPBELL, HENRY**, Bar-at-Law (King's Inn, Dublin) b 29 March 1879 m Miss Katherine Kippen. Honour man at the John Brooke Scholarship Examination. Ex-Chief Presidency Magistrate (Ag.) Bombay. Ex-Clerk of the Crown Bombay, late Prof Govt Law School, Bombay. *Publication*. The Law of Land Acquisition in British India (Triphthand Co.), Trading with the Enemy (Butterworths), The Law of War and Contract (Oxford University Press). *Address*. Dattoobhy Mansion, Mayo Road, Bombay.
- CARRY, Sir** WILLOUGHBY LANGRISH, Kt (1924), Senior Resident Partner, Bird & Co and F W Nelligers & Co b 12 Oct 1875, m Elizabeth Georgina Nott (nee Blackie). *Edue* Wellington College. Came to India 1901. Vice President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce 1922, President, 1923, Bengal Legis Council 1920-24, Panel of Dy Presidents 1923-24, Sheriff of Calcutta 1924, Director, Imperial Bank of India 1922-24, President, 1924, Member, G I P Railway Board, Commissioner of Port of Calcutta, Trustee of Victoria Memorial, and Member of Racial Distinctions Committee 1922. *Address*. 17, Allpore Park, Calcutta.
- CASSELL, MAJ-GENERAL ROBERT ARTHUR**, C.B., 1918, C.B.I., D.S.O., Commanding Peshawar District b 15 March 1876. Served in the European war, including Egypt and Mesopotamia. *Address*. Peshawar N.W.F.P.

CASSON, THE HON. HERBERT ALEXANDER, B.A. (Oxon.), O.S.I., I.C.S., President, Punjab Legislative Council 6 1897, *m* Gertrude Russell, d. of late Capt. A. Hamilton Russell, of Heath House, Petersfield Educ. Marlborough and Hertford College, Oxford Address 1, Egerton Road, Lahore

CAUMONT, Rt. Rev. Mgr. Fortunatus Henry, D.D., O.S.F.C., lat. B.C. Bishop of Aimer, since 1918, 6 Tours, 10 Dec 1871 Educ. Tours Took his vows, 1890, priest, 1896, joined Mission of Rajputana, 1897, Military Chaplain of Neemuch, 1900, and of Mhow, 1901, Prefect Apostolic of the same Mission, 1903 Address Bishop's House, Aimer

CHAMAN LALL, Diwan, M.L.A., Member, Legislative Assembly, 6 1892 Educ at Convent of the Sacred Heart, Murree, Gordon Mission College, Rawalpindi, Private Tutors at Folkestone, London and Paris Joined the Middle Temple in 1910, finished his Bar Final in 1914, took Honours Degree in Jurisprudence from Jesus College, Oxford, 1917, spent 1918-1919 touring England in connection with the Home Rule Deputation headed by Mr. Tilak, was appointed General Editor of Cotere, a London quarterly of Art and Literature, returned to India in 1920, joined the staff of the *Bombay Chronicle* as Asst. Editor, founded the All India Trade Union Congress in 1920 Address Lahore (Punjab)

CHAMNEY, Lt.-Col. Henry, C.M.G. 1900, Principal, Police Training College, Burdiah, 6 Shillong, Co. Wicklow, *m* lat. 1907, Hon. Cecilia Mary Barnewall (d. 1908), sister of 18th Lord Trillickton, 2nd, 1913 Alice, d. of Col. W. E. Bellingham of Castle Bellingham, Co. London, Educ. Monaghan Diocesan School Served South Africa, 1900 first as Major Commanding Limerick's Horse, and later with South African Constabulary joined Indian Police, 1909, accompanied the relief column to Manipur in 1891 Address Police Training College, Burdiah Rajshahi, Bengal

CHANDA KAMINI KUMAR, M.A. (1886), B.L. M.L.A., Vakill, High Court, Calcutta 6 Sept 1884 *m* Chandraprabha Chaudhuri Educ. Presidency Coll., Calcutta Address Slicher, Assam

CHARANJIT SINGH, Sirdar, Chief of the Punjab, Fellow R. G. S., Member, Royal Society of Arts, member of Kapurthala ruling family, 6 1883 s. of Kanawa Sobhet Singh, Educ. Jullunder, Chief College, Government College, Lahore Address Charanjit Castle, Jullunder City, Chadwick, Simla W

CHARKHARI STATE, H. H. MAHARAJA-DRAJ SIPRAHAR-UL-MULK ARWARON Rises JUDHO RAHADUR 6 Jan 1908, 8 1920, *m* 1822, d. of T. S. of Virpur, Kathiwar Educ. Mayo Coll. and privately Minor Address Charkhari State Bundelkhand

CHATFIELD, GEORGE EARLE, B.A. (Ox.) 1898, Chief Secretary, Government of Bombay, 6 March 28, 1876, Educ. Winchester Coll. Oxford (New College) Entered I.C.S., 1899 Address Secretariat, Bombay

CHATTERJEE, SIR ATUL CHANDRA, K.C.I.E. (1825) O.B.E., High Commissioner for India (1924) 6 24 Nov 1874 Educ. Hare School and Presidency Coll., Calcutta, and King's Coll. Cambridge, *m* Vina Mookerjee (deceased), Entered I.C.S., 1897 Served in U.P. Special inquiry into Industries in U.P. 1907-08, Registrar Co-operative Societies, U.P. 1912-16 Revenue Sec., U.P. Govt., 1917-18, Ch. Sec., U.P. Govt., 1919, Govt. of India delegate to International Labour Contee, Washington, 1919 and Geneva, 1921, Member, Munitions and Industries Board 1920, Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Industries 1921, Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in Charge of Industries and Labour Member of the Legislative Assembly Publication Note on the Industries of the United Provinces (1900) Address. Grosvenor Square, London

CHATTERTON, SIR ALFRED, K.I.H. (1900) C.I.E., 1912 Kt 1919, B.Sc., F.C.G.I., A.M. I.C.E., M.I.M.E., etc., Industrial Adviser and Director of Sandal Oil Factories, Govt. of Mysore, since 1918, 6 10 Oct 1866, *m* 2nd 1901, Alice Gertrude d. of W. H. Wilson two s. one d Educ. Finsbury Technical College, Central Institution, South Kensington Indian Educational Service, 1888 Director of Industries, Madras, 1908, Director of Industries, Mysore, 1912, Mem. of Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-18 Publications Industrial and Agricultural Problems in India, Lift Irrigation, and Industrial Evolution in India Address Bangalore and The Coppice, Beckenham Kent

CHAUBAL, SIR MAHADEV BHASKAR, K.C.I.E., 6 1917 C.B.I., 1911, B.A., LL.B., 6 1 Sept 1857, *m* Anandilal only d. of Parashram S. Gupta, 1870 Educ. Government High School, Poona, Deccan College, Poona Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay, 1879-83, Vakill, High Court, Bombay, 1883, Acting Puisne Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1908, Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bombay, 1910-12 and 1915-17, Member of the Public Service Commn., 1913-15 Chancellor, Indian Women's University, 1920 Address 6, Finance Office Road, Poona.

CHAUDHARI, JOGESH CHANDRA, B.A. (Oxon) M.A. (Cal.), Bar-at-Law 6 28 June 1863, *m* Saradabala Devi 3rd d. of Sir Surendranath Banerjee, Educ. Krishnagar Collegiate School, Presidency College, Calcutta, St. Xavier's College, Calcutta and New College, Oxford For some time Lecturer of Physics and Chemistry at Widyasagar College, Calcutta, Editor, Calcutta Weekly Notes since 1896, Organising Secy., Indian Industrial Exhibitions in Calcutta in 1901-1902 and 1906-7, Member, Bengal Council, 1904-7 Member, Legislative Assembly 1921-1923. Publications Calcutta Weekly Notes Address 5, Hastings Street, and "Devadwar," 24, Balgunga, Circular Road, Calcutta.

CHAUDHRI I.A.L. CHAND, HON. LIEUTENANT THE HON. RAO RAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., O.B.E., Minister, Punjab Government, Lahore, 6 1882 *m* Shrimati Bashila Devi, belonging to a Sikh Jat Family of Ferozpur Dist. Educ. St. Stephen's College, Delhi, Joined

Revenue Department, 1904, practised as lawyer at Rohtak, elected Vice-Chairman, District Board, 1914-1923, elected Punjab Council, 1916, nominated Council of State, 1922, Presdt., All India Jat Maha Sabha, 1918 (elected), Manager of High School for Sons of Soldiers, hon recruiting officer during war Address Punjab Secretariat, Lahore.

HETTLAR, THE HON DWAN BAHADUR, S R M. SIR ANAMALAI CHETTY, Banker and Member of the Council of State b 1881 Has been a member of Madras Legislative Council Governor of the Imperial Bank of India Manager and founder of the Sri Meenakshi Coll., Chidambaram, is a life member of the Senate of the University of Madras Is a member of the Nattukkottal Chetty Community Address Natana Vilas, 38, Police Commr s Rd Vepery, Madras

HATTY, R K SHANMUKHAM, B.A., B.L. Lawyer and Member, Legislative Assembly b 17 Oct 1892 Educ The Madras Christian College Elected as a member of the Madras Legis Council in 1920, was appointed Council Secretary to the Development Minister in 1922, in Oct 1922 was deputed by the Madras Govt to report about measures of Temperance Reform in Bombay, Bengal and the United Provinces Elected in 1923 as member Legislative Assembly Visited England in May 1924 as one of the members of the Deputation sent by the National Convention of India Address Hawarden, Race Course Coimbatore

HINTAMANI, CHIRRAVOORI YAKSWARA Chief Editor of *The Leader* of Allahabad b 10 April 1880, m Srimati Krishnavenema, Educ Maharaja's College Vizianagaram, Editor of *The Leader*, Allahabad 1909-20, Member, U P Legislative Council, 1916-1923, Delegate of the Liberal Party to England, 1919 General Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India, 1918-20, President, Ibid, 1920 Minister of Education and Industries, U P 1921-23 Publications *Indian Social Reform* 1901, *Speeches and Writings of Sir Pherozeshah Mehta*, 1905 Address Gauri Nivas, 18 George Town, Allahabad

ITINAVIS, SIR GANGADHAR MADHAV, K.C.I.E., C.I.E. b 1863. President, Central Provinces Legis Council, President, Nagpur Municipality, 1896-1918, selected to represent Central Provinces on Impl Legis Council, 1893-1895, 1898-99, President of C P and Berar Provincial Conference, 1906, additional member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1907, elected representative of landholders in the C P reformed Council, 1910-1916 Nominated Member of Imp Legis Council from 1918, landholder in C P Address Nagpur, Central Provinces

ITINAVIS, THE HON MR. SHANKAR MADHAV, B.A. Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1901), Imperial Service Order (1913); Landholder b Dec 8, 1863, m Parvatibai Educ Free Church Mission School, Nagpur and then at Elphinstone College, Bombay Appointed Probationer for Civil Service under the Statutory rules, 13 July 1886, confirmed as Assistant

Commissioner, 5th Oct 1887, appointed Deputy Commissioner, December 1896, a member of the Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08, officiated as Districtal Commissioner 1909-10, retired from Service 1st March 1916, was Minister to C P Government from 18 Dec 1920 to 27 March 1924 Address Near Mental Hospital, Nagpur, C P

CHOKSY, DR. NUSSEERWANJEE HORMASJEE, C.I.E. 1922, Khan Bahadur (1897), Chevalier of the Crown of Italy (1899), Medalliste des Epidemies Republique Francaise (1906), M.D. (Hon Causa) Freiburg, F.C.P.S. (Bombay) L.M. & S., (Bombay 1884), Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1912 b 7 Oct 1861, m Sereenbal Maneckjee Jhaveri Educ Elphinstone High School and Grant Medical College Medical Superintendent, Acworth Jeper Asylum 1890-97, Medical Superintendent of Arthur Road Plague and Infectious Diseases Hospital (1888-1921) and Maratha Plague Hospital (1902-1921) Publications Numerous publications on Plague, Cholera, Balaoping Fever, Leprosy, Special reports connected with these subjects, etc Address Sheridan House, Gowalla Tank Road, Bombay

CHRISTOPHERS, LEWIS COL. SAMUEL RICHARD, M.B., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.M.S. Director, Kala Asar Commission, Member, Malaria Commission, Royal Society and Colonial Office, 1898-1902 Address Central Research Institute, Kasauli

CLARKE CHARLES AGACY, B.A. (Honours) Oxon 1895, C.B.E. (1919), I.C.S., Commissioner, Nagpur, C P, b 14 May 1872 Educ at St Paul's School and Univ Coll., Oxford Joined the I.C.S. Dec 1896, became Dy Commissioner, 1908 and Deputy Commissioner, Nagpur, January 1913 to April 1919, rendered certain war services and thanked by the Government of India (Milly Dept) 1918, became Commissioner, Raipur, C P, April 1920 Address Nagpur, C P

CLARKE, SIR GEORGE BOTHER, KT (1925) C.B.I., 1921, O.B.E. (1917) Serbian Order of the Sveti Sava, 1923 Director-General, Posts and Telegraphs, since 1918 b 7 July 1871, m Hilda Geraldine Seymour Educ Corrig School, Kingstown and T.C. Dublin Entered I.C.S. 1895 Officiated as P.M.G., Punjab, and N.W.F., 1903 Confirmed as P.M.G., Madras, 1906 On special duty with Ministry of Munitions in London, 1916, and sent on duty to America and Canada, Delegate for Government of India at International Postal Congress, Madrid, 1920, and International Postal Congress, Stockholm 1924 Publications *The Outcasts*, "The Post Office of India and Its Story" Address The Rookery, Simla

CLARKE, MAJOR ROBERT WILLIAM, A.M. Inst C.E., M.I.M.E. H.M. Trade Commissioner Bombay b 20 Jan 1872, m Dorothy Ann St Aubyn, d of late Major W.J. St. Aubyn, Durham Light Infantry Educ at Malvern College and the Sheffield School of Mines, North West Ry, Central Provinces, and Bikaner State, from 1894-1901. Served as Mining and Civil Engineer in Australia,

- Canada, British North Borneo, Russia, Rumania and Spain. Joined 5th Batt., York and Lancaster Regiment August 1914 and served in France till March 1919. Succeeded to Foreign Office March, 1919 and served on Railway Mission to Poland, Economic Mission in Central and Eastern Europe and as Economic Expert to the Interallied Plebiscite Commission in Upper Silesia up to September 1922. Was Member of the Economic Experts Conference in Paris, 1921 and Foreign Office delegate to the League of Nations on the Upper Silesian question, 1921. Lectured before the British Institute of International Affairs May 1923 on 'The Influence of Fuel on International Politics'. Address: Exchange Buildings, Ballard Estate Bombay.
- CLAYTON, HUGH BYARD, C.I.E. (1924); I.O.S.** Municipal Commr., Bombay b 24 Dec. 1877, m. Annie Blanch Nepean Educ. St. Paul's School, Wadham College, Oxford 1st Class Hon Mods 1st Class L.A. Hum. Came to India 1901, served in Bombay Presidency employed in Military Intelligence Branch of War Office, 1914-19. Address: Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.
- CLUTTERBUCK, SIR PETER HENRY, KT (1924), C.I.E., 1918 C.B.E., 1919, V.D. 1912, F.R.G.S., F.Z.S., F.E.S.,** Inspector-General of Forests to the Government of India since 1921. b 1868, s. of late Alexandra Clutterbuck of Red Hall, Watford, m. 1896, Rose Winifred d. of Alfred Barrow Wilson Marriott, formerly District Superintendent of Police, Central Provinces, India, two s. Educ. Clifton College, Bloxham, Coopers Hill College, Indian Forest Service, Central Provinces, 1889, transferred to the United Provinces, 1899, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1897, Conservator of Forests, Eastern Circle, U.P., 1913, Chief Conservator of Forests, U.P., 1915, Kaiser-i-Hind Medal (silver) 1911 served in Volunteer force 1887-1918 was Lt.-Col. in command of the 8th (Northern) U.P. Horse of the India Defence Force, 1917-18, was Member of U.P. Legislative Council, 1919-20. Address: Simla, India.
- CODDEN-RAMSAY, LOUIS EVELING BAW-THES, J.P., C.I.E., I.O.S.** Political Agent, Orissa Feudatory States, since 1905, b 29 Oct. 1873, m. Dorothy Forster Grieve, d. of O. J. Grieve, J. P. Brauxholm Park Educ. Dulwich College, Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge Arrived in India, 1897; Under-Secretary to Govt of Bengal in Revenue and General Dept., 1900-2, Registrar, Co-operative Credit Societies, 1905. Publication gazetteer Orissa Feudatory States. Address: Sambalpur, B.N. Railway.
- COLE, LIEUT. COLONEL HENRY WALTER GORDON, C.S.I.,** Deputy Commissioner, Assam Commission, Political Agent in Manipur 1914. Educ. Wellington College, E.M.C., Sandhurst. Joined 5th Fusiliers, 1885, 2nd Gurkhas, 1887, Asst. Commissioner, Assam 1891, Dy. Commissioner, 1901, Supdt., Lushai Hills, 1896-11, Director, Temporary Works, Delhi, 1912-13, served Hazara, 1885, Lushai, 1885-1893, Chin Lushai, 1893-95, N.E. Frontier, 1891. Address: The Residency, Manipur.
- COLLINS, COLONEL ROBERT JOHN, C.M. (1915), D.S.O. (1915),** Legion of Honor (1915), Croix de Guerre (1917), Director Military Training, A.H.Q. b 22 Aug. 1884, m. E. A. Monro, widow of Capt. M. S. H. Royal Fusiliers Educ. Marlborough Co. Joined E. Berke Regt., served in S. Africa Wars 1899-1902, Egyptian Army 1904-1 Staff Col., 1912-13, Great War France, 1914-19, Instructor, Staff College, 1919-20. Address: Army Headquarters, Simla.
- COLVIN, GEORGE LETHERIDGE, C.B. (1919) C.M.G. (1918), D.S.O. (1916),** Commandant of the Order of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus (Italy) 1920, Agent, East Indian Railway b 27 March 1878 m. Katherine Mylne, d. of James Mylne of Edinburgh Educ. Westminster Joined E.I. Railway, 1896 served in Army (France and Italy) during war 1914-1919, Hon. Brigadier-General in Army, Director of Development Ministry of Transport, London, from 1919 to 1921 Rejoined E.I. Ry. in 1921 as Agent Address: Bengal Club, Calcutta.
- COOKE, MAJOR-GENERAL HERBERT FOTHER- GILL, C.B.E. (1924), C.B. (1919), C.S. (1921), D.S.O. (1917), I.A.** Commandant Sindh Rajputana District from April 1924 b 13 Nov. 1871, m. 1923, Harriet Mar Hornby Educ. All Hallows School, Romford B.M.C., Sandhurst First Commission, 1895 joined Indian Army, 1893, Captain, 1901 Major, 1910, Brevet Lt. Col., 1912, Substantive Lt. Colonel, 1916, Bt.-Col., 1917 Substantive Colonel, 1917, Temporary Major-General (1918) Substantive Major-General (1921), served Chitral, 1895 (medal and clasp), Tirah, 1897 (2 clasps), Waziristan 1902 (clasp), Tibet Expedition and Marco to Lhasa, 1904 (medal and clasp), European War, from Jan. 1915 to October 1917 (see patches seven times, C.B., D.S.O., Bt. Col.) several years on Staff Appointments in India including 4 years as Dy. Adjutant-General in India and officiating Adjutant-General from March to Sept. 1920 Military Secretary Army Headquarters, 1922-24. Address: C/o Messrs. Grindlay & Co., Bankers.
- COPPEL, RT. REV. FRANCIS STEPHEN, B.C.** Bishop of Nagpur, since 1907, b Les Gets Savoy, 5 Jan. 1867 Educ. College of Evian University of France, Lyons, B.A., B.Sc. Entered Congregation of Missionaries of St. Francis de Sales, Annecy, Priest, 1890, sent to India for mission of Nagpur, 1892, for fifteen years attached to St. Francis de Sales College, Nagpur, as professor and principal Address: Nagpur.
- CORBETT, GEOFFREY LATHAL, B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1921),** Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India b 9 Feb. 1881 m. Gladys Kate, d. of late George Bennett, Esq., Little Rington Manor, Gosport Educ. Bromsgrove School, Hertford Coll., Oxford, 1st Class Hon. Mods (1902) 1st Class Lit. Hum. (1904) Passed into I.C.S. 1904, Asst. Commissioner, C.P. 1905-09, Settlement Officer, Baur, 1910-16, Dy. Commissioner, C.P. Dir. of Industries and Dy. Secretary, C.P., 1916-18, Dy. Secretary, Com. Depart., Government of India,

1919-21, Director of Industries and Regis-
trar, Co-operative Credit Societies, C P. 1923;
Offg. Secretary, Commerce Department
Government of India, 1923-21. Address
Commerce Department, Government of
India, Delhi and Simla.

COTTINGHAM JOHN PRADASA RAO, M.A.
& M. U., M. L. A. (1930), Retired Principal of
the Wardlaw College, Bellary, 1891-1918, &
9th Dec 1960. m. Miss Padmanji, d. of
the Rev. Baba Padmanji of Bombay. Educ.
Madras Christian Coll., Assst. Master
London Mission High School, Madras, Head-
master, Wesley Coll., Principal Hindu Coll.,
Cuddalore, 1888-1891; Member, Bellary
Dist. Board and Taluk Board since 1895,
Vice-President, Dist. Board, 1901-4, Member
Bellary Municipal Council since 1893, President,
District Educational Council Bellary. Re-
presents Indian Christian Community and
Madras Presidency on the Legis Assembly
Address: Rock Cottage, Bellary.

COTTERELL, OTOL BERNARD, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Collector Chingleput District (1924) m. 1922
Educ. St. Peter's School, York, Balliol
College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1898; has
served in the Madras Presidency since 1899,
Deputy Commissioner, Salt and Abkari Dept.,
1906, Private Sec. to Governor of Madras,
1912-15. Address: Madras.

COTTON CHARLES WILLIAM HERTON C.I.E.
(1930) Agent to the Governor General Madras
States 1928 & 1974, Educ. Hon. and Univ.
Col. Oxford I.C.S. 1897. District work in
Madras until 1907 when appointed Asstt.
Director of Statistics, Calcutta; Offg. Dir-
gentl., Commercial Intelligence, 1908-10,
Offg. Dir. of Industries, Madras, 1909-10,
Dy. Secy. to the Govt. of Madras, 1911-12,
Dy. Secy., Govt. of India, 1912-15, Collector
of Customs, Calcutta, 1916-21, Director
of Industries, Madras, 1921. Publications
Review of the Trade of India, 1908 and 1910,
Calcutta Chatterbox, 1918, Handbook of
Commercial Information, 1919. 2nd Edition
1924. Address: The Residency Trivandrum
Travancore.

**COTTON, THE HON. SIR HARRY EVAN AUGUSTE-
RE, C.I.E.** (1921), President, Bengal
Legislative Council & 27 May 1868, d. of
the late Sir Henry Cotton, K.C.S.I., m.
Mrs. d. of the late W. H. Grimley,
I.C.S., Member, Board of Revenue,
Bengal. Educ. Mont Liban School, Pau
Sh. borne, Jesus Coll., Oxford, (open
scholar, second class (honours), Clas-
sical Moderations, modern history, jurispru-
dence) Secretary and Treasurer, Oxford
Union Socy., called to Bar at Lincoln's Inn
1893, Advocate, High Court at Fort William
in Bengal, 1897-1906, Member, Calcutta Cor-
poration, 1900-1906, Member, London County
Council, 1910-1922 (Deputy Chairman, 1914-
15, County Alderman, 1919-1922), M.P. for
West Finsbury, July-Nov. 1918, Editor
of "India," 1906-17, Hon. Secy., Indian
Reforms Committee, 1919-1922. Publications
"Calcutta, Old and New," "The Century in
India, 1800-1900" Annotated Edition of
"Hardy House," a novel of the time of Warren
Hastings. Address: Town Hall, Calcutta.

COUBROUGH, ANTHONY CATBOURN, C. I. E.
(1918), M.A., B.Sc., C.B., M.L.E.E., M.I.
MEMOR. M. M.I.E. (Ind.), General Manager
for India, Messrs. Mather and Platt, Ltd.; b.
18th Feb. 1877; Educ. Glasgow University
Joined Mather and Platt, Ltd., in 1898 as
apprentice, subsequently became General
Manager, Electrical Department and is that
capacity travelled widely on the Continent,
went to India and South Africa and even in-
ternally returned to India to establish Mather
and Platt's own office in Calcutta, Bombay
and other centres for the control of their
business from Mesopotamia to the Straits,
has travelled in China, Japan, United States
of America, Australia and Egypt. During
war services were lent to Govt. of India;
under Munitions Board was Controller of
Priority and latterly Controller of Munitions
Manufacture. Publications: Pamphlets on
Technical and Economic subjects. Address:
7, Hare Street, Calcutta.

COUSINS JAMES HENRY, Doctor of Literature
of Kellogg University Japan, (1922),
Principal, Brahmavidyashrama (School of
International Culture) Adyar, Madras. m.
Margaret E. Cousins B. Mus. J.P. (1908).
Educ. at various schools in Ireland and
partly in Trinity College Dublin (Teachers'
Course). Private Secretary to Lord Mayor
of Belfast. Asstt. Master Belfast Mercantile
Academy, Asstt. Master, High School Dublin.
Reporter to Royal Academy of Medicine in
Ireland, Demonstrator in Geography and
Geology, Summer Course, Royal Coll. of
Science, Ireland, Asstt. Editor, "New India,"
Madras. Principal, Theosophical College,
Madanapalle, Fellow and Prof. of English,
National University, Adyar. University
Extension and Post Graduate Lecturer, Cal-
cutta University, Benares Hindu University,
Mysore University, a co-founder of the Irish
Literary and Dramatic Revival, poet,
dramatist, critic, educationist, philosopher.
Publications: (Prose) A text-book of Modern
Geography The Wisdom of the West, The
Bases of Theosophy The Renaissance in
India The Kingdom of Youth Footsteps of
Freedom, New Ways in English Literature,
Modern English Poetry The Cultural Unity
of Asia, The Play of Brahma Work and
Worship, (Poetry) Ben Madhigan, Song by
Six, The Blenished King the Voice of One,
The Awakening The Bell Branch, Blain
the Beloved Straight and Crooked, the Gar-
land of Life, Ode to Truth, Mounted Feathers,
The King's Wife (drama) Sea Change, Surya
Gita. Address: Leadbeater Chambers, Adyar
Madras.

COUSINS, MRS. MARGARET E., Bachelor of
Music (Royal University of Ireland, 1902),
Honorary Secretary, Women's Indian
Association and Hon. Magistrate, Madras.
b. 7 Nov. 1878. m. Dr. J. H. Cousins. Educ.
Dublin and Londonderry. Solo pianist
before marriage, afterwards became interested
in reform movements in addition to music;
Secretary Irish Vegetarian Society, Hon.
Treasurer and foundation member of Irish
Women's Franchise League, a suffrage
suffrage society in which she worked for
seven years and suffered imprisonment twice.

- in the cause. Left Ireland 1913, spent two years in Liverpool, came to India in Oct. 1915. *Publications*: articles in many newspapers and magazines, author of "The Awakening of Asian Womanhood" *Address*: Lead beater Chambers, Adyar, Madras
- COOITS, THE HON MR JUSTICE WILLIAM STRACMAN, C.I.E. I.C.S., Barrister, Pune Judge, Patna High Court, 1918, Registrar of Patna High Court, 1916, District, and Sessions Judge, Bihar and Orissa, 1912 Educ Dollar, Trinity College, Cambridge Entered I.C.S. 1895, Joint Magistrate, 1905 Address High Court, Patna**
- COVENTRY, BERNARD, C.I.E. 1912, Agricultural Adviser to Native States in Central India, since 1916, formerly Agricultural Adviser to Govt of India, Director of Agricultural Research Institute, and Principal of Agricultural College, Pusa Behar, b 10 Dec 1859 Educ Beaumont Coll. Came to India, 1881, and joined Indigo industry, started agricultural research station on modern lines, 1890, on foundation of Pusa Agricultural Research Institute and College, 1904, was made first Director and Principal, acted as Insp Gen of Agriculture and became first Agricultural Adviser to Govt. of India, retired 1916 Address Indore, OI**
- COVERNTON, ALFRED LAURENCE, M.A. (Oxon), Secretary, University Reform Committee (on deputation), Principal, Elphinstone College Bombay (permanent), b June 11, 1872 m Olive Helena, d of Dr W Love Educ Merchant Taylors School, London, and St. John's College, Oxford First Class, Littéræ Humaniorum, 1895, Assistant Master, Merchant Taylors School, London, 1895-1898 Prof of English and History, Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1898-1906, Inspector of English, Elphinstone College, Bombay 1906-1924; Deputy Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1913-14 Address Elphinstone College, Bombay**
- COX, VEN LIONEL EDGAR, M.A., Senior Chaplain, St George's Cathedral, Madras and Archbishop of Madras, b 28 March 1868 Educ Somerset College, Bath, Dorchester Theological College, Durham University Deacon, 1891, Priest, 1894, joined Madras Ecclesiastical Establishment, 1896, Archbishop of Madras and Bishop's Commissary, 1910. Address: Cathedral, Madras**
- COX, STEPHEN, C.I.E. (1921), M.B.E., Ch Conservator of Forests, Madras, b 23 Dec 1870 m Nora, d. of Sir Alfred Bourne, F.R.S., K.C.I.E Educ Harrow and Cooper's Hill Address Madras**
- CORRAR, JAMES, C.S.I. (1922), C.I.R. (1917), Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department since December 1922 b. 1877, m. to Evelyn, d. of the late Hon. Charles Brand, Educated at George Watson's College, Edinburgh, Edinburgh University and Balliol College (Oxon), Assistant Collector, and Manager of Encumbered Estates, Sind, Assistant Commissioner in Sind, Deputy Municipal Commissioner, Bombay, Municipal Commissioner, Bombay, Private Secretary to**
- H. E. the Governor of Bombay; Sec. to Govt. of Bombay Home Dept. Address The Secretariat, Delhi or Simla.**
- CROSTHWAIT, REV CANON ANTHONY, Exhibitor of Pembroke College, Cambridge, B.A. (Hon Opt), 1892, Delhi Durbar Medal 1911, Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1st Class, 1923, Missionary, S.P.G. b 2 Nov 1870, m to Kate Louisa Barlow Educ at St Peter's School, York and Pembroke College, Cambridge Missionary, S.P.G. and Vice-Principal, Christ Church College, Cawnpore, 1893-1900, Principal, 1910-1912, Fellow of Allahabad Univ 1906, Hon Fellow 1913, Chaplain of Moradabad and Head of S.P.G. Mission, 1900-10 and 1912 to present date, Canon of All Saints Cathedral, Allahabad, 1921 *Publications*: "The Lessons of the Big Veda for Modern India," "Patriotism," "Theosophy" Commentary on II Corinthians in "The Indian Church Commentary Series" "Tawiran par sawal o jawab," "Dua ki kitab par sawal o jawab," "Asha-i Bab bam ki tarib par sawal o jawab" Address S.P.G. Mission, Moradabad, U.P.**
- CRUMP, LESLIE MAURICE, C.I.E. (1921), Resident at Gwalior (1924), b 12 September 1875 m Jean Dunlop McKerrrow, d of Dr George McKerrrow of Ayr, Scotland, 1 s 1 d Educ Merchant Taylors School, Marlton Coll, Oxford, Rugby football blue, 1896-97 Entered I.C.S., Bengal, 1898 Pol. Dept., Govt. of India, 1900 Served in Hyderabad, N.W. Frontier, Central India, Phulkian States and Baroda *Publications*: The Marriage of Naukaica and other poems Address The Residency, Gwalior**
- CUBITT, MAJOR GENERAL THOMAS ASLEY, C.B.E. (1924), C.B., 1919, C.M.G., 1916, D.S.O., 1903, R.A., G.O.C., Bengal Presidency and Assam District, b 9 April 1871, m 29 April 1920, Olive widow of Col B. S. Grisell, Norfolk Regt and d of the late Col H. Wood, C.B., Rifle Brigade Educ at Halesbury, R.M. Academy and Staff College Entered Army 1891, Deputy Commissioner, Somaliland Protectorate, 1914, served West Africa, 1898 (medal with clasp), expedition against Munshe, 1900 (despatches, clasp), West Africa, 1901, as Staff Officer (despatches, brevet major, medal with clasp), West Africa, 1902, (despatches clasp), West Africa, 1903, Kano-Sokoto Campaign (despatches, clasp, D.S.O.), European war in command of troops, Somaliland, 1914-15 (despatches, C.M.G.), European War in France, 1915-18, C.B. Lt Col, Major-General 3 June 1919 Address United Service Club, Pall Mall, London, S.W. 1**
- CUMBERLEIGH, CAPT GEOFFREY FREDRICK JOCELYN, M.A. (Oxon), D.S.O. (1917), M.C. (1918), Manager in India of the Oxford University Press b April 19, 1891 Educ Charterhouse and Worcester Coll, Oxford Commission in Royal Fusiliers (Sept 1914), Substantive Capt in Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire L.I. (Oct. 1917), Brigade Major 1917-18, Ayrld Manager in India of Oxford University Press, Oct. 1919, Address: Royal Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay**

CURRIMBOY EBRAHIM, Sir, 2nd Baronet (Mahomedbhoy Currimbhoy Ebrahim), Merchant and Millowner, b 11 Sep 1867 in Sekinahal, d of the late Mr Jalrabhoy Pirbhoy Educ privately. A leading member of the Khoja Moslem Community, a trustee of the Port of Bombay for 10 years, member, Municipal Corporation, for over 20 years a director on the board of a number of industrial concerns and of the Bank of India member Advisory Committee of the Dept. of Industry and the Industrial Disputes Committee Sheriff Bombay 1922 Kaiser Hind Gold Medal 1921 Knight Bachelor 1924 Address Belvedere, Warden Road, Cumballa Hill

CUTTRISS, C.A., M.B.E., F.R.G.S. F.R.S.A. Sec. Burma Chamber of Commerce, Commercial Member of the Burma Boller Commission and Hon Magistrate Rangoon b Lauceston 28 Nov 1868, m Janet, d of Dr Hayter M.D., was Hon Sec Burma 'Our Day' Fund, Burma War Fund, Rangoon Rivercraft Committee and Rangoon Impressionment of Shipping Committee during the war Publications "Memories of Old Rangoon", "Hints to Arbitrators", and Essays on Commercial Subjects Address P.O. Box 324, Rangoon

DADABHOY, Sir MANEKJI BYRAMJI, KT (1921), K.C.I.E. (1925) b (Bombay, 30 July 1865 m 1884, Bai Jernabai O.B.E., d. of Khan Bahadur Dadabhai Pallonji of the Commissariat Dept Educ Proprietary High School and St Xavier's College Bombay Joined Middle Temple, 1884, called to Bar, 1887, Advocate of Bombay High Court, 1887, Government Advocate, Central Provinces, 1891, President, Prov. Industrial Conference, Rairpur, 1907, President, All India Industrial Conference, Calcutta, 1911, Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1908-12 and 1914-17, a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920-21) Elected to the Council of State, 1921 Member Fiscal Commission appointed by Govt of India Sept 1921 Managing Director Nagpur Electric Light and Power Co Ltd Berar Manufacturing Co., Ltd., and the Model Mills Nagpur, Limited Proprietor Ballarpur Sastri, Ohugus and Pilsaon Rajur Collieries, numerous Manganese Mines in the Central Provinces and Berar and Behar and Orissa, Several Gin and Press Factories in all parts of India Publications Commentary on the Land Laws of the Central Provinces, and Commentary on the Central Provinces Tenancy Act. Address Nagpur, O.P.

DAGA, RAI BAHADUR SETH SIR BISESARDAS KT (1922), Banker, Govt Treasurer land lord, merchant, millowner and miner b 1877 m Krishna Bai Educ privately Second Class Tazim, Bikaner State Publications Sir Kasturba Memorial Dufferin Hospital at Nagpur and frequent contributions on public charity Address Nagpur (O.P.) and Bikaner (Rajputana)

DALAL, SARDAR BOMANJI ARDESHIR, First Class Sardar, Zamindar, and Merchant, Member of the Legislative Assembly since January 1921, b. 18 April 1854. Educ. Broach and Bombay, m. Bai Navabai Bomandi Dalal owns 3,000 acres of land colonising six thriving villages in and out of the way

place in Panch Mahals. Address Baroda Residency

DALAL, SIR DADIBA MERWANJEE, Knt (1924), C.I.E. (1921), b 12 Dec. 1870 m. 1890, one s three s Educ in Bombay Gave evidence before the Chamberlain Currency Commission (1913), Member of the Committee on Indian Exchange and Currency (1919) and wrote minority report, Chairman, Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee, Bombay (1921) Member of Council of the Secretary of State for India, 19 Nov 1921 to 25th Jan 1923 Delegate for India at International Economic Conf. Genoa and representative for India at the Hague (1922), Member of the Inchcape Committee, 1922-23, Delegate for India at the Imperial Economic Conference (1923) High Commissioner for India in the U.K. 1922-24 Address Marine Lines, Bombay

DANLE, RAO BAHADUR KISHAV GOVIND, C.I.E. (1922), High Court Vakil, Akola (Berar) b 25 June, 1868 Educ Akola, Deccan Coll. Poona Law Class, Bombay Practised law at Akola since 1895 Member, O.P. Legis Council, 1914-16 Chairman, Co-op. Central Bank Ltd Akola since 1911 Member of Committee appointed by C.P. Govt to draw up a scheme of village panchayats Member of Committee on Co-operative Societies in O.P. appointed by Govt in 1921, First President of Joint Board of Berar District Boards since 1922, Vice President Akola District Board since 1902 President Bar Assn Akola for many years President, Berar Liberals and Member of Co-operative Institute Berar Address Akola

DARLEY, BERNARD D OLIVER, C.I.E. (1919), Superintending Engineer P.W.D. United Provinces b 24 August 1890 Educ T.C. Dublin and Cooper's Hill, AMICE Irrigation work in P.W.D. since 1903 Address Bareilly, U.P.

DAS, BRAJA SUYDAR, B.A., Member, Legis Assembly, Zamindar and Proprietor of a press and cultivation b July 1880 m to Uma Sundari, 4th f of Rai Sudam Charn Nalk Bahadur Educ Ravenshaw Coll and Presidency Coll, Calcutta Took part in Utkal Union Conference since its beginning in 1904 and Secy for two years Vice President, Utkalabandha Samaj President, Oriya Peoples' Association, Vice President, Oriya Assn, and Ramkrishna Sevak Samaj Was President Central Youngmen's Association Member, Sakhi Gopa Temple Committee, Was Member of Cuttack Municipality and District Board, Member, Bihar and Orissa Council, 1916-1920, Fellow of Patna University and member of the Syndicate Publications Editor of the Oriya Monthly Mukha and of the only English Weekly in Orissa "The Oriya" Address Cuttack.

DAS CHITTA RANJAN, Bar at-Law b Calcutta Nov 5, 1870 Started practice Calcutta Bar, 1893, suspended practice as a non co operator, elected President, National Congress, Ahmedabad, 1921 but arrested for issuing public appeal for volunteers, Dec 23, 1921, sentenced in February 1922 to six months imprisonment, President, National Congress, Gaya, 1923, Mayor of Calcutta, 1924 Address 116, Bansa Road, South Calcutta, Calcutta.

DHADVADHAR, GOPAL KRISHNA (Kahar)-Hind Gold Medal in 1880, Vice-President, Servants of India Society, 1871 m. Dwarka-bhai School of Poona Educ. New English School, Poona, and Wilson College, Bombay M. A., Bombay University, 1904 Served as Principal of the Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay, was Examiner of the Bombay University for Matriculation and M. A. examinations in Marathi for more than five years. Joined the late G. K. Gokhale in his public work 1904, and was first member to join Servants of India Society 1905 awarded Kaiser-i-Hind Silver medal in 1914. Head of Bombay Branch. Toured in England and on the Continent in 1918 as member of Indian Press Delegation. One of the founders and Hon. Organizer and General Secretary of the Poona Seva Sadan Society started in 1909 and Joint Asst. General Secretary of the National Social Conference. Organizer of the Malabar Relief Fund, 1921. Vice-President of the Bombay Central Co-operative Institute in 1921 and 1922. Director, Bombay Central Co-operative Bank. Has published several pamphlets on Co-operation, Female Education and Social Reform. Address Girgaum, Bombay.

DHRANGADHRA, H. H. MAHARAJA SHRI SRI GHANSHYAMKUMAR, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. MAHARAJA SAHIB, b. 1889, Succeeded father 1911. Educ. in England with private tutors under guardianship of Sir Charles Ollivant. Address Dhurangadhra, Kathiawar.

DICK, GEORGE PARIS C.I.E. 1916 Bar at Law Member of C. P. Legislative Council, 1921, and of each preceding Council. Govt. Advocate C. P., b. 1866, m. Edna Geraldine Newman Educ. Dulwich College called to Bar Middle Temple, 1889, Advocate of Calcutta High Court, 1893 of the Judicial Commissioner Court, Nagpur, 1891, Lecturer in Law to the Morris College, Nagpur. President, New English High School and President Nagpur Civil Station Municipal Council. Publishes New Film and His Fortunes. Address The Kothi, Nagpur.

DINAJPUR, MAHARAJA JAGADISH NATH RAY BAHADUR, b. 1894 by adoption to Maharaja Shri Chitra Nath Ray Bahadur, K.C.I.E., m. 1916 Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta. President, Dinajpur Landholders' Association, Municipal Commissioner, Chairman, Dinajpur Municipality Member, Dis. Board, Dinajpur and Member, British India Association Bengal Landholders' Assocn., Asiatic Society of Bengal, East India Assocn., London, Calcutta Literary Society, North Bengal Zamindars' Assocn., Bangiya Sahitya Parishad. Address Dinajpur Rajbati Dinajpur and 42, Hazra Road Ballygunj.

DONALD, DOUGLAS, C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E. Commandant, B.M. Police and Samana Rifles, b. 1865, Educ. Bishop Cotton School, Simla. Joined the Punjab Police Force at Ambala, 1888, transferred to Peshawar, 1889, appointed C.B.M. Police, Kohat, 1890, served Miran Sahi Expeditions, 1891, on Samana posts and Tirah, re-transferred to Kohat, 1899, on special duty to raise Samana Rifles. Address Military Police, Kohat.

DORNAKAL, BISHOP OF, since 1912, Rt. Rev. VEDANATHAN SAMUEL ARANIAN (2nd Indian Bishop, Hon. LL.D. (Oxonb.)), b. 17 Aug. 1874, Educ. O. M. S. High School, Mangamanguram, O. M. S. College, Tinnevely; Madras Christian College. One of founders of India Missionary Society of Tinnevely, 1908, Hon. Secretary 1908-9, Hon. Gen. Secretary of National Missionary Society of India, 1908-9, visited Japan as Delegate of World Student Christian Federation, 1907, and its Vice-President, 1908-11, visited England as Delegate to World's Missionary Conference, 1910. Head of Dornakal Mission, 1909-13. Publications: Holy Baptism, Confirmation, First Corinthians, etc. Address Dornakal Singaperi Cottages, Doocan.

DUGGAN, JAMESHEDJI NUSSERAWANJI D.O. (Oxon) F.C.P.S. Major, I.M.S. (Hon.), I.M. & S. Ag. Ophthalmic Surgeon in charge, Sir C. J. Ophthalmic Hospital and Ag. Professor of Ophthalmology Grant Medical College Bombay, b. 8 April 1883 m. Miss Gunder Educ. Bombay Oxford and Vienna. Was Tutor in Ophthalmology Grant Medical College Consulting Ophthalmic Surgeon to War Hospitals and Ophthalmic Surgeon Parsi General Hospital Bombay. Is Private Ophthalmic Practitioner. Fellow of the Bombay University. Publications:—Papers on Spring Catarrh, Anterior Keratitis, Gonorrhoea and allied diseases of the eye, Artificial Eye, Traumatic pupilla Squint cases and Sub Conjunctival Injections in the eye. Address Nepean Sea Road Malabar Hill, Bombay.

DUNDAS, ROBERT THOMAS, C.I.E. Inspector-General of Police, Bihar and Orissa, since 1914 additional Member of Lieut.-Governor's Council, b. 1868, s. of the late Donald William Dundas. Address Bihar.

DUNI CHAND LAKA B.A. Licentiate in Law, Honours in Persian and Literature (1894), Member Legislative Council, Vakeel and Public work, b. 1873 m. Shrimati Bhagdevi Educ. Forman Christian College and Oriental Coll. Lahore. Practised at the bar until 1921. Entered public life and took part in various activities of the Arya Samaj since 1899, was manager of Anglo Sanskrit High School Ambala from 1906-1921, Member, Managing Committee D. A. V. College resumed practice in 1921. been a member All India Congress Committee since 1920, was convicted and sentenced to six months imprisonment in 1922 under Criminal Amendment Act, presided over Punjab Provincial Conference held in Rahtak in 1922 at present President Provincial Swaraj Council, Punjab. Address Kripa Nivas Ambala.

DUTT, ANAR NATH, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., s. of late Mr. Durga Das Dutt and Srimati Jugai Mohini Dutt. High Court Vakil, Burdwan, b. 13 May 1875 m. Srimati Tukerai Dutt. Is 1st Educ. Salkia A. S. School, Howrah, Ripon and Municipal Schools, Metropolitan Institution and Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Was Chairman, Local Board, Member, District Board, Secretary People's Association, District Association, Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Burdwan and was editor of monthly magazine *Ala*. Address, Kachpur, Burdwan.

- NESTREMAN, DR. FABIAN ANTHONY, O.C.**, Catholic Bishop of Lahore, since 1908, b. Belgium, 1858. *Educ.* Episcopal Seminary, Kensington, studied Philosophy at Mechlin, joined the Opus Dei Order at Engelen, 1878, ordained Priest, 1883. Professor in Apostolic Seraphic School at Brugge, 1885-9; came to India, 1889. *Address* Lawrence Road, Lahore.
- ELLIOTT, Lt.-COL. FRANCIS HARDING, C.B.I., I.A.**, Commissioner, Irrawaddy Division, Burma, since 1911, b. 1862. *Educ.* Harrow. Entered army, 1881, joined Indian Army, 1885, Burma Commission, 1888, Lt.-Col., 1907, served Burma, 1888-9. *Address* Irrawaddy Division, Burma.
- EVERSHED, JOHN, C.I.E., F.R.S., F.R.A.S.**, late Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, b. 1864. Assistant Director Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, 1908. Discovered radial movement in sunspots, 1909. Visited New Zealand to select site for Cawthron Observatory, 1914, undertook astronomical expedition to Kashmir, 1915. *Address* Highroom, Ewhurst, Surrey.
- EWBANK, ROBERT BENSON, B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1924), I.C.S.**, Deputy Secretary to Government of India, Dept. of Education Health and Lands b. 22 Oct 1883. m. Frances Helen, d. of Rev W F Simpson of Calbeck, Cumberland. *Educ.* Queen's Coll, Oxford. Asst Coll and Asst Pol Agent, 1907, Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Bombay, 1912-20, Secretary to Imperial Committee on Co-operation, 1914, Deputy Secretary to Gov of India successively in Commerce, Rev and Agric, P.W.D. and Education, Health and Land Departments. *Publications* Bombay Co-operative Manual and Indian Co-operative Studies. *Address* U.S. Club Simla.
- EWENS, STANLEY R.** (Adopted Indian name, Jaya Vams) Colonel, Salvation Army. Chief Secretary for Western India Territory, which includes all the Army's work in Bombay Presidency b. 15th Feb 1867. Became an officer of the S.A. in 1884 (out of Notting Hill, London). Has previously done S.A. service in South America, Ceylon and Great Britain and as under Foreign Secretary at the Army's International Headquarters and held important positions at the S.A. National Headquarters, London.
- FARIDKOT, H. H. FARZAND-I-SAADAT NISHAN HAJRAT-KABAR-I-HIND, BHAIR BARS, HAZAR INDIR SINGH BARADUR OF, b. 1915, s. in 1919** rules one of the Sikh States of the Punjab. *Address* Faridkot, Punjab.
- FARIDDOONJI JAMSHEDJI, NAWAB SIR FARIDDOON JUNG FARIDDOON DAULA, FARIDDOON MULK BARADUR, K.C.I.B., C.B.I., C.B.E.**, Member Extraordinary, H. E. H. the Nizam's Executive Council b. 1849. *Address* Saifabad, Hyderabad, Deccan.
- FATEH ALI-KHAN, HON HAJRAT, NAWAB KIRMANJI, C.I.E. b. 1862** s. to headship of Kirbaban, 1896. Placed himself and his great aim at disposal of Government for central campaign and induced many of tribes across border to adopt attitude of pacific non-alienation. For this service, received 8,000 acres of land in Chenab Canal Colony for settlement of his followers; has served on Punjab Legislative Council, representative of Punjab at Fasane Conference, 1897, Life President of Anjuman-i-Islamia, Lahore, and Imamia Association of Punjab, a Councilor of Al-Islam Chiefs' College, Lahore, Fellow of Punjab University, Trustee of Aligarh College, *Addr.* s. Nisior Ali Khan. *Address* Al-Islam Chiefs' Coll., Lahore.
- FAWCETT, THE HON MR. JUSTICE CHARLES GORDON HILL, Judge, High Court, Bombay, since April 1920 b. 28 June 1869. Educ. Harrow, Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1888. Under Sec. to Govt of Bombay, 1898. Acting Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, 1899. Remembrancer and Sec to Govt, 1904. Additional Judicial Commr., Sind, 1914. Judicial Commr., Sind, 1918. *Address* The Ridge, Malabar Hill, Bombay.**
- FAZULBHOY CURRIMBHOY, Sir (1913) C.B.E. (1920), Merchant and Mill-owner, b. 4 Oct 1872 m. Bai Sakinabai, d. of the late Mr. Datoobhoy Ebrahim. Educ. privately. Municipal Corporator for over 21 years, Chairman, Standing Committee (1910-11), President, 1914-15. Represented Bombay Millowners' Association on Bombay Prov. Council, 1910-12 and Bombay Mahomedans on Imperial Legislative Council, 1913-16, represented Bombay Corp. on Board of the Prince of Wales Museum of W. India. Hon. Secretary, Bombay Presidency War Relief Fund. Appointed by Government Member of various Committees and Commissions, chief being the Weights and Measures Committee, Committee on the education of Factory Employees, and the Commission for Life Saving Appliances, invited by Government to be one of the three delegates from India to the International Financial Conference at Brussels, convened by the Council of the League of Nations, 1920. Connected with many of the principal industrial concerns in Bombay, and a Member of the Local Board of the Imperial Bank of India, Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, 1914-15. An active Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners Association, being Chairman 1907-8. Fellow of the Bombay University Government Nominee on the Board of the Victoria J. Technical Institute. A keen advocate of education, particularly of Mahomedans. Member of the Anjuman-i-Islam, Bombay, a Trustee of the Aligarh College, a Vice President of the All India Muslim League, a Member of the Committee of the Moslem University Foundation Association. *Address* Sakina Mansion, Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.**
- FAZL-I-HUSAIN, THE HON Sir Mian, Kt. (1925), B.A. (Punjab), M.A. (Canisab.), Bar-at-Law (Gray's Inn), Minister for Education, Punjab Government b. 14 June 1877 m. eldest s. of Mian Nurahmad Khan. Educ. Abbottabad, Govt. College, Lahore, Christ's College, Cambridge. Practised in Sialkot 1901-5, in the Punjab High Court, Lahore, 1905-20. *Presdt.*, High Court Bar Association, 1919-20. Professor and Principal, Islamia College, 1907-8; Secretary, Islamia College, 1908-18; Fellow,**

Punjab University, 1909-1920, Syndic Punjab University, 1912, represented Punjab University on Legislative Council, 1917-20; President, All India Mahomedan Educational Conference 1922, started Muslim League, 1906, President, Punjab Prov Conference 1916, elected to Punjab Legislative Council 1920 Address 2 Lytton Road, Lahore, Brockhurst No 1 Simla E

WENTON DAVID ANDERSON (V D 1922) Chief Transportation Superintendent G I P Railway b 26 April 1868 m Joan Agnes d of Mr G A Anderson Secy to Govt F W D Madras Educ Duntrees Academy and Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College Chief Draughtsman and Loco Supdt South Indian Railway Co Dist Loco Supdt and Dy Loco Supdt Address Victoria Terminus Bombay

FILOSE LT COL CLEMENT MVO Military Sec to Maharaja of Gwalior since 1901 b 1853 Educ Carmelite Monastery Clonalkil, Carlow, College Entered Gwalior State service, 1872 Lt Col 1905 Assistant Inspector Gen, Gwalior Police and General Inspecting Officer 1898-97 A D C to the Maharaja Scindia, 1899-1901 Address Gwalior

FIRMINGEE, VEN WALTER K, F R G S Archdeacon of Calcutta since 1914 Editor of the Indian Churchman, 1900-05 Chaplain on Indian Establishment b 1870 Educ Lansing and Bury St Edmunds Merton Coll, Oxford D D, L B Honour School of Modern History Ordained Deacon at Hereford 1898, Priest in Bombay 1895 Sub-dean of Zankibar 1896 present at bombardment Government of India Historical Records Commission Editor of Bengal Past and Present 1907-19 Editor, Bengal District Records Address St John's House, Calcutta

FORD SIR REGINALD D S O (1890) C M G (1915), C B (1916), K C M G (1918) Com mandeur Legion d Honneur Leopold of Belgium American Distinguished Service Medal Grand Officer Crown of Italy Belgium and Avis of Portugal General Manager Dunlop Rubber Company India, Burma and Ceylon b Dec 7 1868 m Pearl Gertrude d of W Tothill Dudley Ohio U S A Educ Durham School Royal Marines (I I) 1889 B A S C 1904 S A War despatches 3 times D S O, Great War despatches eight times, C M G, C B Promoted Major General and K C M G Retired 1919 Owner of Balkan Estate, S Rhodesia Address C/o Dunlop Rubber Co P O Box 535, Bombay

FORSTER MARTEN ONSLOW Ph D (Wurzburg) D Sc (London) F I C F B S (1906) Director Indian Institute of Science Bangalore (1922) b 1872 Educ Private schools, Finbury Technical College Wurz burg Univ., Central Technical College South Kensington Asst Prof of Chemistry Royal College of Science, 1902-13 Director Salters Institute of Industrial Chemistry 1918-22 Hon Secretary Chemical Society 1904-10, Treasurer, 1915-22, Longstaff Medallist 1915, President of Chemistry Section, British Association, 1921 Publications Contribu

tions to Transactions of the Chemical Society Address Hebbal Bangalore

FOULQUIER, RE RAY EUGENE CHARLES, Vicar Apostolic of Northern Burma and Titular Bishop of Corydallus, since 1906, b 1866 Address Mandalay

FREELAND, MAJOR GEN SIR HENRY FRANCIS EDWARD, K C I E (1920), C B (1917), MVO (1911) D S O (1916), Officer of the Legion of Honour Agent, B B and O I Railway b 29 December 1870 m Ethel Louise, d of Col T Malcolm Walker, B A Entered B E 1891 Served in Chitral, with China Expeditionary Force and in European War Address Bombay

FREEKE COL GEORGE B A (Cantab) B Sc (Lond) ICS Director General of Commercial Intelligence India since 1921 b 8 October 1887 m Judith Mary Marston Educ Merchant Taylor's School London St John's College Cambridge Entered ICS 1912 Address 1 Council House Street Calcutta

FREMANTLE, SELWYN HOWE C I E (1915), CSI (1920) ICS, Senior Member, Board of Revenue, UP b 11 Aug 1869 m, to Vera d of H Marsh, C I E Educ Eton and Magdalen College, Oxford Entered ICS 1890 Settlement Officer Bareilly, 1896, Registrar, Co-operative Societies 1907, Magte and Collr Allahabad 1913 Commissioner Bareilly 1918 Controller of Passages, 1919 Commissioner, Meerut 1919 Member Board of Revenue UP 1920 Publications Ral Bareilly Settlement Report, 1896 Bareilly Settlement Report 1902 Report on Supply of Labour to factories 1906, A Policy of Rural Education 1916 Address Lucknow, UP

FRENCH, LEWIS, C I E, C B E, 1919 Financial Secretary (1920), b 26 October 1873, Educ Merchant Taylor's School St John's College, Oxford Assistant Commissioner Punjab, 1897 Colonisation Officer Chapab Colony, 1904-06 Director Land Records, 1906 Director, Agriculture 1907 Deputy Commissioner Shabpur, 1908 Chief Minister, Kapurthala State 1910-15 Special Commissioner Defence of India Act, 1915 Director, Land Records 1915 Additional Secretary, Punjab Govt, 1916-18 Ch Secretary, 1918-19, Addl Secretary 1919 and Chief Secretary, 1919-1920 Member, Punjab Legi. Council Address Lahore

FROOM, SIR ARTHUR HENRY, Kt Bsch (1922) entered service P & O S N Co, 1890 Superintendent P & O S N Co, Bombay 1912 Partner in firm of Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co Bombay, from 1916, Trustee Port of Bombay from 1912, Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1920 Member of Imperial Legislative Council, Govt of India 1920 Member of Council of State India from 1921 Member, Central Advisory Council Railways, India J. P. Bombay, b 16 January 1873 son of late Henry Froom, Educ St Paul's School, m 22nd Feb 1905 Edie, youngest d of late Thomas Bryant, F R G S Address Mont Blanc, Dadyneet Hill, Bombay

FYSON, PHILIP FULLY, M.A. (Cantab), F.L.S., Ag Dist Educational Officer, Ganjam.

- b 1877, m Diana Ruth Wilson, 1914 *Educ* Loretto School; Sidney, Sussex College, Cambridge, Professor of Botany, Presidency College, Madras, 1914-1921 *Publications* "Flora of the Nilgiri and Pulney Hill-tops, Vol I and II (1915) Vol III 1920 'Botany for India', Editor Journal of Indian Botany *Address* Presidency College, Madras
- GAGE, ANDREW THOMAS, C.I.E., M.A., B.Sc., M.B., F.L.S., Lt-Col., I.M.S., Director, Botanical Survey of India, Supdt. Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta, since 1908, b 1871, *Educ* Grammar School, Old Aberdeen, University of Aberdeen, Assistant to Professor of Botany University of Aberdeen, 1894-96, entered I.M.S. 1897, Curator of Herbarium, Calcutta, Botanic Gardens, 1898 *Address* Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta
- GAJJAN SINGH, SARDAR BHADUR O.B.E., Member, Legislative Assembly (1920) b Jan 1884 *Educ* Ludhiana and Lahore Practised at the bar from 1884 to 1920, was leader of Ludhiana District Bar Member Senate of the Punjab University, Member, Ludhiana Municipal Committee and District Board, Jagir and landholder, an Hon Extra Assst Commissioner awarded Sword of Honour and seat in Durbar for war services mentioned in despatches, Author of the Punjab Juvenile Smoking Bill, which was passed. *Address* Ludhiana
- GAME, AIR VICE MARSHAL PHILIP WOOLCOTT, O.B. (1919), D.S.O. (1915), R.A.F. Com manding the Royal Air Force in India since January 1923 b 30 March 1876, s of George Beale Game, Barn House, Broadway, Worces tershire, m 1908, Gwendolen Margaret a of the late Francis Hughes Gibb of Gunville, Manor House, Blandford, Dorset, two sons *Educ* Charterhouse. Entered B. A. 1895, Captain, 1901 Adjutant, 1902-5, Major, 1912, General Staff Officer 3rd and 2nd Grade War Office 1910-14, Director of Training and Organisation, Air Ministry 1919-23 won Gold Medal, United service Inst., 1911, served S. Africa, 1901-2 (despat ches, Queen's medal, 5 clasps), European War, 1914-18 (despatches 6 times), C.B., D.S.O., Bt Lt-Col. and Col., Order Crown of Italy, Officer Legion of Honour *Address* Headquarters R.A.F., Delhi and Simla
- GAMMON, JOHN CHARLES B.Sc. (Lond Univ) O.B.E. (Mil), 1918 Civil Engineer, Manag ing Director of Messrs J. C. Gammon Ltd b 2nd June 1887 m Edith L. Daniel (1922) *Educ* at Felsted School, Essex, and Central Technical Coll., S. Kensington and London University, also advanced Work shop Student, Woolwich Arsenal Specialised in Reinforced Concrete Construction with Messrs Leslie & Co. Kensington and as Assst Engineer, P.W.D. Bombay till 1914 (resigned) commissioned Sept 1914 and served with Royal Engineers in France from Feb 1915 till February 1919, promoted Major, awarded O.B.E. and two mentions in despatches, founded firm of J. C. Gammon, Ltd in May 1919 *Publications* Reinforced Concrete Design Simplified (Crosby Lockwood) *Address* Gammon Building, Newmont Road, Bombay.
- GANDHI, MOHANDAS KARAMCHAND, Bar-at-law (Inner Temple), b 2nd October 1869, *Educ* at Rajkote, Bhavnagar, and London Practised law in Bombay, Kathiawar, and South Africa Was in charge of an Indian ambulance corps during the Boer War and the Zulu revolt in Natal During the great war raised an ambulance corps and conducted a recruiting campaign in Kaira district Started and led the Satyagraha movement (1918-19) and the non-cooperation campaign (1930) in addition to associating himself with the Khilafat agitation (1919-21) Has cham pioned the cause of Indians abroad, notably those in South and East Africa Sentenced to six years simple imprisonment in March 1922 released Feb 4 1924 *Publications* Indian Home Rule Universal Dawn *Address* Satyagraha-shram Sabarmati Ahmedabad
- GANGA RAM, SIR, Kt. (1922), C.I.E., M.V.O., Rai Bahadur, M.I.M.E., M.I.C.E., b 1851, *Educ* Thomson College Entered P.W.D. 1873 Executive Engineer, 1885 Supdt Coronation Durbar Works, Delhi, 1903 retired, 1903 Supdtg Engineer, Peshwa State, retired, 1911, Consulting Engineer Delhi Durbar 1911 *Address* Lahore
- GEBBIE, SIR FREDERICK ST JOHN, Kt. (1925), C.I.E. (1920), Consulting Engineer to the Government of India, 1923 b 7 Aug 1871 *Educ* Edinburgh Collegiate School, Edin burgh Univ & B.I.E. College Joined P.W.D. as Assst. Engr 1893 Exec Engr, 1899 Supdt Engr, 1912 Chief Engr in Sind and Sec, Indus River Commn, 1915, Chief Engr and acting Sec to Govt of Bombay, 1918, Sec to Govt of Bombay, 1918, Chairman, Nile Projects Commission, 1920 Inspector-General of Irrigation, 1921-23 *Address* Simla
- GENNINGS, JOHN FREDERICK, Bar-at-Law (Middle Temple, 1911) Director of Infor mation Bombay, since December 1920 b 21 Sept. 1885 m Edith, d of T. J. Wallis, Esq., of Croydon, Surrey, and Aldeburgh, Suffolk *Educ* Aske's Hatcham and Dulwich Entered journalism in 1902 and served on the Editorial staffs of the Morning Leader, Star, Daily Mail and Daily Telegraph Army Office M.I. 7 b Propaganda Section, from Aug 1916 to Feb 1917 *Address* Secretariat, Bombay
- GEOGHEGAN, LT-COL FRANCIS EDWARD, C.I.E. Director of Supplies, G.H.Q. India b 14 August, 1869 *Educ* St. Charles College and B.M.O. Sandhurst m Miss L. L. Munn, 2nd Lt., Gloucestershire Regi ment, 1889, Indian Army, 1891 Served in N.W. Frontier Campaign, 1897, China, 1900, European War, 1914-18 (despatches). *Address* C/o Messrs King, King & Co., Bombay
- GEORGE, EDWARD CLAUDIUS SOUTHWY, C.I.E., Dy Commissioner, Ruby Mines, Burma b 1865. *Educ* Dulwich College. Asst. Commissioner, 1887-90, Officiating Dy Commissioner, Bhamo, 1890-97, Sub-Com missioner, Burmo-China Boundary Commis sion, 1897-99. *Address* Ruby Mines, Burma.

GHOSEAL, MRS (SHEMATI SVARNA KUMARI DEVI), d. of Maharshi Debendra Nath Tagore, and sister of Sir Rabindranath Tagore, b 1857, m. late J Ghoseal, Zemindar. Before twenty published a novel anonymously soon after became editor of Bharti (first woman editor in India), a Bengali magazine which she still conducts. Address Old Ballygunge Road, Calcutta.

GHOSE, TRIN HON MR JUSTICE CHANDRU CHUN DIX, Judge, Calcutta High Court, since July, 1919 b 4 February 1874 Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta m Nirmal Nolini, d. of the late Protap Chunder Bose Vakil, Calcutta, 1898 Called to the Bar in England, 1907 Address High Court, Calcutta

GHOSE RAI BAHADUR DEVENDRA NATH B A (Honours in Philosophy) Beerswar Mitter Gold Medal of Calcutta Univ (1911) Deputy Director of Commercial Intelligence and Director of Statistics with Government of India since 1921 b December 18 1868 m Miss Sushila Kumari Ray d of late Mr G C Ray Dy Auditor General Finance Dept Educ Hindu School General Assembly's Institution and Presidency College Calcutta Joined Finance Department Government of India 1891 Elected Fellow of the Royal Statistical Society London 1909 of the Royal Economic Society London 1911 and Member of the Board of Agriculture in India, 1921 and of the Indian Economic Association 1921 Publications Various departmental publications relating to Sea borne, Inland and Land Frontier Trade Agricultural Financial Judicial Industrial and Prices Statistics Address 26 Nyma Chand Dutt Street Calcutta

GIBBONS, THOMAS CLARK PILLING K C, 1915 Advocate General Bengal, since 1917 b 1868 Admitted a Solicitor 1891 called to Bar Inner Temple, 1897 Address High Court Calcutta

GIDHOUR MAHARAJA BAHADUR (CHANDRA MOULISHWAR PRASAD SINGH MAHARAJA BAHADUR OF GIDHOUR b 1880 m 1913 Has been a Member of District Board Monghyr Vice Chairman Local Board and an Honorary Magistrate with independent powers (to try cases singly) Member of Legislative Council Bihar and Orissa, since 1920 Ascended the Gadi on 21st November 1923 Is an enlightened leader of the aristocracy of the Province Title of Maharaja Bahadur made hereditary in 1877 Has a son and heir born 23rd January 1917 Address Srivillas Gidhour

GIDNEY, HENRY ALBERT JOHN, Lt-Col I.M.S. (retired) F.R.C.S. F.R.S. D.O. (Oxon.) F.R.S.A. (London) D.P.H. (Cantab) J.P. M.L.A. Gophthalmic Surgeon, b 9 June 1878 Educ at Calcutta Edinburgh E. College, University College Hospital London, Cambridge and Oxford Entered I.M.S. 1898 Served in China Expedition, 1900-01, N.E. Frontier, 1913 N.W. Frontier, 1914-15 (wounded) Publications numerous works on Ophthalmic Surgery President-in-Chief, Anglo-Indian and Disinfecting European Association, India, Member of Legislative Assembly Address 28, Theatro Road, Calcutta

GILBERT LODGE CAPTAIN EDWARD MORTON F.S.I. F.I.A. F.A.I. J.P., Land Manager, Development Directorate b 23 Jan 1881 m Miss May Spencer only d of I Spencer Esq of Norwood, London S.E. Educ at Sydney N.S. Wales Australia Private practices London 1903-1914 Royal Engineers, April 1915—May 1920 then retiring to Reserve with rank of Captain Asst Land Acquisition Officer Bombay May Nov 1920 Land Manager Development Directorate, Nov 1920 to date Address Connaught Mansions Colaba Bombay

GILES SIR ROBERT SIDNEY KT (1922), M.A. (Oxon) Bar at Law President Burma Legislative Council 1924 Educ Clifton Coll and Magdalen Coll Oxford Called to Bar by Middle Temple 1890 practised in Rangoon 1894 1924 Vice Chancellor Univ of Rangoon (1921) Address 5 Fraser Road Rangoon

GILLESPIE COLONEL R ST J C I.E. (1918) O.B.E. (1920) Chief Engineer Military Lands Scheme Bombay b 28th, Sept 1872 m Florence d of Capt H.H. Grenfell R.N. Educ Bedford and Dona 1st Commission Royal Engineers, 12th Feb 1892 Address 19 Queen's Road Bombay

GILLUM, SIDNEY JULIUS J.P. Managing Director, The Bombay Company Ltd, b 1 July 1876 m Dorothea d of C.S. Smith, some time H.M. Consul-General at Barcelona Educ Winchester and King's Coll, Cambridge 2nd Class Classical Tripos Dy Churn Bombay Chamber of Commerce and additional member Bombay Leg Council 1913-19 President Bank of Bombay July Dec 1920 Sheriff of Bombay 1921, Member Leg Council Bombay, 1921-22 Address C/o The Bombay Company, Ltd, Bombay

GILMORE, THE REV DAVID CHANDLER, M.A., D.D. K.I.H. Lecturer in English Literature Judson College Rangoon b 29 August 1866 Educ Rochester University U.S.A. m Gertrude Price Clinton Prof in Judson College 1890-96 Missionary at Tavoy and Hensada, 1897 1905 Prof in Judson College, 1906-22 Principal, Judson College, 1917 1920 Lecturer in English Literature in Judson College 1921-24 President of the American Association in Burma 1923-24 Publications Elementary Grammar of Sgaw Karen, Harmony of the Gospel in Sgaw Karen The End of the Law Address Rangoon

GLANCY, REGINALD ISIDORE ROBERT C.S.I. (1921) C.I.E. Agent to the Governor General, Central India (1924) b 1874 m Helen Adelaide d of Edward Miles, Bowen House Educ Clifton College, Christ Church, Oxford Entered I.C.S. 1896, Settlement Officer Bannu, 1903 Political Agent, 1907, First Asst Resident Hyderabad, 1909, Finance Member of Council H.E.H. the Nizam's Government 1911-1921 Resident in Baroda 1922 President Cabinet Jalpur 1923 Address Indore

GODFREY SIR GEORGE COCHRAN B.A. (Cambridge) A.M.I.C.E., Kt 1912, V.D. M.I.C. Agent Bengal Nagpur Railway, b 27 Sep 1871, m Mabel Knappard in 1900 Educ Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge Came to India in 1896 as Asst. Engt.,

- B. N. Railway** Worked on the construction of East Coast Railway for 5 years when transferred to Head Office at Calcutta and appointed Deputy Manager. Acted as Agent and confirmed in that appointment in 1910, during war appointed to the Railway Board and later became Coal Controller for India Member, Indian Railway Committee, 1920-21 Address: Bengal Nagpur Railway Offices, Calcutta
- GOLDSMITH, REV MALCOLM GEORGE**, Missionary of C.M.S. in Madras and Hyderabad, Deccan, b 1849 Educ. Kensington Proprietary Grammar School, St Catherine's College, Cambridge Ordained, 1872, C.M.S. Missionary, Madras, 1872-73, Calcutta, 1874-75; Principal, Harris School, Madras, 1883-91, Hyderabad, 1891-99, Hon Canon, St George's Cathedral, Madras, 1906 Address: Royapet House, Royapetiah, Madras
- GONDAL, HIS HIGHNESS THAKORE SHAH** BHAGWAT SINGH OF, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E., b 1865, s of late Thakore Sahib Sagramji of Gondal, m 1881, Nandkuberba, C.I., s of H. H. Maharaja of Dharampur Educ. Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot, Edin Univ Hon LL.D. (Edin) 1887, M.B. and C.M. (Edin) 1892, M.R.C.P. (Edin) 1892, D.C.L. (Oxon) 1892, M.D. (Edin) 1896, F.R.C.P. (Edin) 1895, F.C.P. and S.B. 1918, Fellow of University of Bombay, 1895 F.R.S.E., 1909, M.B.A.S., M.B.I. (Great Britain and Ireland) Publications: Journal of a Visit to England, A Short History of Aryan Medical Science Address: Gondal, Kathia war
- GODWIN, CHARLES ALEXANDER CAMPBELL**, Major General, C.M.G., (1918) D.S.O. (1917), M.G. Cavalry, Army Headquarters, b 1875 m Catherine, d of Colonel V. Millward, M.P. for Worcester Educ. at Westward Ho and Sandhurst Joined Suffolk Regt on unattached list in 1896, 1st Madras Lancers, 1896, transferred 3rd Punjab Cavalry, 1898, Waristrian Militia and Operations in Waristrian 1900, Staff College, 1908-09, Bde Major, Meerut Cavalry Brigade, 1910-12, Mhow, 1914, Great War, France, 1914-17, Palestine, 1917-19, War Office 1920, late A.D.C. to the King, Order of the Nile (3rd Class) 1918, Order El Nahda (2nd Class), 1918, French War Cross (1919), Commanded Scouderabad Cavalry Brigade, 1921-23 Address: Army Headquarters, Simla.
- GOODIER, THE MOST REV ALBAN, B.C.** ARCHBISHOP OF BOMBAY since 1919, b at Preston, 14 April 1869 Educ. Stonyhurst Entered the Society of Jesus, 1887 Joined the staff of St Xavier's College, Bombay, 1914, Rector and Principal of that College, 1918-1919 Address: Bombay
- GOSCHEN, HER EXCELLENCY LORD GEORGE JOACHIM OF HAWKESBURY, G.C.I.E., C.B.E.** (1916), Governor of Madras b 1866, s of 1st Viscount Goschen and Lucy, s of John Dalley, S. father 1907, m 1893 Lady Evelyn Gertrude Hardy, 5th d of 1st Mar of Cranbrook, two d. Educ. Rugby, Balliol Coll., Oxford, Was Private Secretary to Governor of N. S. Wales, and (unpaid) to his father at Admiralty, Joint Parliamentary Secretary, Board of Agriculture, 1918, M.P. (C.) B. Grinstead, Sussex, 1896-1906 A.D.C. to Lord Roberts, Commander-in-Chief, Lt-Col 2 5th Buffs East Kent Regt. Heir b Hon W. H. Goschen Address: Government House, Madras
- GOSWAMI, KUMAR TULSI CHANDRA, M.A.** (Oxon), Zemindar, Member, Legislative Assembly, son of Raja Kisorilal Goswami of Serampore, first member of Bengal Executive Council b 1896 Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta, Oxford and Paris Address: The Raj Barre, Serampore, Rainey Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta, Kamachha, Benares, Puri
- GOURE, SIR HARRY SINGH, K.T. (1925), M.A., D.Litt., D.C.L. LL.D.**, Member of the Legislative Assembly Barrister-at Law b 26 Nov 1870 Educ. Govt High School, Sangor, Hindlip Coll., Nagpur, Downing Coll., Cambridge, President, Municipal Committee, Nagpur, 1918-22 First Vice-Chancellor, and Hon D.Litt., Delhi University, re-appointed 1st May 1924 Publications: Law of transfer in British India, 8 vols (5th Edition), Penal Law of British India 2 vols (3rd Edition), Hindu Code, (2nd Edition) Address: Nagpur, C.P.
- GRACEY, HUGH KIRKWOOD, C.B.E. (1919), J.C.S. b 23 November 1866 Educ.** City of London School, St Katharine's College, Cambridge m Mabel Alice, d of the late G. F. Barrell Commissioner of Gorakhpur since 1916 Publication: Settlement Report of Cawnpore Address: Gorakhpur, U.P.
- GRAHAM ARCHIBALD KNIGHTLAY**, Director, Graham's Trading Co. Ltd b 27 Feb 1882 m Dorothy Shuttleworth Educ. Eton and Balliol College Oxford Address: Claremont, Malabar Hill, Bombay
- GRAHAM, REV JOHN ANDERSON, M.A. (Edin), D.D. (Edin), K.I.H. Gold Medal, C.I.E.**, Missionary of Church of Scotland, at Kalimpong, Bengal, since 1889, Founder and Hon Supdt of St. Andrew's Colonial Homes, b 1861 Educ. Cardross Parish School, Glasgow, High School, Edinburgh University m Kate McDonachie (K.I.H. gold medal) who died 1919 Was in Home O.S. in Edinburgh, 1877-82, graduated, 1885, ordained, 1889 Pub. Writings: "On the threshold of three closed lands" and "The missionary expansion of the Reformed Churches" Address: Kalimpong, Bengal.
- GRAHAM, LANGLIOT, B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E.** (1924), I.C.S., Joint Secretary, Legislative Dept., Govt of India (1921) b 18 April 1880, m Olive Bertha Maurics, Educ. St. Paul's School, London and Balliol Coll., Oxford, Entered Indian Civil Service, 1904, Asst Collector, 1904, Asst Judge, 1906, Asst Legal Remembrancer, Bombay, 1911, Judicial Asst., Kathiawar, 1913 Address: Grindlay & Co, Bombay
- GRAHAM, ROBERT ARTHUR, C.M.I. (1901)** Member of Council, Madras, Educ. Winchester and Brasenose College, Oxford, m. daughter of Sir James Thomson, K.C.B. Entered I.C.S., 1891, served in various

executive, judicial and administrative capacities in the Madras Presidency and Chief Secretary, Madras Government Address Secretariat, Madras

GRAHAME, WILLIAM FITZWILLIAM, I.C.S., Superintendent and Pol Officer, 8 Shan States, since 1922, b 1871 Educ at Charterhouse and Trinity Hall, Cambridge Address Taunggyi, 8 Shan States

GRAVES, HON SIR WILLIAM EWART, Kt (1924), Judge of Calcutta High Court, since 1914, b 1869 Educ Harrow, Koble College, Oxford Asst Master at Evelyns, nr Uxbridge, 1894-99, called to Bar, Lincoln's Inn, 1900 Address 2, Short Street, Calcutta, 83, Marlborough Place, N W

GREGGSON, LIEUT-COLONEL EDWARD GRISON O.M.G., 1917, C.I.E. Supdt of Police, N-W F Prov, b 1877 Educ Portsmouth Grammar School, Asst Blockade Officer Waxristan, 1900, Pol Officer, Mohamand Border, 1908, Commndt, Border Military Police, Peshawar, 1902-07, Fer Asst to Insp-Gen of Pol, N W F, 1907-9, on special duty Peralan Guil, 1909-12, Commissioner of Police, Mesopotamia

GRIFFITH, FRANCIS CHARLES, C.S.I. (1928) O.B.E. (1919), M.L.C. King's Police Medal (1916), Insp-Gen of Police, Bombay Presy, 1921 b 9 November 1878, m Ivy Morna, daughter of George Jacob, I.C.S. Educ Blundell's School, Tiverton Joined Indian Police, 1898, Commr of Police, Bombay, 1919-21 Address: Poona

GULAMJILANI, RAJMEKHAN, SARDAR NAWAB of Wai, Member, Legislative Assembly and First Class Sardar of the Deccan and a Treaty Chief b 28 July 1888 m sister of H H The Nawab Saheb Bahadur of Jaora Educ Rajkumar College, Rajkot Served in the Imperial Cadet Corps for two years, 1906-08, was Additional Member Bombay Legis Council, was elected Vice President, Bombay Presidency Muslim League and is permanent President of Satara District Anjuman Islam Address The Palace, Wai, Dist Satara

GUPTA, SRI KRISHNA GOVINDA, K.C.S.I., C.S.I. Bar, at Law, Middle Temple, 1878, late I.C.S., b 1851 Educ Mysmening Govt School, Dacca Coll, London University Coll Joined I.C.S., 1878, passed through all grades in Bengal, Secy, Board of Rev 1887, Commr of Excise, 1893, Divl Commr, 1901, Member to Board of Rev, 1904, being first Indian to hold that appointment Member, Indian Excise Committee, 1905, on special duty in connection with Fisheries of Bengal, 1906, deputed to Europe and America in 1907 to carry on fishery investigation, nominated to Indian Council, 1907, being one of two Indians who were for first time raised to that position, retired from India Office on completion of term, March 1915

GWALIOR, H H MAHARAJA SONDIA OF, G.C.V.O., G.C.S.I., G.B.E., Hon. LL.D., Camb, D.C.L., Oxon, Hon and Extra A.D.C. to King Hon Col, 1st D & O Lancers, 1906 b 20 Oct 1876, m 1886, made Hon Col, British Army, 1893, Maj-Genl, Lt-General, went to China as Orderly Officer to General

Gaselee, 1901, provided expedition with hospital ship, salute of 21 guns Was chiefly responsible for the purchase and upkeep of the hospital ship Loyalty, 1914-18 Address "Madho Bilas," Shivapuri, Gwalior, O.I.

HABIB-UL-LAH SAHIB RAHADUR, TMS HON KHAN RAHADUR SIR MUHAMMAD, Kt (1923), K.C.I.E. (1924), C.I.E. (1920) Member of the Viceroy's Council (1924) b 22 Sept 22, 1869, m Sadathun Nisa Begum Educ Zilla High School, Saidapet Joined the Bar in 1888, in 1897 was presented Certificate of Honour on the occasion of Golden Jubilee of the late Imperial Majesty Queen Victoria, from 1901 devoted whole time to local self government and held the position of Chairman of Municipal Council, Pres, Taluk Board and Pres, Dist Board Khan Bahadur, 1905 Member, Legislative Council, 1909-12, appointed Temporary Member, Madras Executive Council, 1919, was Commissioner of Madras Corporation, 1920 Gave evidence before Royal Commn on Decentralisation and also before Public Services Commn, served as a co-opted member on Reforms Committee, Member, Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India, Nov 1923 March 1924 and Member of Council of the Governor of Madras, 1920-24 Address Delhi and Simla

HADLOW, FREDERICK AUSTEN, C.V.O. (1922) M Inst C.E. M Inst Trans, V.D., A.D.C. Member, Railway Board b 8 Sep 1878 m Kate Louisa Margary Educ Branksome House, Godalming, 1888-1897, Charterhouse, 1897-1898, E I E College, Coopers Hill, 1902-05 Associate Coopers Hill, 1895 Appointed Asstt Engineer, State Rlys 1895, employed as Asstt Engineer on construction of new railways in Bengal, 1896-1902, Asstt Manager, E B Rly, 1902-1904, Asstt Secretary, Railway Board, 1905-1909, Manager and Engineer-in-Chief, B G I P Rly, Kathiawar, 1909-1911 Deputy Agent, N W Rly, Lahore, 1911-1916, Secretary, Railway Board, 1916-1919, Agent, North-Western Railway Address Morryn, Simla, W

HAIDER KARRAR JAFRI, SYED., Member, Legis Assembly and Asstt Manager, Court of Wards, Balarampur Raj b 8 Dec. 1879. Married. Educ Collegiate School, Balarampur, M A O Coll, Aligarh, Agra College and Midst's Accountancy Institution, Bombay, Member, Gonda Dist Board for six years, Member, Municipal Board, Balarampur, for 17 years, Hon Magte, Balarampur, for 12 years, Vice-Chairman, Balarampur Central Co-operative Bank, Member, Banking Committee, All India Shila Conference, Trustee, Shila Coll, Lucknow, President and Trustee of the Benhampur Girls' School, Member, Legislative Assembly Address: Balarampur, Dist Gonda (U.P.)

HAILEY, HAMPTY REGINALD CLODD, C.I.E., Director of Land Records and Agriculture, U.P. since 1912, Member of Lieut-Governor's Council Educ Merchant Taylor's School, St John's College, Oxford Entered I.C.S., 1892, Jt Mag, 1899, Dy Commr, 1903, Jt Sec, Board of Revenue, 1906. Address: Oudh.

MALIK, H. H. SIR WILLIAM MALCOLM, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.O.S. Governor of the Punjab, May 1924. Knight of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem b 1872, m 1896, *Address*, 4, of Count Hannibale Balsani, Italy Lady of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem, F.R.G.S. *Educ* Merchant Taylor's School, Corpus Christi College, Oxford (Scholar) Colonisation Officer, Jerusalem Canal Colony, 1902, Sec, Punjab Govt, 1907 Dy Sec, Govt of India, 1908 Member, Durbar Committee, 1911, Ch Commr, Delhi, 1912-19, Chairman, Indian Soldiers' Board, 1921, Finance Member Government of India 1919-22 Home Member Government of India, 1922-24 *Address* Lahore and Simla

HAJI WAJHUDDIN, M.L.A. Hon Magistrate, Hon Secretary Central Haj Committee of India, Proprietor of the firm Royal Pioneer Arms Co, Meerut b 1880 During Great Balkan War (1910-12) was Treasurer, Meerut Division Red Crescent Fund, during Great War (1918) worked as Hon Secretary, Meerut Cantonment War Loan Committee, liberal donations towards St John's Ambulance, Indian Soldiers, Imperial Relief Our Day, Peace Celebration Famine, In fluenza epidemic Ludovic Porter Hospital Lady Dufferin Hospital and many educational institutions Elected in 1916 to Meerut Municipal Board re-elected in 1919, elected in 1920 to Legislative Assembly, re-elected in 1923 *Address* "Pioneer House, Meerut Cantonment

HAKSAR, Lt-Col KAILAS NARAIN, B.A., C.I.E. Bahadur-Khas Bahadur, Pol Member, Gwalior Durbar, since 1912, b 1878 *Educ* Victoria College, Gwalior, Allahabad University Hon Prof of History and Philosophy, 1899-1902 Priv Sec to Maharaja Sindia in 1903-12, Under Sec, Pol Dept, on dep 1905-7, Capt, 4th Gwalior Imp Ser Inf, 1902, Lt Col, 1910, Sen Member, Board of Revenue, 1910-13 *Address* Gwalior

HALL, MAJOR RAULPH ELLIS CARR, C.I.E., I.A. Milly Aotia Dept, Field Controller, Poona, b 1873 Joined army, 1894, Major, 1912, served Tirah, 1897-98, European War, 1914-17 *Address* Field Controller, Poona

HAMILTON, C. J., M.A., F.R.S. Indian Educational Service, Prof of Economics, Patna College, Fellow of Patna University b 1878, *Educ* private tutor King's College, London, Calus College, Cambridge, graduated first class Moral Science Tripos, 1901, Member of Mosely Educational Commission to U.S.A., 1903, Member of Inner Temple, 1903, Dunkin Lecturer at Oxford University, 1912, Minto Prof of Economics, Calcutta University, 1912-19 *Publications* "Trade Relation between England and India." *Address* Patna College, Patna

HAR BILAS SARDIA, RAI SANH 1 R.S.I., M.L.A. F.R.S. Member, Legislative Assembly b 9 June 1887 *Educ* Ajmer Government College and Agra College Was a teacher in Government College, was transferred to Judicial Department in 1892, apptd guardian to H.H. the Maharaja of Jaisalmer in 1894, reverted to British service in Ajmer Marwar

in 1902, was Subordinate Judge, First Class at Ajmer till 1910 and was Sub-Judge at Judge, Small Causes Court, Beawar, 1921, Judge, Small Causes Court, Ajmer 1921-23, officiated as Addl Dist and Session Judge and retired in Dec 1923 Was elected a member of Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, Royal Statistical Society of London Statistical Association of Boston U.S.A. Royal Society of Literature, an Teachers Guild of Great Britain and Ireland is Secretary of Paropkarini Sabha of India *Publications* Hindu Superiority, Ajmer Historical and Descriptive Maharana Sangi Maharana Kumbha, Maharaja Hammal of Ranthambhor Prithviraj Vijaya *Address* Har Niwas, Civil Lines, Ajmer Rajputana

HARCHANDRAI VISHINDAS, B.A., LL.B. C.I.E. (1918), Mem, Legislative Assembly Pleader, Zamindar and Landlord b Apr 1862 *Educ* Elphinstone College, Bombay Elected Member, Karachi Municipality, 1888 1899, Legal Adviser, Karachi Municipality, 1899-1910, Again Elected Mem, Karachi Municipality, 1910-21, Pres Karachi Municipal, 1911-1921, Elected Member, Bombay Leg Council, 1910-1920, Chairman, Reception Committee, Indian National Congress, 1913, Pres, First Sind Prov Confee held at Sukkur 1908, Pres, Special Conference, Hyderabad on Reforms *Address* Lakshmidas Street, Karachi

HARI KISHAN KAUL RAI BAHADUR PAN DIT, M.A., C.S.I., C.I.E. Commissioner, Rawal Pindi Division 1924 b 1869 s of Raja Pandit Suraj Kaul C.I.E. *Educ* Govt Coll Lahore *Admt* Commr, 1907 Punjab Secy to Financial Commr 1893-97, Settlement Office Munafgarh 1898-1903, Mathwall 1903-8 Dy Commr 1906, Dy Commr and Supdt Census Operations, Punjab 1910-12 Dy Commr Montgomery 1913 on special duty to report on Criminal Tribes Dec 1913 April 1914 Deputy Commissioner for Criminal Tribes 1917-18 Dy Commissioner Jhelum 1919, Commissioner Rawal Pindi Division 1919-20 Commissioner Jullunder Division Novr 1920 to Novr 1923 Appointed to Royal Commission on Services, 1923 member, Economic Inquiry Committee, 1925 *Address* Rawal pindi

HARI SINGH, RAO BAHADUR THAKUR, OF SATTASAR, O.B.E., C.I.E. (1923). Military Member of the Bikaner State Council *Educ* Mayo College. *Address* Sattasar House, Bikaner

HARKISHAN LAL, (LALA) President, Reception Committee of the Congress, 1910, President, Industrial Conference held at Bankipur, 1912 gave evidence before the Industrial Commission, Member, Punjab Legislative Council, fellow Punjab University tried under Martial Law regime of 1919 and sentenced to transportation for life released Christmas 1919, appointed Minister 1920 *Address* Lahore

HARNAM SINGH, THE HON RAJA SIR, K.C.I.E., & 15 Nov 1851, s of late H H Raja Malgan Sir Raja Bandher Singh, Bahadur of Kapurthala, G.C.S.I. m 1875, Rani Lady Harnam Singh, 5 s 1 s, *Educ* Kapurthala. Managed Kapurthala Estates in Oudh

for over 18 years. Served as member of Hemp Drug Commission in 1893-94, and is Hon. Life Secy to B.I. Association of Talukdars of Oudh and Fellow of Punjab University, was member of Imp. Leg. Council and after wards of Punjab Leg. Council 1900-2, Member of the Council of State since 1920. Member of the Central Committee of the Lady Dufferin Fund. Created Raja 1907. Decorated for General Public Service, Raja hereditary (1922). Address Simla or Lucknow or Jullundur City.

HARRIS, DOUGLAS GORDON, Dip. Ing. (Zurich), M.I.E. (Ind.) Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour Public Works Branch. b 19 Oct 1883 m Alice d of Spencer Ackroyd of Bradford Yorks Educ Rugby School and Federal Polytechnic Zurich, Switzerland Asst. and Executive Engineer P.W.D. 1907-14 Under-Secretary to Government, U.P. P.W.D. 1915, Under Secretary to Government of India P.W.D., 1916 Secretary to P.W.D. Reorganisation Committee 1917, Under Secretary to Government of India, P.W.D. 1918 Asst. Inspector General of Irrigation in India, 1920 Secretary to New Capital Inquiry Committee 1922, Deputy Secretary to Government of India, P.W.D., 1922 Publications Irrigation in India (Oxford University Press) Address Holmeford, Simla.

HARRIS, LEONARD TATHAM, C.S.I. (1921), Member, Board of Revenue, 1921 Educ Falmouth Grammar School, Bath College, New College Oxford Entered I.C.S., 1891 Dist. Magte and Coll., Bangalore, 1899 Head Asst., 1902, Commissioner Coorg, 1905-12, Collector and Agent Vizagapatam, 1912-16, Member, Board of Revenue 1919, Agency Commissioner, 1920 Address Chepauk, Madras.

HARTLEY, LEWIS WYNN, C.I.E. (1918), Commissioner of Income-tax, Bombay Presidency b 1867, m to Annie, d of William Rowlands, Rofft Bangor, Wales Educated at private school, Address Bombay Club, Bombay.

HARTNOLL, SIR HENRY SULLIVAN, Kt., Chief Judge, Court of Lower Burma, since 1906, Barrister, 1898 Educ Exeter Grammar School; Trinity College, Oxford Entered I.C.S., 1881, served in Burma as Asst. Commissioner, Dy Commissioner, 1890, Commissioner, 1902 Address Chief Court, Rangoon.

HARTOG, PHILIP JOSEPH, C.I.E. (1917), Vice-Chancellor, Dacca Univ., since 1920, b 2 March 1864 m Mabel Helen, d of H. J. Knob Educ Univ. College School, Owens College, Manchester, Univ. of Paris and Heidelberg, College de France Asst. Lecturer in Chemistry, Owens College, 1891-1903 Lecturer in Victoria Univ., Manchester, 1898-1908 Secy to Mosely Comm. of Educational Inquiry, 1902-03 Secy to Treasury Committee on Oriental Studies in London, 1907-09 and to India Office Committee on same subject, 1910-17 Crown member and Hon. Secy. of Governing Body of School of Oriental Studies, 1916, Member of Calcutta

Univ. Commis. 1917-19, Academic Registrar, Univ. of London, 1908-20 Has published numerous works on educational subjects Address Ramna, Dacca.

HATWA, MAHARAJA BHADUR GURU MAHADEV ASRAM PRASAD SAHAY, b 19 July 1893, 8 Oct 1896 to the Gadi after death of father Maharaja Bhadur Sir Kishan Prasad Sahi, K.C.I.E., of Hatwa Address Bakhruva P.O., District Saran, Behar and Orissa.

HAY, ALFRED, D.Sc., Professor of Electrical Technology, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, b Russian Poland, 1886 Educ. School education received at one of Warsaw "Gymnasiums" University of Edinburgh, B.Sc., 1891, studied electrotechnology in London under the late Prof. Ayrton at Central Technical College, Darnestree, in Electrical Engineering at Univ. Coll., Nottingham, 1894, Lecturer on Electro-Technics at Univ. Coll., Liverpool, 1896-1901, graduated D.Sc., 1901 Professor of Electro-Technology, Cooper's Hill, 1901-04, Head of Physics and Elec. Eng. Dept., Hackney Technical Institute, London, 1904-06 Address Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

HAYE MIAN ABDUL B.A., LL.B., M.B.E. (1919) M.L.A. Vakil Lahore High Court b Oct 1888 Educ at Lahore Forman Christian College Passed LL.B. 1910, started practice at Ludhiana, elected Municipal Commissioner same year, elected Jr. Vice President 1911 which office he held till 1921 when he was elected senior Vice-President. Is first non-official President of Ludhiana Municipal Council to which office he was elected in 1922 Address President, Municipal Council, Ludhiana.

HAYWARD, THE HON. SIR MAURICE HENRY WESTON, Kt. (1923), I.C.S., LL.B. (Oxonab) Member Executive Council, Bombay, since Jan 1921 b 2 June 1868, s of the late R. B. Hayward, Esq., F.R.S., of the Park, Harrow, m to Alice Christine, d of the late Judge Barber, Q.C., of Ashover, Derbyshire Educ Harrow School and St. John's College, Cambridge, Assistant Collector Bombay, 1889, Under Secretary to Bombay Government, 1895 Judicial Assistant, Kathiawar, 1897, District Judge, Karachi, 1899, Legal Remembrancer and Secretary to Government 1905 Additional Judicial Commissioner, Sind, 1907, Acting Judicial Commissioner, Sind 1909, 1918 and 1916, Ag. Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1911, 1914 and 1915, Judge High Court, Bombay, 1918-1920 Address Secretariat, Bombay.

HEADLAM CAPT EDWARD JAMES, C.S.I. (1924), O.M.G. (1919), D.S.O. (1916), F.R.G.S., Director, R. Indian Marine, b 1 May 1873, m Nancy Benyon, widow of Stanley Hobson, Nigeria, Educ Durham School, H.M.S. Conway Sub-Lieut. R.N.M. 1894, Asst. Marine Transport Officer, N. China, 1900-01, R. Humane Soc.'s medal, Hon. Member, American Mty. Order of Dragon, China Medal, Served gun-running operations, Persian Gulf (medal with clasp), served European war (Despatches four times), Principal, Naval Transport Office, South and East

- Adrian Force, 1914-15; Star British and allied medals, Naval Transport Officer, East African Expeditionary Force, 1914-17, Principal, Naval Transport Officer, South and East Africa, (1917-19) Publications History of Sea Service under the Govt in India Address Bombay**
- HENDERSON, ROBERT HERRIOT, C.I.E., Tea Planter (retired) Supdt of Tarrapur Company's Tea Gardens, Cachar, Assam, Chairman, Ind Tea Assoc, Cachar and Sylhet Represented tea-planting community on Imp Leg Council, 1901-2, when legislation regulating supply of indentured coolie labour was under consideration Was Member, Legislative Council of E Bengal and Assam, President, Manipur State Durbar, 1917-19 Address Bengal Club, Calcutta**
- HENRY, WILLIAM DANIEL, C.I.E. Manager, Alliance Bank of Simla, Ltd., Simla, and Colonel Commanding Simla, I.D.F., V.D., A.D.C., b 1855 Educ Dr J Yeats School, Peckham Address Kelvin Grove, Simla.**
- HEPPER, SIR (HARRY ALBERT) LAWLESS, Kt (1918), Knight of Grace Order of St John of Jerusalem in England Director Bombay Govt Development Dept b 30 January 1870 m Kathleen Florence Keelan Educ Rossall and R.M.A. Woolwich Commissioned in Royal Engineers 1890 Joined N.W. Railway 1894 served with Chitral Relief Expedition 1895 Deputy Agent G.I.P. Railway, 1906 Retd from Army 1912, Agent, G.I.P. Ry 1911-1920 President, Indian Railway Conference Association 1916-17, Controller of Munitions Bombay, May 1917 to August 1918 Address Pedder Road Bombay**
- HICKLEY, VICTOR NORTH, C.I.E., V.D., Lieut-Col, Behar Light Horse, A.D.C. to Lt-Govt, Behar and Orissa, Indigo planter in Behar Educ Eton, Exeter College, Oxford Address Mousserpoore**
- HICKMAN, Lt-Col ROBERT ST JOHN, V.D., C.I.E., A.D.C., Comdt 2nd Burma Valley, L.H. (I.D.F.), Tea Planter Address Dwarband, P.O. Assam**
- HIDAYATALLAH, THE HON KHAN BAHADUR SHAH GULAM HUSSAIN, Minister, Govt of Bombay, b Jan 1879 Educ Shikarpur High School, D.J. Sind Coll and Govt Law School, Bombay, Pleader, Member and elected Vice-President, Hyderabad Municipality Presdnt., District Local Board, Hyderabad and Member, Bombay Leg Council, for past 8 years Address The Secretariat, Bombay**
- HIGNELL, SIDNEY ROBERT, C.B.I. (1922), C.I.E. Educ. Malvern, Exeter College, Oxford Entered I.C.S., 1896, Marine and Coltr., 1912. Dy Secretary, Govt. of India Home Dept., 1915-19, Officiated as Home Secretary on four occasions during that period, Private Secretary to H.E. the Viceroy, 1920 Address Delhi or Simla.**
- HODGKINSON SHIRLEY STEPHANIE MAUSWORTH, d. of the late William Willison MacQuillan, Esq. of Alloa, Scotland, J.P. Journalist, Municipal Councillor b 6 April 1897 m. in 1906 to Commander H. Hodgkin-**
- son, R.I.M. (Retd.), has one son, one daughter Educ in England and the Continent Conservative, Imperialist, is the first European woman elected Municipal Councillor in India, and the first woman appointed Hon Presidency Magistrate in Bombay Has worked for union and understanding between England and India and in various causes for the education uplift and welfare of Indian women and children Publications Numerous verses and contributions to English, Indian and American journals and magazines Address Apollo Hotel, Fort, Bombay**
- HOE, EDGAR, Lt Commissioner, Salvation Army, Northern Territory, Landed in 1889 Address Ferozepore Road, Lahore**
- HOLLAND, SIR ROBERT ERSKINE, K.C.I.E. (1925), C.B.I. (1921) C.I.E. (1917) C.V.O. (1922), V.D., I.C.S., Political Department, Government of India b 1873, s of Sir Erskine Holland, K.C., m 1910 Educ Winchester Oriel Coll., Oxford Entered I.C.S., 1895 Secretary, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1903 served Foreign Department of Government of India, 1904-08, Political Agent and Consul at Muscat 1908-10, Political Agent, Eastern States, Rajputana 1911-13, Deputy Secy, Govt of India, 1914 On political duty with Mesopotamia Field Force 1915 and 1917 Political Secy to the Govt of India 1919 Agent to Governor General Rajputana Dec 1919 Hon Colonel 11th Batin 4th Bombay Grenadiers (I.T.F.) Appointed to the India Council Dec 1924 Address The India Office**
- HOLME, HENRY EDWARD M.L.A. District and Sessions Judge Cawnpore b 7 March 1870 m Miss N. Lowie Educ Clifton and Trinity College Cambridge Assistant Magistrate Under Secretary to Government Magistrate and Collector and District Judge Address Cawnpore**
- HOOPER, REV WILLIAM, D.D., Missionary, C.M.S., Translator, Mussoorie, since 1892, b 1837 Educ Cheltenham Preparatory School, Bath Grammar School, Wadham College, Oxford Hebrew Exhibition, Sanskrit Scholarship 1st class in Lit. Hum. B.A., 1859 M.A. 1861, D.D. 1887 Went to India, C.M.S. 1861, Canon of Lucknow, 1906-1919, Vicar of Mount Albert New Zealand, 1889-90 Publications - The Hindustani Language, Notes on the Bible and many smaller works in English, Hindi and Urdu Address Mussoorie, India**
- HOOTON, MAJOR GENERAL ALFRED C.I.E. (1923) K.H.P. (1924) I.M.S. Surgeon General with the Government of Bombay b 1870 Educ Manchester Grammar School and the Owens College Manchester Tirah and Mohmand Expeditions 1894-8 Bushire Force 1918-19 Address 5 Queens Gardens, Poona**
- HORSKINS, JULIUS, Lt Commissioner, Salvation Army Territorial Commander for Bombay Presidency Has served as an officer for 48 years and seen Service in England, S. Africa, Australia and the British West Indies Address Morland Road, Brompton, Bombay.**

HOWARD, ALBERT, C.I.E., M.A., A.R.C.S., F.L.S., Imperial Economic Botanist to Govt. of India, & 1873. *Educ* Royal College of Science, London, St. John's College, Cambridge. First Class Hons Nat Science Tripos, 1896, B.A., 1899 M.A., 1902, Mycologist and Agricultural Lecturer Impl. Dept. of Agriculture for West Indies, 1899-1902, Botanist to South Eastern Agricultural College, Wye, 1903-1905 Was Director of the Institute of Plant Industry, Indore and Agricultural Adviser to States in Central India *Publications* Numerous papers on botanical and agricultural subjects. *Address* Pura, Bihar

HOWARD, SIR HENRY FRASER, K.C.I.E. (1923), C.I.F. (1913), C.S.I. (1919), First Division first class Classical Tripos, Part I, Finance Department, Government of India & 20 July 1874 m 1913, Mabel Rosa Roney Douglass (d 1923) *Educ* Aldenham School and Trinity Hall, Cambridge Entered Indian Civil Service, 1897, Under Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India, 1905, Collector of Customs, Calcutta 1909, Controller of Currency, 1914, Financial Secretary, Government of India, 1917, Temporary Finance Member of Viceroy's Council 1919, Representative of India at Brussels International Financial Conference 1920 Controller of Finance, India Office, 1920 Secretary, Indian Retrenchment (Inchcape) Committee, 1922-23 *Address* Simla and Delhi

HOWELL, GEORGE, B.A. (Oxon), M.A. (Camb.), B.Litt. (Oxon), B.D. (St Andrews), Ph.D. (Tubingen), Principal of Serampore College, Bengal, since 1906 & May 1871. *Educ* Gelliger Grammar School, Regent's Park and University Colleges, London, Mansfield and Jesus Colleges, Oxford, Christ's College, Cambridge Univ of Tubingen. Appointed by Baptist Missionary Society for Educational work in India, 1895 located at Cuttack, Orissa, engaged in High School and theological teaching, and general literary and Biblical translation work, 1895 1904 originated movement for reorganisation of Serampore College Angus Lecturer, 1909 published under the title 'The Soul of India' and Fellow of University of Calcutta, since 1913 *Address* Serampore College, Serampore, Bengal

HUDDLESTON, CAPTAIN ERNEST WHITESIDE, C.I.E., C.B.E., Deputy Director, Royal Indian Marine, Bombay 1924 & Aug 1874 *Educ* Bedford School Entered R.I.M. 1896, served Egyptian Camp, 1896-96, wrecked in Warren Hastings' troopship off Beunton, 1897, received Roy Humane Society's silver medal, and Lloyd's silver medal for saving life on this occasion, Lieut., 1900, served China Expedition (Boxer Rising), 1901-02, as Assist. Mar Transport Officer, Mar Transport Officer, Somaliland Expedition, and was in charge of landing operations in Obbia, 1902-4, Staff Officer, Bombay Dockyard, 1911 Commander, 1913, Captain, 1917 Senior Marine Transport Officer, Bombay, 1914-19 Royal Indian Marine Port Officer, Madras *Address* R.I.M. Dockyard, Bombay

HUDSON, GENERAL SIR HAVELOCK, K.C.I.E. (1919), K.C.B. (1918), Commanding in Chief, Eastern Command (1920) A.D.C. General, July 1922, & 26 June 1863 m. Kate, d. of late Major Hawkins *Educ* Reading School 2nd Battalion Northants Regiment, 1881-84, 19th Lancers (I.A.) 1885-1910 Served in N.W.F. Campaigns, 1889 and 1897, China, 1910, European War 1914-17 Mentioned in despatches five times, Commanded 8th Division in France Adjutant-General in India, 1917-20 *Address* Naini Tal or Lucknow

HUDSON, LESLIE SPWELL, Partner Mackinnon Mackenzie and Co., Bombay, & 25 Nov 1872 *Educ* Christ's Hospital Joined P & O S. N. Co London 1889 and came to their Bombay office 1894, subsequently stationed Japan (China and Australia) returning to Bombay 1915 Joined Messrs Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co., Oct 1916 Deputy Chairman Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1923-24 Chairman 1924-25 *Address* Mont Blanc, Dadysett Hill, Bombay

HUGHES MAJOR JOHN EDWARD, Secretary Western India Turf Club & 22nd Nov 1871, m Evelyn Daisy Brodric (July 1904) *Educ* United Service College, Westward Ho! Served 3rd Battn Royal Welsh Fusiliers 1890, entered Sandhurst 1891, commissioned 3rd Sept 1892, served with Northamptonshire Regiment 1892, joined 2nd Madras Lancers, 1893 retired from 2nd Madras Lancers 1911 apptd Secretary, W.I. Turf Club 1911, served in the war 1914 to 1918 in the Remount Department in India and Mesopotamia, mentioned in despatches *Address* Western India Turf Club, Poona and Bombay

HULL, REV ERNEST R. SJ., Editor of The Examiner from 1902 to 1924 & 9th September 1863 *Educ* Society of Jesus, English Province Came to India, 1902 and since then engaged in literary work in Bombay *Publications* The Examiner and a series of Examiner Reprints, on theological, historical and controversial subjects *Address* The Examiner Press, Meadows Street, Bombay

LUMPHREY, LIEUT. COLONEL SIR FRANCIS HENRY K.B.E. (1924) C.I.E. (1920) H.B., Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of H.M. The Amir of Afghanistan, Jan 1922 & April 24, 1879 m. Gertrude Mary Deane, d. of Sir Harold Deane K.C.S.I. *Educ* Shrewsbury and Christ Church Oxford, Joined 2nd Worcesters 1900 South African War, Joined 25th Punjab 1902 Entered Political Dept. Government of India, 1903, Dy Commr, Bannu and Kohat, Pol Agent, Tochi, Malakand Khyber Joined Royal Flying Corps in Europe March 1918 Dy Foreign Secretary Govt of India, 1921 *Address* British Legation, Kabul, via Peshawar

USRAIN, MOULVI AHMED, C.S.I., NAWAB AMRIN JUNG BAHADUR, Assistant Minister to H. H. Nizam, since 1914, and Ch. Sec. to Nizam's Govt., since 1896. *Educ*, Christian College, Presidency College, Madras Univ M.A., 1890; Dy Coll. and M., Madras Pres-

- decy, 1890-92, Asst Priv Sec to H. H. Nizam, 1893, F.S.A., 1912 F.R.A.S., 1914.
- HYDARI, A. B.A., NAWAB HYDAR NAWAZ**
JUNG BAHADUR, Finance Minister, Hyderabad, 8 Nov 1899, m. Amena Najmuddin Tyabji (Kaiser-I-Hind Gold Medal) Educ St Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Indian Finance Dept., 1898, Asstt. Acct General, U.P., 1899, Dy Acct General, Bombay, 1897, Dy Acct General, Madras, 1900, Examiner, Govt Press Accounts, 1901, lent as Acctt. General, Hyderabad State, 1905, Financial Secretary, 1907, Secretary to Government, Home Dept., (Judicial, Police Education, etc.), 1911, Ag. Director General of Commerce and Industries 1919 Accountant General, Bombay 1920 Finance and Railway Member, Hyderabad Executive Council, 1921 First President, Hyderabad Educational Conference in 1915 President, All India Mahomedan Educational Conference Calcutta (1917), Conceived and organised Osmania University, Hyderabad, organised State Archaeological Department Address Hyderabad, Deccan
- HYDERABAD, HIS EXALTED HIGHNESS ASAF JAH MURTAZA UL-MAMALIK NIZAM UL-MULK NIZAM-UD DAULA NAWAB MIR (SIR) OSMAN ALI KHAN BAHADUR FATEH JANG) OF, G C S I, (1911), son of the late Lieut. Genl Mir Sir Mahboob Ali Khan Bahadur G C B, G C S I, Nizam of Hyderabad b 1886, ed privately, Hon Col in the Army, and of 20th Deccan Horse Address Hyderabad, Deccan.**
- IDAR, MAHARAJA OF, since July 1911, MAHARAJA DEHRAJ MAHARAJA, SIR SHRI DOLAT SINGHJI, K C S I m Maharaniji Shri Poonjaniji Heir s Maharaja Kumar Himmat Singhji Address Himmatnagar (Mahikantia Agency)**
- IMAM, SYED HASAN, Barrister b 31 August 1871 Educ. Patna and in England Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1892 Practised at Patna and Calcutta until 1911 Judge of the High Court, Calcutta, 1912-18 Resumed practice at Patna, President, Special Session, Indian National Congress, September, 1918, President, All India Home Rule League, Delegate to London Conference on Turkish Peace Treaty, 1921 India's representative to the League of Nations, 1923 Address Hasan Munzil, Patna**
- IMPEY, LT-COL. LAWRENCE, C.S.I., C.I.E., Resident at Baroda, b 1862 Educ Marlborough, Sandhurst, Indian Army, 1885, employed under Govt of India in the Pol. Dept., 1887, has held appointments of Pol. Agent in Alwar, Bhopal, Eastern States, Rajputana, Bundelkhand, etc. Address Baroda.**
- INDORE, MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJAH DEHRAJ RAJ RAJESWAR SAWAI SHRI TEKOJI RAO HOLKAR, BAHADUR, b 1891, Educ. Mayo Chiefs Coll., Ajmere, Imp, Cadet Corps. Address Indore**
- JENES, THE HON. SIR CHARLES ALEXANDER, B.A. (Oxon.), K.C.S.I. (1924) C.I.E. (1919), Member (Commerce and Railways) of Governor General's Council b 27 Oct 1874 m Agatha Rosalie d of late Col E. F. Stevenson 4s 1d Educ Merchant Taylors School, London and St John's Coll., Oxford, Joined I.C.S., 1898, Asstt. Settlement Officer, Malabar, 1901 to 1905, Under Secy to Govt. of India, 1907-1910 Collector of Malabar, 1911-1915, Director of Industries and Controller of Munitions, Madras, 1916-19, Foodstuffs Commissioner, Govt of India, 1919, Secretary, Commerce Dept., 1920-21 Publications Malabar District Gazetteer Address Commerce Department, Government of India, Simla.**
- IRWIN, HENRY, C.I.E., M.L.C.E. b 1841 joined P.W. Dept., 1868, Consulting Architect to Govt., 1889, retired, 1896, Address Adyar House Adyar**
- ISHWARDAS LUKHMIDAS, J.P., Yarn Merchant, b 1872 Educ St Xavier's School For many years connected with Messrs David Sassoon & Co, was elected to Municipal Corporation by the Justices and later by Indian Chamber of Commerce which he represents on the Port Trust, Member, Managing Committee of the Society of the Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay and is on the directorate of several well known companies including the Port Canning and Land Improvement Company, the Sassoon Spinning and Weaving Company Ltd, and the Union Mills, trustee of Sir Hurklesondas Narottamdas General Hospital, and Treasurer for Pechey Phipson Sanitarium for Women and Children, Sheriff of Bombay 1924 Address Garden View, Hughes Road, Bombay**
- ISRAR, HASAN KHAN, KHAN BAHADUR, SIR, Home Member and President, Judicial Council, Bhopal b Shahjahanpur Educ Shahjahanpur, Bareilly Address Bhopal**
- IYENGAR, S. SRINIVASA b 11 September 1874 Educ Madras and Presidency College, Madras Vakil (1898) Member of Madras Senate, 1912-16, President, Vakils' Association of Madras, President, Madras Social Reform Association Member of All-India Congress Com. Advocate-General, Madras Publication a book on law reform (1909). Address Mysapore, Madras**
- IZZAT NISHAN, KHUDDA BAKSHAS KHAN TIWANA Nawab, Malik Dist Judge, Dera Ghazi Khan b 1866 Educ Government High School, Shahpore, private training through Col Corbyn, Deputy-Commissioner Appointed an Hon. Magistrate, 1881, Extra Asst Commr, 1894, British Agent in Kabul, 1903-06 Address Khwajabad, district Shahpore, Punjab**
- JACKSON, SIR JOHN ERNEST, KT. (1924), C.I.E. A.C.A. J.P., Acting Agent, B.B. & C.I., Railway, Bombay, b 26 November 1876 Educ Marlborough College Address Byculla Club, Bombay**
- JACOB, GENERAL SIR CLAUD WILLIAM, K.C.S.I. (1914), K.C.B., or 1917, K.C.M.G. or 1919, C.B., 1915, Indian Army, G.O.C. in Chief Northern Command since Oct. 1924, A.D.C. General to H.M. the King b 21 Nov 1843, m 1864 Clara Pauline, d. of Rev J. L. Wyatt, Rector of Brandon, Suffolk Educ. Sherborne**

School B.M.C. Sandhurst Entered army, 1882, General Staff Officer, 1st Grade, India, 1912, Brig. Gen. Commanding Dehra Dun Brigade, 1916, Commanding Meerut Division, 6 Sept. 1915, 21st Division 18th Nov. 1915, 2nd Army Corps, 28th May 1916, served Zhob Valley, 1890, N.W. Frontier, India, 1901-2 (medal with clasp) European War 1914-18 (C.B. wounded From Major General) Lieut. Gen. 3 June 1917 General 21 May 1920) Order of St. Vladimir 4th class with swords (Russia) despatches ten times Grand Officer de l'Ordre de la Couronne (Belgium) with Croix de Guerre Grand Officer de Legion d'Honneur France Grand Officer de l'Ordre de Leopold Distinguished Service Medal American Chief of the General Staff 1920-24

Address Army Headquarters, India

JADHAV THE HON. MR. BHASKARRAO VITHOJI BAO, M.A. LL.B. Minister of Education Bombay b. May 1867 m. a lady fr. the Vichare family of Ratnagiri District Educ. Wilson College Elphinstone College and Government Law School Served in Kolhapur State and retired as Revenue Member of the State Council Address Narayan Dabhalka Road Bombay

JAFFER HON. KHAN BAHADUR EBRAHIM HAROON Member of the Council of State b. Dec. 27, 1881 Educ. Deccan College Poona Landlord and Proprietor of Messrs Jaffer Jussuff & Co. President Anjuman-i-Islam Poona Hon. Secy. Islamia School Managing Trustee of Jame Masjid and trustee and member of other institutions and funds Organised Bombay Presidency Muslim League 1908 revived Bombay Presidency Mahomedan Educational Conference President All India Muslim Conference Lucknow, 1919 at which All India Central Khilafat Committee established Member Cantonment Reforms Committee, Member Bombay Legislative Council 1916-19 represented Bombay Presidency Mahomedans on the Imperial Legislative Council 1919-20 President 34th Session All India Mahomedan Educational Conference 1920 President Third Sessions All India Cantonment Conference 1922 Member of the Court Muslim University Aligarh Address East Street Poona

JAGANNARAYAN PANDIT Minister U.P. Govt. for Local Self Govt. and Public Health b. Dec. 1864 m. Srimati Kamalapati d. of P. Sham Narayan Sahib Raina Educ. Canning Coll. Lucknow Leader Criminal Bar first non-official (Chairman Lucknow Municipality Chairman Reception Committee 31st Indian National Congress Member Hunter Committee Address Gola ganj Lucknow

JAMES MAJOR GENERAL WILLIAM BERNARD C.B. (1918) C.I.E. (1912) M.V.O. (1911) Director of Remounts b. 8 Feb. 1865 m. Elizabeth Minto two s. Educ. U.S. College and Sandhurst 1st Com. mission in 1886 Derbyshire Regiment 1888 2nd Lancers Intelligence Branch War Office 1900 01 South African War 1902, various staff appointments in India A.Q.M.G. Coronation Durbar 1911, Commandant 21st Cavalry 1913-14, D.A. & Q.M.G. and

Brigadier General Gen. Staff Indian Cavalry Corps France 1914-16 (Despatches) Temp. Q.M.G. India 1916-17 Major General Administration Southern Command 1917-19, Commanding Bombay District 1919-22, Founder and President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India, 1923 Address Simla

JAMIAT RAI DIWAN RAI BAHADUR, C.I.E. b. 1861 m. 1891 Educ. Bhowan, Kohat and Gujrat Ent. Govt. Service, 1880 served in Political Office with Kuram F.F., 1880, accompanied Afghan Boundary Commission, 1885-1886 special duty boundary settlement of Laghari Barkhan, 1897 Asst. to the Supt. of Gazetteers of Baluchistan 1902-07 services acknowledged by Govt. of India, on special duty in connection with revision of Establishments 1910, Asst. to Supt. of Census Operations Baluchistan 1910-11, Ex Asst. Commr. 1902 Settlement Officer, Baluchistan 1912 Provincial Superintend. of census for Baluchistan 1920-22, President Hindu Panchayat and Sandeman Library Member Duffield Fund Committee, Member Prov. Council Boy Scouts Publications Quetta Municipal Manual History of Freemasonry in Quetta Reports on the settlement of Duki and Barkhan, Notes on (1) Domiciled Hindus (2) Hindus of Kandahar and Ghazni (3) Purbia menial castes and sweepers (4) Afghan Pawindahs (5) Achakzailathans (6) Shinwar (7) Shorard Valley and (8) Revenue rates and economic conditions Address Quetta

JAORA STATE MAJOR H. H. FAKHAR UD DAULA NAWAB SIR MUHAMMAD IFTIKHAR ALI KHAN BAHADUR SAULAT JANG K.C.I.E. b. 1883 H. H. served in European War Address Jaora State, Central India

JARDINE WILLIAM ELLIS C.I.E. F.R.G.S., M.R.S. b. 1867 Educ. Fettes College, Edinburgh Wren's Trinity College Cambridge Ent. I.C.S. 1888 joined Pol. Dept. of Govt. of India 1893 became 2nd Asst. Resident Hyderabad 1st Asst., Ag. to Govt. Gen. in Cent. Ind. and 1st Asst. Resident, Hyderabad Pol. Ag., Bundelkhand 1904-09, Malwa 1910-11 Resident Gwalior 1912-13 Baroda 1914 Gwalior since 1914 Knight of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem Address Gwalior

JATKAR BHIMRAO HANMANTRAO B.A., LL.B. Pleader and Member Legislative Assembly b. 24 April 1880 m. to Annapurnabai Jalkar Edu. at Basim A.V. School Amravati High School Ferguson College Poona and Govt. Law School Bombay Joined Yeotmal Bar in 1906 a Congressman working as one of the Joint Secretaries of the District Association, Yeotmal, since its inception in 1915 non-official elected Chairman Yeotmal Municipality, since 1919 Address Yeotmal (Berar)

JAYAKAR MUKUND RAMRAO M.A. LL.B. Bar at Law Mch. 18 Bombay Leg. Council Educ. at Bombay University Started a charitable public school called Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay worked there four years, practised as a barrister in Bombay High Court, took to

public life in 1916 and since 1921 completely in public life, elected to Bombay Legis Council in 1923 by the Bombay University Constituency, and is leader of the Swaraj Party in Bombay Council *Publication*— Edited a book on Vedanta Philosophy in 1924 *Address* 391, Thakurward, Bombay 3

JAYANTI RAMAYYA PARTURU, B.A., B.L. b Aug 1861, *Educ* at Rajahmundry and Madras, Served in Rev Deptt in Madras Presidency and retired as 1st Grade Depy Collr, 1917, acted as Presidency Magistrate Madras, for 3 years Member Legislative Assembly *Publications* A defence of literary Telugu and several articles on literature history and archaeology *Address* Mukthi-ram Tottaramudi P O Godavari Dist

JEELANI, DR HAJI SYED ABUL KHADER SAHEB, Member, Legislative Assembly and retired Medical Officer and Superintendent of District Jail b July 1867 m d of Subadar Major Yacoub Khan Saheb Sirdar Bahadur *Educ* at Saint Thomas Mount Madras Was Member Cantonment Committee for 14 years, member, district board for 12 years of which for 3 years was Vice President, and Hon Magte for Madras for seven years *Address* Saint Thomas Mount, Madras

JEFFERY, LIEUT COLONEL WALTER HUGH, C.I.E. (1914), C.B.I. (1924) General Staff Army Headquarters b 15 Dec 1878 m Chely Charlotte Cowdell *Educ* at Blundella Tiverton and Plymouth College *Address* Simla

JEHANGIR, SIR COWASJI, 1st Baronet, nephew and adopted son of late Sir Cowasjee Jehangir Ready money, C.B.I. b 8th June 1858 m 1878 Dhunbal, d of the late Ardeabir Hormusjee Wadia one s 2 d *Educ* Proprietary School Elphinstone College and University of Bombay Banker millowner and landed proprietor J P Delegate of the Parsee Matrimonial Court and Trustee and member of the Parsee Panchayat Appointed Sheriff of Bombay in 1919 has assumed the name of Cowasjee Jehangir Bart 1908 *Address* Ready money House, Malabar Hill Bombay

JEHANGIR, COWASJI (Junior), M.A. (Cambridge), C.I.E. (1920), O.B.E. (1918), Member of the Bombay Executive Council 1923 b Feb 1879 m to Hirabai d of H A Hormusji of Lowdi Castle Educated at St Xavier's College Bombay, and St John's College, Cambridge Partner in the firm of Cowasji Jehangir & Co Member of the Bombay Corporation since 1894, Chairman of its Standing Committee, 1914-1915 Member of the Bombay Improvement Trust, President, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1919-1920 Temporary Member of the Executive Council, Bombay (Dec 1921) *Address* Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

JEJEEBHAY, SIR JAMSETJI, 5th Baronet K.C.B.I. Vice-President, Legis Assembly b 6th March 1878, s father Sir Jamsetjee, 1908, and assumed the name of Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy in lieu of Ramtomejee, Head of the Zoroastrian Community in Bombay, Pres. of the Sir Jamsetjee Charity Funds, and Member of

Municipal Corporation m. 1906, Serenah Jalbhoy Ardesar Sett. *Address* Mungoo Castle, Bombay

JEVONS, HERBERT STANLEY, M.A., B.Sc. (Lond), F.G.S., F.B.S. Prof of Economic in Univ of Rangoon since 1923 b 8 Octobe 1876 *Educ* Giggleswick Gram Sch University Coll London Trin Coll Cambridge, Geol Inst Heidelberg, Univ Demonstrator in Petrology, Cambridge 1900-01, Lecturer in Mineralogy and Geology, and Asst to Prof T W Edgeworth David, F.R.S., in University of Sydney N S W, 1902-04, Lectr and later Fulcr Prof of Econ and Pol Science in Univ Coll of S Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff 1905-11, engaged in garden city and housing reform propaganda, 1911-14 Has under taken researches in rural economics, irrigation on periodicity in Economic Phenomena and Indian Currency and Finance 1916-1921 Until recently was editor of the Indian Journal of Economics and Hon Treas Indian Economic Association *Publications* Essays on Economics The Sun s Heat and Trade Activity, The British Coal Trade Consolidation of Agricultural Holdings in the U P Economics of Tenancy Law and Estate Management Money Banking and Exchange in India The Future of Exchange and numerous books, papers and articles on Petrology, Mineralogy, Economics Politics, Housing Reform etc. *Address* University College Rangoon

JEYPORE, MAHARAJA OF, Lieutenant Sri Sri Sri Maharaja Ramchandra Deo Maharaja of Jeypore Samasthanam, s of late Maharaja Sir Sri Vikrama Deo Bahadur K C I E, and late Sri Sri Sri Lady Seethapatta Maharani Ciror b 31st Dec 1893 *Educ* privately m 1913 Sri Sri Sri Lakshmi Patta Maharani Ciror d of the late Maharajah Sir Sri Bhagavat Prasad Singh Bahadur, K C I E, of Bikaner pur, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh First Landed Zamindar in the Madras Presidency owning about 14,000 square miles *Address* Fort Jeypore, Vizagapatnam Agency, Madras Presidency, India

JHALA, RAJ RANA SRI MANSHUJI SURAT-SINHI C.I.E. (1918) Dewan Dhrangadhra State and some time Member State Cabinet at Jalpur Rajputana *Educ* Dhrangadhra and Rajkot Was first Guardian to H H Maharaja Saheb of Dhrangadhra when he was Heir Apparent and accompanied him to England was afterwards for a few years in Government service and left it as Dy Superintendent of Police to join service in his parental State where he was for a year Personal Assistant to H H Maharaja Saheb and then his Dewan. Member of the State Council Jalpur from Dec 1922 to March 1923 *Address* Lal Bungalow, Dhrangadhra

JHALAWAR, H. H. MAHARAJ RANA SRI BHAWANI SINGH BAHADUR OF, K.C.B.I., b 1874, s 1899 *Educ* Mayo Coll Ajmer Has greatly extended education throughout the state and established several libraries Has travelled over a great part of Europe and has a taste for Music, Science and Literature Was a research Student at New Oxford College, Oxford, and is a fellow of

the Chemical Society and Vice-President of the India Society, Member, Royal Institution of Great Britain Royal Astronomical Society Royal Botanical Society Royal Aeronautical Society Royal Asiatic Society Royal Society of Arts League of Nations Union and Zoological Society London Publications *Travel Pictures Address Jabrapatan, Rajputana*

JIND, H. H. FARLAND-I DILBAND RASKEH-UL-ITKAD DAULAT-INGLISHIA, RAJA I RAJAN MAHARAJA SIB RANBIR SINGH RAJENDRA BHADUR LT COLONEL, G C I E, K C S I b 1879, s 1887 Address Sangrur, Jind State, Punjab

JINNAH MAHOMED ALI Bar at Law and Member, Leg Assembly b 25th Dec 1876 m d of Sir Dinshaw Petit Educ at Karachi and England Enrolled as Advocate Bombay High Court, 1906 Pte Secretary to Dadabhai Naoroli 1908 Member Imperial Legis Council 1910 President Muslim League (special session) 1920 Address Malabar Hill Bombay

JOGLEKAR, RAO BHADUR RAMCHANDRA NARAYAN, I S O B A, Chief Land Officer Tata Co, Coll Baroda State from Decr 1916 to June 30, 1920 Depy Coll First grade and Native Asst to Commr, C D 1901 16, some time Adv to Chief of Ichalkaranji, b Satara, 8th Dec 1858 Educ Deccan Coll Poona Held non gazetted appointments in Nasik, Satara, Ahmednagar, Poona and Sholapur Distrs, 1888 1899, Depy Coll 1899 Publications Land Revenue Code annotated up to 1st Octr 1920 Watan Act annotated up to 1st Sept 1920 Alienation Manual, Inspection of Revenue offices, Court fees in Revenue and Magisterial offices Address 203, Kala Haud, Shukrawar Peth Poona City

JOHN, SIR EDWIN, KT (1922), C B E, 1921. Kt of the Order of St Gregory the Great (Civil Order) 1901 Grand Commander St Sylvester the Great (1920) Cotton and Seed Merchant and Mill owner, b 3 August 1856 m 1879, Mary Sykes, Southport Lancs one d Educ Stonyhurst Address 49 Cantonments, Agra, U P

JOHNSTON, FREDERICK WILLIAM, C S I, C I E, I O B, in Pol Dept of Govt of India, Resident, Second class and Revenue and Judicial Commissioner in Baluchistan, b 2nd Nov 1872 Educ Kelvinside Acad, Glasgow, Trinity Hall, Cambridge (B A 1894) Asst Commr, 1896, went to N-W. Fron, 1899, and was employed there till end of 1911, Govt of India, Finance Dept, 1911-15, Ministry of Munitions, England, 1915 17 Address Quetta

JOSHI, SIR MOROPANT VISHWANATH, KT, B A, LL.B Home Member, Central Provinces, b 1861 Educ Deccan Coll Poona, and Elphinstone Coll, Bombay Practised as Advocate in Judicial Commr's Court in Benar from 1884-1920 Address Nagpur, C P

JOSHI, NARAYAN MALHAR, Member of the Servants of India Soc b June 1879 Educ Poona New English School and Deccan Coll Taught in private schools and Govt. High Schools for 8 years. Joined

Servants of India Soc, 1909 Sec, Bombay Social Service League, since 1911, and Sec Bombay Press Social Reform Assoc, since 1917, Sec, W India Nat Liberal Assoc since 1919 Was sent to Mesopotamia by Govt of India as representative of the Indian Press 1917, and in 1920 to Washington and in 1921 and 1922 to Geneva as delegate of the working classes in India to International Labour Confe Kalsari Hind Silver Medal (1919), Member of the Bombay Municipal Corpn since 1919 upto end of March 1923. Was awarded, but declined C I E in 1921 Nominated by Govt, a Member of the Legislative Assembly in 1921 and again in 1924 to represent labour interests Address Servants of India Society Sandhurst Road Bombay

JUGMOHANDAS VARJIVANDAS, Sir, Kt. Merchant and Landlord, b 1869 Educ Fort High Sch, Bombay Mem, Bombay Corpn, 1900-06, trustee of several charitable institutions Address Bombay

JUKLS JOHN LDWIR LAPHAM C I E (1921) Finance, Dept Govt of India b 1. Nov 1878 Educ Aldenham Sch, Pembroke Coll Cambridge Person Univ prizeman 1899 Chancellor's Classical Medallist 1902 m Marquitta Teasle d of the late James Stark of Reigate Address United Service Club Simla

KAUJJI, MR JUSTICE ARDEALI MAHOMEDALI, B.A., LL.B (Cantab., Bar-at-Law, Judge, High Court Bombay b 12 February, 1871 Educ St Mary's Institution, Byculla St Xavier's Coll Bombay, Downing Coll Cambridge and Lincoln's Inn Ord fellow syndic in Law of Bombay Univ President Anjuman Islam Bombay Vice President Islam Club and Islam Gymkhana Address Dilkhoosh Grant Road Bombay

KALE, THE HON MR VAMAN GOVIND Member of the Indian Tariff Board b 1876 Educ New English School and Fergusson Coll, Poona Joined the Deccan Education Socy Poona, as a life member in 1907 Fellow of Bombay Univ for five years since 1919 Prof of History and Economics Fergusson Coll Liberal in Politics has addressed numerous public meetings has published many articles on economics and political and social reform and the following works. Indian industrial and economic problems Indian administration Indian Economics Dawn of Modern Finance in India Gokhale and economic reforms, India's war finance Currency reform in India Constitutional reforms in India, etc Address Fergusson Coll Poona

KAMAT BAIKRISHNA SITARAM, B.A., Merchant and Contractor b 21 March 1871 Educ Deccan Coll m Miss Yammabai B M Gawaskar of Cochin Member, Bombay Legis Council 1915 16 1916 20, Member, Legislative Assembly 1921 23 Member Kenya Deputation to England 1928 Member of various educational bodies Has taken part in work for social and agricultural reform Address Ganeskhind Road, Poona, or Mathew Road, Bombay

KANDATHIL Most Rev. MAR AUGUSTINE, D.D. Archbishop Metropolitan of Ernakulam. Was Titular Bishop of Arad and Coadjutor with right of succession to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam since 1911. / (Chemp Vakkam Travancore) 2. Aug. 1874. Educ. Papal Seminary Kandy (Ceylon) Priest, 1901 Parish Priest for some time Rector of Prep Sem. Ernakulam and Private Sec. to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam to end of 1911. Rt. Rev. Dr. A. Pareparambil as 8 cond Vicar Apostolic 9 Decr 1919. Installed on 18 Decr 1919. Address: Archbishop's House Ernakulam Malabar.

KANHAIYA LAL, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE, Bai Bahadur M. A., I.L.B., Judge, High Court, Allahabad, b. 17 July 1866. m. Shrimati Devi d. of Vyas Gokuldasji of Agra. Educ. The Muir Central College, Allahabad. Joined the U.P. Civil Service on 22 April 1891 as Munsiff, acted as Subordinate Judge in 1907, appointed Asst. Sessions Judge with the powers of Additional District Judge in Feb. 1908, acted as District and Sessions Judge in 1910 and again in 1911, appointed Additional Judicial Commissioner Oudh July 1912, acted as Judge of Allahabad High Court in 1920 and subsequent years for different periods. Promoted Judicial Commissioner of Oudh in 1922. Appointed Judge of Allahabad High Court again in 1923. Publications: Elementary History of India, Dharma Shiksha or a treatise on Moral culture in the vernacular and A Note on the Reorganisation of the Judicial Staff. Address: No. 9, Elgin Road Allahabad.

KANAIKA, THE RAJA OF, HOW RAJA RAJENDRA NARAYAN BHANJA DEO BHADUR, O.B.E. d. of KANAIKA, M.L.C. b. 24 March 1881 m. d. of Feudatory Chief of Nayagarh, 1899. Educ. Ravenshaw Coll. Sch. Coll., Cuttack. Received management of Kilish Kanika from Court of Wards, 1902. Mem. of the Bengal Leg. Council, 1909-12. Mem. of Bihar and Orissa Leg. Council 1912-16. Member, Imperial Leg. Council 1916-20. Mem. Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council 1921-22. Mem. Indian Legislative Assembly, 1922-23. Pres., Orissa Landholders Assn. Vice Pres. Bengal Landholders Association, Vice President, Bihar Landholders Association, Mem. of Bengal Fishery Board. Mem. Roy Asiatic Soc. Member, Governing Body Ravenshaw College Cuttack, Fellow, Patna University. Address: Cuttack or Rajkanika, Orissa.

KAPURTHALA, H. H. JAGATJIT SINGH BHADUR, MAHARAJA RAJA RAJGAN OF, G.O.B.I., G.C.I.E., b. Sept. 1872, s. father, 1877. Address: Kapurthala, Punjab.

KARANDIKAR RAJHUNATH PANDURANG High Court Pleader Bombay Professor Law College, Poona, and Member Council of State b. 21 Aug. 1857 in Khadikar family adopted into Karandikars 1886. m. Sakhtul d. of Rao Saheb Gokte (1 Pandharpur (187-). Educ. at Satara and Poona Sub Judge (1884) Member Dhore Forest Committee (1885) visited England 1906, Member elected Bombay Legislative Council 1911 attended His Imperial Majesty's Coronation

at Delhi 1912, member of all Congresses and Committees 1886-1918 second visit to England 1918 opened first Indian Congress at Ilkaly Yorkkhre 1919 attended Ahmedabad Congress 1922 President Satara Dist. Swaraj Party. Publications: Note on Land Revenue Code and Note on Agricultural Associations in 1905. Address: Satara City.

KARALI, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ SIB BHANWAR PAL, DEO BHADUR, YADUKUL CHANDRA BHAI, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E. b. 24 July 1864. Educ. Mayo Coll., Ajmer s. 1886. Address: Karali, Rajputana.

KASHMIR Major General His Highness Sir Pratap Singh, Maharaja of Jammu and G.C.S.I. G.C.I.E. b. 1850 Succeeded to the throne 1885. Address: Srinagar Kashmir.

KASIMBAZAR, MAHARAJA SIB MANINDRA, (CHANDRA NARAYAN) G.C.I.E. Vice President, Bengal Landholders Association and British Indian Association. Educ. Hindu School. Was Member Council of State. Belongs to Madras School of Politics takes a keen interest in and is a patron of education, industries, agriculture, literature and politics. Publications: Upasani B. S. Panjika, The Indian Medical Plant A History of Indian Philosophy Great Sanskrit Granthas Part 10 of Srmat Bhikshu Fundamental unity of India History of Indian Shipping and Maritime Activity. Address: Kasimbazar B. N. 1.

KASTURBHAI TALBHAI SHETH, M.L.A. Mill owner b. 22 Dec. 1894 m. Shrimati Surti d. of Mr. Chhimul Vadilal Zaveri of Ahmedabad. Educ. at Gujarat College Ahmedabad Hon. Secretary Ahmedabad Jamine Relief Committee 1915-19 elected Vice President Ahmedabad Millowners Association, 1913-14 elected member, Legislative Assembly as a representative of the Millowners Association. Address: Linkers Nika Ahmedabad.

KAY JOSEPH ARDEN MICE, J.P. Managing Director W. H. Bray & Co. Ltd. b. 20 Jan. 1884 Educ. at Bolton Lancashire came to India to present firm 1907. Managing Director and Chairman of Board of the several companies under their control, Chairman Bombay Millowners Association 1911 and 1912. Employers Delegate to International Labour Conference, 1913. Officer in Bombay Light Horse. Address: Wilder n. 58 Cottage Napsa in Sea Road Bombay.

KAZI SYED, HIFAZAT ALI, B.A., LL.B., Minister for Local Self Government, Public Works Public Health, etc., Central Provinces, b. 1892. Educ. Jubbulpore, Aligarh and Allahabad. Elected President, Municipal Committee Khandwa, 1920. Address: Jubbulpore Khandwa.

KEATY EDWARD HERBERT, I.C.S. Resident at Baroda b. 1873 m. 1906 Tempe, d. of Sir Charles Bayley G.C.I.E., K.C.B.I. Educ. Felske and University College, Oxford entered I.C.S. 1897, Bengal 1897-1902. Joined Political Dept. Govt. of India, March 1902. Served in Rajputana, Central India, Ajmer-Merwara, N.W.F.P., F.A.A.G.G.,

Central India, 1904-06, Asst Sec Govt of India, Foreign and Political Dept, 1905, Census Superintendent, Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara, 1910-13, Secretary to Chief Commissioner, N W F P, 1915-20; Offg Resident, Gwalior, 1922, Resident, Baroda, June 1923
Address Baroda

KRANE, MICHAEL, C.I.E. (1921). Presdt, U.P. Legislative Council b 1874, m Joyce Lovett Thomas Educ Jesuit School, Clongowes Wood, and Univ Coll, Dublin Entered I.C.S., 1898 Has been Under-Sec to Govt, on deputation under the Govt of India for settlement work in the Tonk and Sirsi States in Rajputana, District Officer in Agra and Cawnpore, Judicial Sec to Govt, and Ch Sec to Govt Address Lucknow

KEELING, SIR HUGH TROWBRIDGE, K.T. (1923), C.S.I., 1915, A.M.I.C.E., Ch Eng., and Sec to Ch Commr Delhi since 1912, Mem of Delhi Imp Commn 1913, Mem, Institute Engineers (Ind) v 14 April 1885 Educ Marlborough and Cooper's Hill, m Edith, d of Col T O Underwood, late 4th Punjab Cavalry Asst Eng, Madras P W D, 1887, Exec Eng, 1898 Superintending Eng, 1910 Address P W D, Delhi

KEEN, LIEUT-COLONEL WILLIAM JOHN, C.I.E. (1916), C.B.E. (1920), Pol Dept, Government of India b 24 March 1873, m 1899, Marion Beatrice, d. of Col A McI Mills 37th Dogras two s two d Educ Haileybury College, R.M.C., Sandhurst Gaz to R. Welsh Fus, 1892, Trans to I.A., 37th Dogras, 1894, served Chitral Re Exp 1895 Joined Punjab Commn, 1898, Pol Dept, Govt of India 1901, serving in N.W. Fron Prov, served Kabul/Khel Exp, 1902, Mohmand Exp, 1908, Great War, 1914-18, Afghan War, 1919 Address Revenue Commissioner, Peshawar, N.W.F.P.

KEITH, THE HON SIR WILLIAM JOHN, K.T. (1925) C.I.E., 1917, I.C.S., M.A., Member and Vice-President of the Executive Council of the Governor of Burma and Finance Member of the Burma Legislative Council, 2nd January 1923 b 13 April 1873 m 1915 Isabel only d of Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt A.C.S.I. Lt-Govr of Burma (1910-15), one s one d Educ Edinburgh H Sch and Univ, Christ Church Oxford, Ent I.C.S., 1895, first in final Exam (1900) Sec to Fin Commr, 1899-1903, Sec Off 1907-10 Sec to Govt of Burma 1911 of Rev Secy, 1912-19 and Mem of Council 12 Lt-Governor, Commr, Magwe Divn 1919-21 Member, Indian Leg Assn mply Delhi sessions 1921 & 1922 Offg Development Commissioner Burma 1923, Financial Commissioner 1924, and Vice President of the Legislative Council of the Lieut Governor of Burma Address Prime House Rangoon, Midhurst, Maymyo

KELKAR, NARSINHA CHINTAMAN B.A., LL.B. (1894), M.L.A. Editor, Kesari, Poona b 24 Aug 1872 m Durgabai, d of Moropant Pendse Educ Miraj, Poona, Bombay Dist Court Pleader till 1896 editor, Maharashtra, Poona, from 1897 to 1919, editor, Kesari, from 1897 to 1899 and again from 1910, Municipal Councilor from 1898 to 1924,

President, Poona City Municipality in 1918 and again from 1922 to 1924, President, Bombay Provincial Conference 1920, Delegate and member of Congress, Home Rule League deputation to England in 1919, elected member of the Legislative Assembly in 1923 Publications Books in Marathi 6 dramas 1 historical treatise 1 treatise on Wit and Humour Biographies of Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Garibaldi, History of Ireland, in English Case for Indian Home Rule and Landmarks of Lokmanya's life Address 554, Sadashiv Peth, Poona City

K.P.M.P. THE HON MR JUSTICE NORMAN WRIGHT, Bar at Law (Inner Temple), Judge of the High Court Bombay b 29 October 1874 Educ the Collegiate Edinburgh and Inner Temple Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay, Chief Judge of Small Causes, Court, Bombay Addl Judicial Commissioner, Sind Address High Court, Bombay

KENYON, MAJOR GENERAL LIONEL RICHARD, C.B., 1917, R.G.A., Deputy Master General of Supply, 1924, s of J R Kenyon, K.C., D.C.I. of Pradoc, Shropshire, b 26 July 1867, m 1896, Elizabeth Jane, d of P C Sutherland, M.D., F.R.C.S., etc Surveyor General of Natal Educ Winchester, R.M.A., Woolwich 2nd-Lt R.A., 1887, Military Assistant to Chief Supdt, Ordnance Factories, 1905-7, Secretary, Ordnance Board, 1907-10, Deputy Director, Ordnance Factories, India, 1911-18, Director of Munitions Inspection in U.S.A., 1916-19 Director General of Ordnance, 1919-24 Address Army Headquarters, India

KELLY, SIR JOHN HENRY, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Governor of Assam since Oct 1922, b 1871 Educ Glasgow Academy and Univ, Clare Coll, Cambridge Joined I.C.S. 1892, Settlement Officer, Bihar, 1899, Coll of Midnapore, 1904 Dir of Land Rec, Bengal, 1905, Depy Sec, to Govt of India, 1907, Rev Sec to Govt of Bengal, 1911, Chief Secretary to Govt of Bengal, 1916, Member, Executive Council, Bengal, 1921 Publications Settlement reports of Saran and Darbhanga, joint-editor of Rampini's Bengal Tenancy Act Address Government House, Shillong, Assam

KETTLEWELL, ARTHUR BRADLEY, C.I.E., I.C.S., late Add Sec to Govt, Punjab Educ Cheltenham, New Coll, Oxford. Ent I.C.S., 1890, Pol Off, Wana, 1896-99, Depy Commr, 1903, Sec to Govt, Punjab, 1903-07 Address Lahore

KHAPARDE, GANESH SHRIRISHNA, B.A. (1877), LL.B. (1884) Advocate b 1855 m to Laxmi Bai Educ in Berar and Bombay Extra Asst Commissioner in Berar from 1885 to 1889, returned to the Bar, Vice Chairman of the Local Municipality and Chairman of the District Board of nearly 17 years Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council Member of the Council of State Address Amraoti, Berar, C.P.

KINCAID, CHARLES AUGUSTUS, C.V.O. Judicial Commr in Sind, acting Judge of the High Court, Bombay b 8 Feb 1870 Educ Sherborne Sch., Bathol Coll., Oxford Passed I.O.E. examination, 1890,

- came out to India, 1891, Pol Sec, 1910, Agent for Sardar in Deccan, 1914, Dist. and Sessions Judge, Satara, 1915-18, Addl. Jd. Commr. Sind, 1918, Judicial Commissioner of Sind, 1921, Made Officer of Instruction Public by the French Government, 1923. *Publications* Outlaws of Kathiawar and The Tale of a Tulsi Plant (Essays on Indian Subjects), Deccan Nursery Tales, 1914. The Indian Heroes 1915. Ishur Phakde 1917, Tales from the Indian Epics, 1918. A History of the Maratha People Vol I 1918, Tales of the Saints of Pandharpur 1919, Shri Krishna of Dwarka 1920. Hindu Gods 1920, Tales of King Vikrama 1921. Tales of Old Sind. The Anchorite History of the Maratha People Vol II, 1922. Our Parsi Friends, 1923, Tales from the Indian Drama, 1923. *Address* Bombay.
- KING, CHARLES MONTAGUE, O.S.I.** (1922) C.I.E. Depy. Commr., Punjab, since 1901. *Educ.* St Paul's School, Balliol Coll. Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1892. Depy. Commr., 1901. Commis. sioner, 1917. *Address* Lahore.
- KISHENGARH, H. H. MAHARAJA ADIRAJ MAHARAJA MADANSHINGH BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., K.O.I.E.** b Nov 1884, s father, late Maharaja Sir Bardul Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., cr 1892, m 2nd d of present Chief of Udaipur, served European War, 1914-15. *Address* Kishengarh, Rajputana.
- KISHUN PERSHAD, RAJA-I-RAJAT MAHA RAJA BAHADUR, YAMUNUS SULTANATH SIK, G.C.I.E., K.O.I.E.,** Peshkar, Hyderabad State, Deccan b 28 Jan 1884. *Educ.* Nizam Coll. Hyderabad, Min. of Mil. Dept. 1893-1901. Decorated for services rendered to the Hyderabad State. *Publications* 57 works in prose poetry, Persian, Urdu and Marathi. *Address* City Palace, Hyderabad, Deccan.
- KNAPP, SIR ARTHUR ROWLAND, K.C.I.E. (1924), O.S.I. (1922), C.B.E. (1919)** Member of the Executive Council (1922) Madras b 10 Dec 1870. *Educ.* Westminster School, Christ Church, Oxford, m Florence Annie d of the late Dr E. Moore. Princ. of St Edmund's Hall, Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. Entered Civil Service, 1891. Revenue Secretary to Government, 1907. Chief Secretary 1919. Reforms Commissioner, 1920. Temp. Member of Council in 1919 and in 1921. Special Commissioner for Malabar, 1921. *Address* Adyar House, Madras.
- KOLHAPUR, HIS HIGHNESS SIR SHRI RAJARAM CHHATRAPATI MAHARAJA** since 1922 C.I.E. (1924) b 30 July 1897 s of Col Sir Shahu Chhatrapati Maharaja of Kolhapur (d 1922) direct descendant of Shivaji the Great, the Founder of the Maratha Empire. m 1918 H. H. Shrimati Tarabai Saheb g d of H. H. Sir Sayajirao Maharaj Gaekwar. Ruler of Baroda. *Educ.* Privately in Kolhapur. Hendon School. studied agriculture at Ewing Christian College, Allahabad. *Address* Kolhapur.
- KOLLEN GODE, THE HON. RAJA VARADDEVA RAJA, VALIA NAMUNDI, O.C.I.E. (1915), F.R.M.U. (1921),** Landholder b Oct. 1873 m to C. Kalyani Amma, d of Mr K. Rama Menon, Chief Justice of Travancore. *Educ.* Rajah's High School, Kollengode, and Victoria College, Palghat. Senior member and manager of the aristocratic family of Vengad in Malabar, twice nominated as member of Madras Legislative Council, afterwards elected Member, Madras Legislative Council representing landholders, Member, Council of State (1922). Temp. Member, Madras Executive Council from Nov 1923 to April 1924. *Address* Kollengode Malabar Dist.
- KOTAH, H. H. LIMUT-COLOREL, SIR UMED SINGH BAHADUR, MAHARAO OF, G.C.B.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., K.O.S.I.,** Hon. Lt.-Col. in Army, Hon. Major, 42nd Deoli Regt. b 1873 s 1889, *Address* Kotah, Rajputana.
- KOTLA, HON. RAJA KUSHALPALINGH OF, M.A. (Cal.), LL.B. (All.) LL.D., Ph.D.,** Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly b 15 Dec 1872, s to Kotla estate 1905. Mem. of U.P. Leg. Coun. since 1909. Mem. of Imp. Leg. Coun. as Rep. of landed aristocracy of Prov. of Agra, 1913; Sp. Mag., Vice-Chairman of Agra Dist. Bd. Chairman of Ferozabad Mun. Trustee and Mem. of Managing Comm. of Agra Coll. *Address* Kotla Fort, P.O. Kotla, Dist. Agra, U.P.
- KRISHNAN, CHERUVANI, DEWAN BAHADUR, M.A. (Cantab.),** Bar at Law, Judge, High Court, Madras b 26 November 1868 m in 1895. *Educ.* High School Cannanore, Government College, Calicut, Presidency College, Madras, Christ's College, Cambridge, Government of India Scholar and Scholar Christ's College Cambridge. Joined Madras Bar, 1891. Acted as Prof. of Chemistry, Presidency College, Madras, Ch. Presidency Magistrate, Madras Ch. Judge, Court of Small Causes, Madras was Fellow, University of Madras. *Address* Shenstone Park, Harrington Road, Madras.
- KSHAUNISH CHANDRA RAY THE HON. MAHARAJA, BAHADUR of Nadia (Bengal)** Maharaja created 1911, Durbur Maharaja Bahadur created 1917. Member Bengal Executive Council in charge of Revenue, Irrigation and Forest Departments b 29 Oct 1890 m Jyotirmoyi Debi youngest d of late Raja Ashutosh Nath Roy of Kachumbazaar (Dist. Murshidabad). *Educ.* Privately. Only son of late Maharaja Kshitis Chandra Roy Bahadur of Nadia succeeded 1910. 24 was elected a Member of the first reformed Bengal Legislative Council from the Non-Mahomedan constituency of Nadia 1920-23. Member Bengal Executive Council since 1st Aug 1924. First elected non-official chairman of Nadia Dist. Board 1920-24. President Nadia Landholders Association. *Recreation* Photography. Shooting. *Address* The Palace, Krishnagar. Nadia House, 2, Bright Street, Dallygunge Calcutta.
- KUTCH, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ MEERAN MAHARAO SHERI KHEENGARJI SAWAI BAHADUR OF, G.C.B.I., G.O.I.E.,** b 28 Aug 1866, s 1876, m 1884. *Address* The Palace, Bhuj, Kutch.
- LAHORE, BISHOP OF, since 1918, RT. REV. HENRY BICKERSTETH DURRANT M.A., D.D.,** C.B.E. *Educ.* Highgate Sch., Pembroke Coll., Camb. Ch. Miss Coll., Lillingston. Curate of St.

Matthew's, East Stonehouse, 1894-95.
C.M.S. Missionary, Lucknow, 1896, St.
John's Coll, Agra, 1897. Vice Prin, 1900,
Prin, 1911, Fellow, Allahabad Univ, 1906,
served European War, Mesopotamia (Kut-el
Amara), 1915 (Despatches), 1918 (Despatches)
Address Bishopscourne, Lahore

LAJHMIDAS BOWEN TAIRSEE, B.A., Land-
lord and Merchant m. Ladkabal i R
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Trustee, Tilak Swaraj Fund, Member
Bombay Municipal Corporation and its
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VIRAJJI, C.S.I., 1911, b 1846 Address
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LAJSHMI NARAYAN LAL, Rai Sahib son of
Munshi Dyal Na ayan Lal, Pleader and Zem-
indar, b 1870 m to Srimati Navarani
Kunwer Educ at Aurangabad, Gaya and
Patna Passed pleadership examination in
1890 and since practising as a pleader at
Aurangabad and Gaya in the Province of
Bihar and Orissa Hon. organiser of co-opera-
tive societies, Director and Deputy Chairman
of the Central Bank, Aurangabad Chairman
of the Central Bank, and Local Board, Au-
rangabad, Chairman of the Divisional Co-
operative Federation Patna, a Councillor of
the Co-operative Federation Bihar and
Orissa a nominated member of the first Legis-
lative Assembly and Member National Con-
vention Publications Glories of Indian Me-
dicine Sahyog Samudrajatra Twelve Main
Points of Co-operation and Updesh Manjari
Address Aurangabad or Gaya (Bihar and
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AL, BAO BAHADUR BAKSHI SORAN M.L.A.
(non Mahomedan Constituency, Jullundur
Divn), Vakill, H Ct Lahore b 4 April
1857 Practised as Vakill in Kangra, Jullun-
dur and Lahore Elected Member, Punjab
Leg Council, 1912 and 1916 Address High
Court, Lahore

AL, PIYARE, Bar at Law, Member, Legisla-
tive Assembly b Jan 1890 Educ Mair
Central College, Allahabad Called to the
Bar in 1896, practised up to 1896 was Minis-
ter of Sialiana State, 1896-1900, Chief Justice
and latterly Judicial Member, Council of
State, Indore, from 1900 to 1906, travelled
round the world in 1913 Address Meerut

ATIF, CAMRUDIN AMIRUDIN ABDUL, B.A.,
late Mem of Sec of State's Adv Comm for
Ind Students, b Bombay, 28 Sept 1856
Educ Elphinstone Coll, Bombay, Bombay
Univ, practised as Vakill of Consular Courts,
Zanzibar and Mombassa, 1880-93, Legal
Adviser to successive Sultans of Zanzibar
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ATTAR, BAO BAHADUR ANNA BABAJI, M.A.,
LL.B. (Bombay), Vakill b 1878, m to
Jyotsnabai Kandre of Kolhapur Educ
Deccan College, Poona, Prof of English
Bajaram College, Kolhapur, 1907-1911,
Educational Inspector, Kolhapur, till 1914,

President, Southern Mahratta Jain Associa-
tion and Karnatak Non Brahman League,
Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly,
1921-23 Publications "Introduction to
Jainism" (English), "Growth of British
Empire in India" (Marathi), "Memoirs
of Shahu Chhatrapati" Address Belgaum

LAWRENCE, HENRY STAVELAND, C.S.I.,
Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, Member of Exec
Council, Bombay, since April 1921 b 20 Oct
1870, m to Rosemond Napier, d of Col R.
Napier, late Carabineers Educ Hailybury,
Magdalen College, Oxford Arrived in India,
1890, Under Sec and Sec to Govt. of
Bombay, 1897-1902, Dir of Land Records
and Agriculture, 1902-06, Collr in Sind,
1906-13, Commr Southern Divn, 1914-16,
Commissioner in Sind, 1916-20, Ch Sec to
Govt, 1920-21 Publications Paper on
Indian Agriculture before the Royal Society
of Arts, 1909 Address Secretariat, Bombay

LEITCH, CHARLES GERRARD, C.B.E. (1919).
Indian Trades Agent, East Africa,
b 31 July 1872, m Evadne Fawcett of
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Entered I.O.S. 1896 Served in C. P. Ad-
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1873 Educ Sherborne School Address
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LEIGH, EDMUND WILLOUGHBY, B.A. (Oxon),
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the Government of Madras Revenue Depart-
ment b 28 March 1874 m Baroness Elisabeth
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Malvern Sch and Univ Coll, Oxford apptd,
after exam of 1896, arrived 6th December,
1897 and served in Madras as Asst Collr
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1907 Sub Collr and Joint Mag May, 1910,
Collr and Dist Mag, Dec 1915 Address.
Secretariat Madras

LESLIE-JONES, FREDERICK ARTHUR, C.B.E.
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1874 m Christians Mary Baskett, Educ.
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College, 1897-1904 Prin, Aitchison College,
Lahore, 1904-1917. Publication A View
of English History Address Mayo College,
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LEVETT YRATS, GERALD AYLMER, C.I.E.,
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LEWIS, ARTHUR CYRIL WENTWORTH, B.A.,
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(1923) b Oct 4, 1885, m 1923 Jocette Eugenie
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Student of the Inner Temple Started
journalism in 1909 on the staff of the
Nottingham Daily Express, literary editor
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1910-1914, on Editorial staff of The Times,
1914 and 1919-1923, special correspondent
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Correspondent in Paris, Great War saw service in France, Egypt, Palestine and Salonika, Lieut.-Col. A.D.A.P. & S.S. Egypt and Salonika. Address: The Englishman Ltd., 9, Hare Street, and The Bengal Club Calcutta.

LAWSON, FREDERICK, C.B.E. (1923), I.C.S. Chief Secretary to the Government of Burma b 28 July 1878 m Edith Lillian Clementson Educ. St. Paul's School London Trinity College, Oxford Came to India in the I.C.S. in Dec 1902 Address: C/o Messrs T. Cook & Son, Phayre Street Rangoon.

LEY ARTHUR HERBERT CIE (1918) Secretary to Government of India Department of Industries and Labour 1923 b 7 November 1879 Educ. Winchester and New College, Oxford Entered I.C.S., 1903 Director-General, Commercial Intelligence, 1914-16 Address: Simla.

LINDSAY, DARYL, C.B.E., M.L.A. b Nov 1865 Secretary Calcutta Branch, Royal Insurance Co. Address: 26, Dalhousie Square Calcutta.

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LINDSAY RATH Secretary and Treasurer Imperial Bank of India Bombay b 1880 m to Jean d. of Alan MacDougall Montrose Educ. at Montrose Academy 11½ years Commercial Bank of Scotland Montrose Glasgow Edinburgh Mumb. Institute of Bankers in Scotland Joined Bank of Bombay 1901, Agent of various branches was Inspector of Branches at date of formation of Imperial Bank by amalgamation of Banks of Bengal Bombay and Madras apptd Deputy Secretary 1923 Secretary and Treasurer 1924 Member Bombay Stock Exchange Inquiry Committee, 1928 Address: Warden Road Bombay.

LITTLEHAILES, RICHARD, D.P.I., Madras 1919; b 14 February 1878 Educ. Balliol Coll., Oxford and King's University Demonstrator and Lecturer, Cavendish Laboratory, Oxford Joined I.E.S., 1903 as Prof. of Mathematics, Presidency College, Madras Address: Moore Road, Madras.

LOHARU, THE HON. NAWAB SIR AMIR UD-DIN AHMED KHAN BAHADUR, K.C.I.L. Member Council of State and Persian and Urdu Poet b 1860, s 1884 Buling Chief of Mohal tribe Abdicated in favour of his heir apparent and successor in 1920, voluntarily retaining titles and 9 guns salute as personal distinctions. For two years Member of Imp. Leg. Council and for two years Mem. of Punjab Council Superintendent and Adviser to the Maharajah State in the Punjab for 12 years. Attached to Pol. Dept. in Mesopotamia Address: Loharu, Hissar.

LOHOKARE, DR. KRISHNAJI GOVIND, B.A. (1908), Medical Practitioner and Member Legis. Council b 18 April 1884 m Ambubal,

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LUCKNOW, BISHOP OF, BT. REV., GEORGE HERBERT WESTCOTT, D.D. (1914) Educ. Marlborough Peterhouse Cambridge, (M.A.) 1889 Ordained 1888 (Consecrated Bishop 1910 Publication: Kabir and the Kabir Panth Address: Bishops' Lodge Allahabad.

LUNAWADA, HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SIR SHRI WAKHATIRJI DALJISIRJI, RAJAH OF, K.C.I.E. b 11 Aug 1860, s 1867, a Virpura Solunkl Rajput, Educ. Rajkumar Coll. Rajkot Address: Lunawada, Rewa Kantha, Bombay.

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LYTTON 2ND EARL OF P.C., G.C.I.E., Governor of Bengal (1922), b Simla, 9th Aug 1876, s of 1st Earl and Edith, d of Hon. Edward Villiers mace of 4th Earl of Clarendon s father 1891 m 1902 Pamela, d of late Sir Trevor Chichele-Plowden two s two d (chairman of the Royal Commission for the Brussels Rome and Turin Exhibitions, 1910-1911 Civil Lord of the Admiralty 1919, Additional Parliamentary Secretary to the Admiralty, 1917, British Commissioner for Propaganda in France 1918, Civil Lord of the Admiralty 1919-20 Chairman of Trust Houses Ltd. President of Hampstead Garden Suburb Trust Ltd. and of Welwyn Garden City, Ltd. Under-Secretary of State for India, 1920-22 Publication: Life of Edward Bulwer, First Lord Lytton, 1913 Address: Government House, Calcutta.

McCARRISON, LIEUT. COLONEL, ROBERT, I.M.S., M.D., D.Sc., Hon. LL.D., F.R.C.P. (London), Foreign Associate Fellow College of Physicians (Philadelphia), Laureate Academy of Medicine, Paris Hon. Surgeon to Viceroy, Kaiser-i-Hind (1st Class), 1911, C.I.E. (1923), In charge, Deficiency Diseases Inquiry Indian Research Fund Association, Pasteur Institute, Coonoor b 15 March 1878 m Helen Stella, 3rd d of J. L. Johnston, I.C.S. (Retd.) late Judicial Commissioner, Sind Educ. Queen's College, Belfast Graduated M.B. Bch., B.A.O. (1st Class Hon. and Exhibition) (1900), M.D. (Hons.) 1900, M.R.C.P. (Lond.), 1909, D.Sc. (Belfast) 1911, F.R.C.P. (Lond.) 1914, Entered I.M.S., 1901 Military Lecturer, College of Physicians, London,

1913 Mellon Lecturer University of Pittsburgh U.S.A. 1921 Mary Scott Newbold Lecturer C.P. Philadelphia 1921 Hanna Lecturer, Cleveland Ohio U.S.A. 1921 May Foundation Lecturer Rochester in U.S.A. 1921 Arnott Memorial Gold Medalist Irish Medical Schools and Graduates Association 1921 Prix Amussat Academy of Medicine Paris (1914) Laureate of the Academy of Medicine Paris (1914) Stewart Prize for Research British Medical Association (1918) Foreign Associate Fellow College of Physicians of Philadelphia (1922) Hon LL.D. Queen's University Belfast 1919 Brevet Lt. Colonel (1918) for distinguished Service in the Field *Publications* The Thyroid Gland in Health and Disease London 1917 Studies in Deficiency Disease London 1921 Numerous scientific papers on the physiology and pathology of the thyroid and parathyroid glands and on disorders of Nutrition in Proc Roy Soc Proc Royal Soc Med Indian Journal Medical Research etc *Address* Pasteur Institute Coonoor South India

LACARTNEY SIR GEORGE KCIE CIE Brit Con Gen at Kashgar Chinese Turkistan since 1911 b Nankin (China) 19 Jan 1867 *Educ* Dulwich Coll France Bache Her 6a Lettres de Université de France Ent service of Govt of India 1889 received thanks of Government of India 1906 *Address* Kashgar Chinese " " " " Gilgit (Kashmir)

LACGLASHAN JOHN M Inst C F MIE (Ind) Chief Engineer Calcutta Port Commissioners b 24 Sep 1874 m Grace Isabel Fraser *Edue* Aberdeen *Address* Port Commissioner's Office Calcutta

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ACKENZIE LIEUT COLONEL JOHN CIE Indian Army Military Secretary to H. L. The Earl of Lytton Governor of Bengal (1922) b 21 Sep 1876 m Dorothy Helen d of Col W. G. Massey C.M.G. one's only daughter *Educ* Merchiston Castle Sch B.M.C. Sandhurst Comptroller of Household to following Viceroy of India Earl of Minto 1097-10 Lord Harding 1910-16 Lord Chelmsford 1916-12 *Address* Govt House, Calcutta

ACKISON JAMES WALLS BSc (Edin) M Inst, C.E. J.P. CIE (1921) Special Engineer Development Works to Bombay Municipality since 1920 b 18 Dec 1869 *Educ* Dundee Institution St Andrew's University and Edinburgh University Civil Engineer with Dundee Municipality from 1886 to 1906, Consulting Engineer in Private practice, 1906-11 Executive Engineer, Bombay Municipality 1911-1920 *Address*, The "Grange, Wodehouse, Road, Bombay.

MACLEOD HON SIR NORMAN CRANSTON, KT (1919) Chief Justice, Bombay, 1919. b 10 July 1866 *Educ* Wellington Coll. New Coll Oxford Called to Bar, 1890, Off. Assignee Bombay 1900 Mem of Imp Leg. Council 1908 Puisne Judge High Court, Bombay 1910-19 *Address* Mount Pleasant Road Bombay

MACNAGHTEN SIR HENRY PELHAM KT. (1920) Merchant and Sheriff of Bombay (1925) b 4 September 1880 m Frances Cropper d of the Very Rev The Dean of Gibraltar *Educ* Eton and King's College, Cambridge East India Merchant since 1902 Partner Wallace & Co Bombay *Address* Wallace & Co Bombay

MACPHERSON THE REV EARL MONTREY, MA B.D. Hon D.D. (Edn) 1922 C.B.E. (1919) C.I.E. (1924) Vice Chancellor of the Madras University (1928) Member Council of State (1924) b Jan 31 1861 m Mary, elder d of late James Melles Stuart of Erskine, Argyllshire *Educ* Edinburgh Academy, Edinburgh University New College Edinburgh Jena Tubingen and Berlin Universities Ordained Missionary of Free Church of Scotland 1890 became Prof of Hist and Economics Madras Christian College Fellow of Madras University 1899 Mem of the Syndicate of Madras University 1906, Representative of Madras University on the Madras Legislative Council 1909 and 1919, Chairman Madras Publicity Board 1916 Principal Christian College Madras, 1921 Member Madras Legislative Council 1921-22 *Address* College Road Madras Bendorloch Kodakanal South India

MACTAGGART, COLONEL CHARLES, CSI, 1919 C.I.E., Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, U.P. b 1861 *Educ* Campbelltown Gram Sch Glasgow Univ, Ent I.M.S. 1886 Insp Gen of Prisons, 1902, Mem Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08 Mem of U.P. Leg Council, 1909 *Address* Lucknow

MACWATT THOM HON, MAJOR GENERAL SIR ROBERT CHARLES KT (1926) C.I.E. M.B.B.Sc. M.R.C.P.E. F.R.C.S., F.Z.S., K.H.S. Director General Indian Medical Service Member of the Council of State m 1889 Blanche Mathilde, d of the late General Sir F. Blythe C.B. Entered I.M.S. 1887 became Major, 1899, Lt Col 1907 Col 1918 Major General, 1923 Hazara Expedition 1888 (medal with clasp) Lushai Expedition 1888 (clasp), Miranzai Expedition 1891 (clasp) Hazara Expedition 1891 (clasp) apptd Chief Medical Officer Rajputana 1914 Asst Director of Medical Services Derajat Brigade 1916, Inspector General Civil Hospitals, Punjab, and Administrative Medical Officer, N.W. Hy 1918 Director-General Indian Medical Service 1923 Has Kaiser Hind Gold Medal *Address* Simla and Delhi

McKENZIE THE REV JOHN M.A. (Aberdeen) 1904 Senior Cunningham Fellow New College Edinburgh 1908 Principal, Wilson College Bombay b 18 June 1838 m Agnes Ferguson Dinnes *Educ* at Aberdeen University, New College, Edinburgh Tubingen University Ordained 1906, Appointed Professor

- in Wilson College, 1908. Appointed Principal 1921. Fellow of the University of Bombay Publications: Hindu Ethics (Oxford Univ. Press) Address Wilson College House Bombay
- MOLFEY, ROBERT, B.Sc.,** Edinburgh, Agent, G.I.R. Railway, b 3 Feb 1884. m. Evelyn Noel Girard Educ Edinburgh Academy, Edinburgh University Address Malabar Hill, Bombay
- MOPHERSON, SIR HUGH K.C.I.E. (1924)** C.S.I. 1919 B.A. Member of Excc Council Bihar and Orissa since April 1921 b 3 May 1870 Educ Paisley Gram Sch Glasgow Univ Balliol Coll Oxford Passed into 1008 1889 arrived India 1891 Settlement Officer Santal Parganas 1898 1905 Director Land Records, Bengal, 1907 12 Rev Sec, Behar and Orissa, 1912 1915, Ch. Secy, Bihar and Orissa, 1915-1919, Mem., Board of Revenue, Patna, 1919, Secretary to Govt of India Home Dept. 1919 20 Vice-President and Member of Executive Council Bihar and Orissa 1921 Address Patna and Ranchi
- MOWATERS, ARTHUR OMEL, C.I.E. (1918)** I.C.S., Secretary to the Govt of India Finance Department (1923) b 18 September 1880, m. Mary, only d of Sir Stephen Finney C.I.E. one s Educ Clifton, Trinity College, Oxford, 1st Class (Classical Moderation 1st Class, Lit Hum Joined I.C.S. 1904 Served in the U.P. Under Sec Government of India Department of Commerce and Industry 1910-18 Wheat Commissioner 1915 Controller of Hides and Wool, 1917, Chairman Board of Special References, Excess Profits Duty Act, 1919 Secretary to Government of India, Secretariat Procedure Committee-1919. Represented Govt of India on Commercial Mission to Persia 1920, Controller of Currency, 1920-23 Address The Sec retariat, Delhi or Simla
- MIVER, JOHN ALEXANDER I.S.O.,** Supdt Govt Photo-dieographic Dept, Bombay, O.S. Land Rec Dept, since 1906 b 10 Sep 1859 Educ privately, Yorkshire Joined the R.O.S., 1880 Address Poona
- MADHAVA RAO, V.P., C.I.E.** For 34 years in service of Mysore State in important capacities, being Mem of Council of Regency, 1898-1902 Member of Excc Council and Rev Commr Dewan of Travancore, 1904-06, Dewan of Mysore, 1906 09 Address Tanjore
- MADHAVILAL, SIR CHINUBHAI, Bt.,** see Bunchorelal
- MADRAS, BISHOP OF,** since 1923, Rt Rev Edward Harry Mansfield Waller M.A. (Oxamb), b 8 Dec 1871 Educ Highgate Sch Corpus Christi College Cam Ordained 1894, Principal, St Paul's Divinity Sch., Allahabad, 1903, Sec. C.M.S. Indian Group, 1913, Canon of Lucknow, 1910-15, Bishop of Tinnevely, 1915 1922 Address Sullivan's Gardens, Royapettah, Madras
- MADHRY, SIR JOHN LOADER, K.C.V.O. (1881), C.S.I. (1920), O.I.E., I.C.S.,** Ch Commr, N.W. Frontier Province b 1 July 1877 Educ Rugby, Christ Church, Oxford Med. I.C.S., 1899, Private Sec. to Lord

Chetmsford, Chief Sec. to H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught during his tour in India Address Peshawar

- MAGNIAO, BRIG-GENERAL SIR CHARLES LAKE, C.M.G. (1916),** Brevet, 1918 C.B.E. (1919) Kt (June 1923), Legion d Honneur Officer (Jan 1919), Agent Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway b 14 Dec 1873 m Letitia Anne Knolles d of T.H.W. Knolles Esq., of Outlands Kinsale Cork Ireland Educ United Services College Westward Ho Royal Engineers 1894 Indian Railways Sep 1896 to August 1914 Great War France from Sept 1914 to Armistice A.D.R.T. and D.D. R.F. Afghan War 1919 A.H.Q. Simla Address Rostrevor Cathedral P.O. Madras
- MAHABOOB ALI KHAN MAHOMED AKBAR KHAN M.L.A.** First Class Sardar (1921), Cotton Commission Agent Hubli b 1878 Educ at Hubli Started business in cotton in 1896 extended same from time to time, created a cotton market at Savanur by establishing Ginning and Pressing factories there also started ginning factories at Ranebennur and Guttal convenient places for marketing cotton in the interior is an advocate of improved methods and machinery for agriculture and himself a cultivator on a large scale cultivating about 600 acres of land on improved lines and demonstrating its benefits to the other rayats of his place and neighbourhood is President Hubli Anjuman-i-Islam working for the educational social and material uplift of Mahomedans Publications Kanarese translation of Mr G.F. Keatinge's Rural Economy in the Bombay Decan Address Opposite Native General Library Hubli Dist Dharwar
- MAHALANOBIS, S.C., B.Sc. (Edin) F.R.S.E., F.R.S.,** Prof of Physiology, Presidency Coll (Calcutta since 1900) Fellow Moderator and Syndic Calcutta University President, Board of Higher Studies in Physiology (Calcutta University b Calcutta 1897 m 1902 fourth d of Keshub Chunder Sen and sister of H.H. the Maharani of Cooh Behar Educ Edinburgh Univ Publications Muscle Fat in Salmon Life History of Salmon New form of Myograph Teachers' Manual Text Book of Science Address 210 Cornwallis Street Calcutta
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- MAHOMED USMAN, Khan Bahadur, B.A.,** Kaiser-i Hind 2nd Class (1923), Landlord and Medical Practitioner, Sheriff of Madras (Dec 1923) b 1884 m d of Shifa-ul Mulk Gynolabidin Sahib Bahadur, B.A. Educ Madras Christian College. Councillor, Corporation of Madras since 1913. Hon Pres. Magte, 1916-20, Fellow of the Madras Univ., 1921-22, Member, Town Planning Trans since 1921, Chairman of Committee on Indigenous Systems of Medicine 1921-23 Member, Publicity Board, 1918 and 1921-23 Member, Cinema Board since 1921, Hon.

Sec. Muthalpet Muslim Anjuman, Madras since 1913 Hon Visitor Govt Mahomedan Coll since 1919 and Hon Visitor Government School of Arts and Crafts 1923 Member Madras Exercise Licensing Board since 1922 Gave evidence before the Reforms Committee and the Jail Committee Elected Member Madras Legis Council 1921 23 Address Hakim Mansil Poyham a Broadway Madras

MAHUMUDABAD, RAJA OF, SIR MOHAMMAD ALI MAHOMED KHAN, KHAN BAHADUR K C S I K C I E Home Member Executive Council of the U P Government 1921, Hon Secretary, Lucknow University, Collection Committee President All India Educational Conference Vice-Chancellor of Allahgarh Univ b 1877 Educ privately Address Mahmudabad House, Kaiserbagh, Lucknow

MAHMOOD SHAHMAD, SHAH BAHADUR Landholder Member Legislative Assembly (re-elected in 1923) and Member 8 Kanara Dist Board b 7 March 1870 m 1896 to Mrs Maryam Shahmad Educ St Aloysius Coll Mangalore and Christian Coll Madras Served on the South Kanara Dist Board for about 12 years Hon Magte since 1913 Pioneer of Moplah education in 8 Canara Started Madras Moplah Amelioration Committee in 1922 Address Sea View Kasargod 8 Kanara

MAHOMEDALI KHAN BAHADUR NAWAB SYED, I.R.O. Ent Govt Service 1873 Insp Gen of Registrars, Bengal retired, 1913 a distinguished Urdu scholar and dramatist wrote The Nawabi Darbar, and Adventures of Notorious Detective in English Address 4 Ballygunge Calcutta

MAJITHIA THE HON SARDAR BAHADUR SUN DAR SINGH C I E (1920) Revenue Member, Government of Punjab b 17th Feb 1872 m grand daughter of Sardar Sir Attar Singh, K C I E, Chief of Bahadur (Patiala State) Educ Punjab Chiefs College and Government College, Lahore Worked as Hon Secretary of the Khalsa College Amritsar for 11 years and Hon Secretary Chief Khalsa Diwan a representative body of the Sikhs from its inception in 1902 to the close of 1920 Address 27 Lawrence Road Lahore and Majithia House, Albert Road, Amritsar (Punjab)

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MAJAVIYA PANDIT MADAN MOHAN M.L.A. b Allahabad 25 Dec. 1861 Educ Sanskrit at the Dharma Jnanopadesh Pathshala, Govt High School, Muir Central Coll Allahabad B.A. (Calcutta), Schoolmaster 1885-87, edited the Indian Union and the Hindustan, 1885-1889 LL.B. Allahabad Univ, 1892, Vakli High Court Allahabad 1893, Member, Prov Leg Council, 1902-12, President of Indian National Congress 1906 and 1918 Member Imp. Leg Council, 1910-1919 Member Indian Industrial Commission 1916-18, President, Sewa Samiti, Prayag, Chief Scout, Sewa Samiti Scouts Association,

Vice-Chancellor, Benares Hindu University since 1919 President Hindu Mahasabha 1928' 24 Address Benares Hindu University

MAJLER KOTLA, HON KHAN, SIR ZULFIKAR ALI KHAN, K C S I, C.B.I., estate holder in Majer Kotla State, Member of Imp Council representing Mohammedan Community of Punjab Ch Minister of Patiala State, since 1911, b 1875, Educ Chiefs Coll, Lahore, Cambridge, Paris Address Lahore

MAJLIK MOHAMMED UMAR HYAT KHAN (TIWANA) COLONEL THE HON SIR, K C I E, C.B.E., M.V.O. Member of Council of State, 1921 b 1875 Educ Chiefs Coll, Lahore One of largest landholders in Punjab Attached to H M the Amir, 1907, Deputy Herald, Delhi Durbar 1911 Member of Imperial Council, 1910-1921 Address Kakra, Bhabpur

MAJLIK, DEVENDRA NATH, B.A. (Cantab), Sc D (Dub) F.R.S.E. Prof of Physics and Mathematics Muslim University Aligarh since 1908 b Bengal 1866 Educ St Xavier's Coll, Calcutta Univ Coll London Peterhouse Cambridge Publications Numerous works on Mathematics and Physics Address Aligarh U P

MANGALORE R C BIRHO OF see Perini.

MANIPUR, H H MAHARAJA CHURA CHAND SINGH C B E b 1880, m March 17, 1905 Educ Mayo College, Ajmer s 1891 State has area of 8 000 sq miles, and a population of 384 016 Salute 11 guns Address Imphal Manipur, State Assem

MANX, HAROLD HART D Sc, F.I.C., F.L.S., Kaiser-i-Hind Medal (1st Class) 1917, Director of Agriculture Bombay Presidency, b 16 Oct 1872 Married Educ Elmfield Sch York, Yorkshire Coll, Leeds, Pasteur Inst, Paris Chemical Asst for Research to R.A.S. 1895-98, Scientific Officer to Ind Tea Assoc Calcutta, 1900-07 Principal Agricultural College Poona and Agricultural Chemist to Govt of Bombay 1907-18 Publications Numerous on questions relating to tea culture and manufacture, and many other Indian agricultural questions The Pests and Blights of the Tea Plant, also on sociological subjects Land and Labour in a Deccan Village No 1 and No 2 Address 43 Sansoon Road Poona

MANSINGH SARDAR B.A. LL.B. Vakli High Court, Vice-President The Chief Khalsa Diwan and Member Legis Assembly b 1887 Educ Khalsa College Amritsar, won Gold medal for writing Punjabi poetry Practised as Vakli for a period of about ten years edited Khalsa Young Men's Magazine from 1906 to 1909 Publications Translated Kalidas, Vikramorvasi from Sanskrit into Punjabi poetry and prose has written religious tracts Address Lahore.

MANSINGHI, see JHALA.

MANT, SIR REGINALD ARTHUR, K C I E (1924), C.B.I. (1919), B.A., Finance Member, Punjab Executive Council, April 1923, b 27 September 1870 m Ellen Gertrude, d of Col E O Tandy, I.M.S. Educ. Maryborough Gr School, Queensland, and

Trinity College, Oxon. Joined I.C.S., 1883. Under Secretary to Government of India, Finance Department 1901. Deputy Secretary, Finance Department 1904-06, Off. Joint Secretary, Military Finance Branch, 1898, Financial Secretary Punjab, 1910-15. Secretary to Govt of India B. and A. Dept., 1916-1920. Off. Member of Governor General Council April to Oct 1919. Member, Indian Fiscal Commission, October 1921 to July 1922. *Address* Simla and Delhi.

MARJORIBANKS NORMAN EDWARD C.S.I. (1922). C.I.E. (1919). Chief Secretary to the Government of Madras b 18 Oct 1872. m Barbara, d of the late Edward Watson H.M.s Inland Revenue Service. Educ at Royal Academical Institution Belfast. Queen's Coll. Belfast, and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 1893, Assnt. Collr. and Magt. until 1896. Under-Secretary to Govt 1897. 1903 Dy. Director and Director of Land Records 1904-1910, Collr. and Dt. Magt. 1911-1918. Member Board of Revenue 1919-1924. *Publications* Report on Emigration (in collaboration with Sir Ahmed Thaboy Maracair). *Address* Brodie Castle Adyar Madras.

MARRIS, SIR WILLIAM SINGLAIR, K.C.S.I. (1921), K.C.I.E. (1919). Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh since December 1922. b 1873. Educ. Wargaul N.Z. Canterbury Coll. N.Z. (Christ Church Oxford). Passed I.C.S. exam 1895. Under Secretary to Govt of India 1901. Dy. Secy to Govt of India 1904. service lent to Transvaal Govt. 1906. C.S. Commr. Transvaal 1907. Ag. Secy to Govt of India Home Depart. 1913. Insp. Gen. of Police U.P. 1916. Spoc. dy. 1917-18. Home Secretary 1919. Reforms Commissioner 1919. Governor of Assam 1921. *Address* Lucknow.

MARSHALL, SIR JOHN HUBERT, Kt. or 1914, C.I.E. 1910. Litt. D. M.A. Ph.D. F.R.S. Hon. A.R.I.B.A. Vice-President of the India Society, Director General of Archaeology in India since 1902. b Chester 19 March 1876. m 1903 Florence, y. d. of Sir Henry Longhurst, C.V.O. Educ. Dulwich King's College, Cambridge (scholar). Craven Travelling student made journeys of exploration in Greek lands. *Address* Benmore, Simla.

MARTEN, SIR ANDERSON BARRINGTON Kt. (1924). LL.D., M.A. Puisne Judge of Bombay High Court since 1916. b 8 Dec 1870. s. of late Sir Alfred Marten, K.C. M.P. Educ. Eton, Trinity College Cambridge (1st Class Law Tripos). Studentship Council of Legal Education, 1895. called to Bar Inner Temple 1895. Mem. of Bar Council, 1909-10, practised in Chancery Division till 1916. *Address* High Court, Bombay.

MARTIN, JAMES REA B.A., C.I.E. (1923). I.C.S., Secretary to Government of Bombay, Development Department and Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division. Member Council of State, 1924. b 2nd Aug 1877, m Frances Lily Elsie Webb, Educ. Methodist College and Queen's College, Belfast. Assistant

Collector Manager Sind Incumbered Estate; Deputy Commissioner Upper Sind Frontier; Collector of Karachi and Surat. Deputy Director of Development. *Address* 6 Rocky Hill Flats Malabar Hill Bombay.

MARZBAN JEWANGIR B., C.I.E. (1921). Propr. of *The Jama-Jamshed* b 21 Sept 1848. Educ. Elphinstone Coll. Was Assist. Manager, *The Times of India* for 7 years under Col. Nassau Lees. Manager *The Bombay Gazette* for 9 years. Propr., *The Advocate of India* for 6 years. Editor and Propr. *The Jama-Jamshed* for 30 years. Founder and Managing Trustee of the Khandala Sanitarium. Founder of Parsi Widows Relief Fund. *Publications* 30 vols of travel fiction etc. *Address* Shallemar Hughes Rd Bombay.

MASANI RUSTOM PESTONJI M.A., J.P., Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal, Dy. Munip. Commissioner Bombay b 23 Sept 1876. m 9 Decr 1902 Manjeh P. Wadia. Educ. New H.S. and Elphinstone Coll. Fellow Elphinstone College 1897 and 1898. Jt. Propr. and Editor of *Gup Sup* (1898). Editor of English columns of *Kaiser-i-Hind* (1899-1900). Editor *Indian Spectator* (1901-02). Jt. Hon. Secy. Society for the Protection of Children in W. India. also of the K.R. Kama Memorial Institute and the Parsi Girls Schools Association and Trustee Secretary, Bombay Food Prices Committee (1914-17). Municipal Secretary 1907-1919. *Publications* English (Child Protection Folklore of Wells The Law and Procedure of the Municipal Corporation Bombay Gujarati *Dolaino Upayog* (Use of Wealth) *Gharri totha nishant belum* (Home and School education), *Tanruk mala* (Health series) and novels named *Abyssinians Habeshi Boddhi Chandra Chal*. *Address* Versova (via Andheri Station).

MASOOD SYED ROSE NAWAB MASOOD JUNG BAHADUR Director of Public Instruction, Hyderabad (Deccan) b 1889. Educ. M.A.O. College Alligarh and New College, Oxford. Bar-at-law Imperial Education Service, Headmaster Patna School, 1913. Senior Prof. of History Ravenshaw College Cuttack 1916. Formerly Fellow of the University of Calcutta. Fellow of the Madras University Member Council of the Osmania University Member Court of the Muslim University, Alligarh. *Publications* Japan and its Educational System. *Address* Hyderabad Deccan.

MATHER, RICHARD B. Met., M.I.E. (Ind.) Metallurgical Inspector Government of India b 19 Sept 1886. Educ. Royal Grammar School, Sheffield, Univ. of Sheffield. Mappin Medalist 1906. Metallurgist, Ormsby Iron Works, Middlesbrough, 1907-1911. Dy. Dir. Metallurgical Research, War Office, Woolwich, 1911-1919. Member of Govt. Commission to investigate German and Luxembourg steel industry 1919. Technical Adviser Indian Tariff Board, 1923-24. Member of Iron and Steel Institute, Inst. of Metals, Faraday Society. Technical Inspection Institute. *Publications* Papers for technical societies. *Address* Tatanagar, B.N. By.

MAUNG KUN B.A., Bar at Law and Member, Legis Council b 27 Aug 1891 m Ma Aye Educ Govt High School, Bassein, Burma, The Rangoon College, Rangoon, and Grays Inn, London, Assistant Registrar, Chief Court of Lower Burma at Rangoon from 1918-1920 when resigned and started practice at the Bar Address 59, Creek Street, Rangoon

MAUNG TOK KYI, B.A., Member, Legislative Assembly and Managing Director, The Sun Press Ltd, Rangoon b 1884 Educ Rangoon College Member of the Subordinate Civil Service, Burma, from 1908 to 1920, resigned Govt service and joined editorial staff of *The Sun* in 1920, became Managing Director, 1921, elected to the Municipal Corporation, Rangoon, 1922, elected Member, Leg Assembly, 1928 and elected to Rangoon University Council, 1924. Address 41, 51st Street, Rangoon

MAW, WILLIAM NEWTON, C.I.E., I.C.S., Commissioner, Nerbadda Division, C.P., since April 1923 b 1 Aug 1869, m. 1896, Una Agnes Brook Meares, d of Col G Brook-Meares, Com, Royal Irish Fusiliers Educ Wesley Coll, Sheffield St John's Coll, Cambridge (B.A.) Ent I.C.S., 1893 In C.P. Secretariat, 1906-12 Dy Commissioner, Jubbulpore, 1913-16 Served as Commissioner in the Jubbulpore, Nagpur and Nerbudda Divisions of C.P. and in Berar, 1916-23 Address Hoshangabad, C.P.

MAYNARD, HERBERT JOHN (THE HON SIR JOHN), M.A. (Oxon), C.S.I. (1915), K.C.I.B. (1920), Member, Executive Council, Punjab and Vice-Chancellor Punjab University b 12 July 1865, m Alfreda Turner, d of Dr Richard Ffpps M.D. (Virginia) Educ Merchant Taylor's School London and St John's Coll, Oxford Joined first appointment in Indian Civil Service, Punjab, Dec 1886 Vice-Chancellor Punjab Univ 1917 Member, Executive Council, 1921 Address Lahore, Punjab

MAYNE JONATHAN WEBSTER CORTYON, M.A. (Oxford), C.I.E. (1922), Guardian to H.H. the Maharaja of Jaipur b 26 April 1868 m Margery Howel Scrutton Educ The Wells House Malvern Wells Tonbridge School Keble College, Oxford Studied at Leipzig 1890-1891, Assistant Master, Brighton Coll, 1891-1898 Nominated to I.E.S., 1898, from then till 1908 held posts of Headmaster, Karachi and Poona Government High Schools, Educational Inspector (Acting) Central and Northern Divisions, Bombay Presidency, from February 1908 to January 1923 Principal, Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Publications Newspaper articles in the *Times of India* under nom de-plume "Oxon", occasional poems and some songs (in England) Address Rambagh, Jaipur, Rajputana

MEARS, SIR GRIMWOOD, Kt (1917), and Kt of Order of Crown Belgium Chief Justice Allahabad, 1919 Educ Exeter College, Oxford Barrister, 1896 Hon Sec to Bryce Committee on German Outrages, Hon Sec to B. Com. on rising in Ireland, 1916, Sec to the Dardanelles Commission, 1916-17, British Embassy, Washington, 1918, at office

of War Cabinet, Aug 1918 to Jan 1919, Paris, Jan 1919, British Embassy, Washington, 1919 Address Allahabad

MEHTA, KHAM BAHADUR, SRI BHEMJI DADA BHOT, Kt. Address Nagpur

MEHTA, THE HON MR CHUNILAL VISHNU-CAKSHAS, M.A., LL.B., Member, Executive Council of the Bombay Government, since June 1923, b 12 Jan 1881 m to Tarabai Chandulal Kankodiwala Educ St Xavier's College, Bombay, Captain, Hindu XI, elected to the Bombay Municipal Corporation in 1907 Chairman, Standing Committee, 1912 President of the Corporation, 1916 Elected to the Bombay Legislative Council by the Corporation in 1916 elected to the City Improvement Trust, 1918, Chairman of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1918 Elected to the Bombay Port Trust, 1920, Millowner and Director, Tata Iron and Steel Co., Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Co., and several other joint stock companies, Minister, Bombay Government 1921-23 Address 108, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

MEHTA, DHANJIBHAI NORMASJI, L.M. & S., Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1920), Donat of St John Silver Medal (1917), Raj Ratna Silver Medal, Baroda (1918), Retired Sanitary Commissioner, Baroda b 4 Feb 1864, m to a cousin Educ at Sir Cowasji Jehangir Naozari Zarthosti Madressa and the Grant Medical College, Bombay Joined Baroda Med Service, 1887, did inoculation work with Prof Haffkine, gave evidence on the value of inoculation before last Plague Commission Has popularised St John's Ambulance work and Red Cross Work all over Gujrat and Kathiawad and published 37 books on Ambulance Nursing Hygiene Midwifery, Red Cross, etc. Address Sayaji Ganj, Baroda

MEHTA, THE HON MR. LALUBHAI SAMALDAS, J.P., C.I.E. (1914), Merchant, b October 1863 m Satyawati, d of Bhimrao Bolanath Divatia of Ahmedabad Educ Bhavnagar High School and Elphinstone College Under Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja of Bhavnagar, and Revenue Commissioner, Bhavnagar Resigned service in 1899 and entered business at Bombay as Guaranteed Broker to Gyal Kiyanglung Helped in starting the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Bank of Baroda, Indian Cement Company, and the Nira Valley Sugar Company Director in commercial firms and banks Nominated to the Bombay Legislative Council in 1910, 1913, and 1916 Elected to the Council of State in 1920, President of the Industrial Conference at Karachi in 1918 Member of the Maclean Committee on Co-operation, 1914-15 President, Mysore Co-operative Conference, 1915 Chairman, Mysore Co-operative Committee, 1921-23 Member of the Senate of the Bombay University Hon. Treasurer, Adams Wylie Hospital 1918-22, and of Seva Sadan President, Indian Merchants Chamber and Bureau, 1917-18 Address 65, Apollo Street, Fort, Bombay.

MEHTA, SIR MANUBHAI NARAYANRAO, Kt (1893), C.S.I. (1919), M.A., LL.B., Divan

- (Prime Minister) of Baroda since 1916 b 22 July 1868 Educ Elphinstone Coll Bombay Professor of Logic and Philosophy and Law Lecturer, Baroda College 1891-99 Priv Sec to Gokhwar 1899-1906 Rev Min and First Counsellor 1914-16 Publications The Hind Rajasthan or Annals of Native States of India Principles of Law of Evidence (in Gujarati), 8 Vols Address Baroda
- MEHTA, ROOSTUMJEE DHURJEEBHAI, J P C** IE Merchant 1st Commissioner 1888-91 Chairman, Local Board Allpur 1886-1917 Chairman Manicktolla Municipality Sheriff of Calcutta 1898 Consul for Persia at Calcutta 1899-1904 Publications The Exchange Imbroglio Indian Railway Economics Indian Railway Policy Indian Railway Management Address 9 Rainey Park Ballygunge Calcutta
- MEKRAH NAIR WAHID** of whose territory forms the northern littoral of Gulf of Oman Address Mekran Baluchistan
- MESTON REV WILLIAM MA B D** (Kaiser I Hind Medal (First Class) 1921 Principal Madras Christian College b 4 May 1871 m Mary Innes Sinclair Educ Grammar School Aberdeen and University of Aberdeen New College, Edinburgh and University of Edinburgh St John's College Cambridge Appointed to Staff of Madras Christian College 1893 Member of Legislative Council (Madras) 1911-1923 Publications John's author of Oir Madras Missionary Map of Indian Educational Policy Address College Park Kailpauk Madras
- MEULEMAN MOST REV BRON S J** Catholic Archbishop of Calcutta since 1902 b Ghent 1 March 1862 Educ St Barbe's Coll Ghent Joined Soc of Jesus 1879 nominated Superior of Jesuit Mission in Bengal 1900 Address Calcutta
- MILLER, SIR DAWSON KT K C Ch Justice** of Patna High Court since 1917 b Dec 1867 Educ Durham Sch and Trinity Coll Oxford Bar Inner Temple 1891 Address High Court, Patna
- MILLER, SIR LESLIE KT (1914), CBE (1919)** Chief Judge Mysore 1914-22 b 28 June 1868 m Margaret Lowry OBE Educ Charterhouse and Trinity College Dublin Entered ICS 1881 Judge of the Madras High Court, 1906-14 Address Glen Morgan Lykara Nilgiri Hills
- MINCHIN LT COL ALFRED BECKETT CIE** Agent to the Governor-General Punjab States since 1st Nov 1921 b 23 Dec 1870 Ent army 1891 Captain 1901 Major 1909 served Ismail Exp 1892 Chitral Red For 1895 Malakand and Swat 1897 Asst to Gov General's Agent Rajputana 1899-1904 Pol Ag, Bundeikund 1902 Assistant Sec to Govt of India For Dept 1908 Political Agent in Bundeikhand 1917-1921 Address Lahore
- MISRA PANDIT HARKIRAN NATH BA LL B** (Contab) M L A (1924) Bar at Law (Inner Temple) b 16 July 1890 m Shrimati Bhagwan Devi of Cawnpore Dist Educ Mulr Central College Allahabad and Gonville & Caine College, Cambridge (1911-1916) Joined Non cooperation Movement in 1920 Member of the All India Congress Committee Senior Vice Chairman of Municipal Board Lucknow Publications Asst Editor of Oudh Law Journal Lucknow from 1916-1920 Address 5 Neill Road Lucknow
- MISRA, PYARE LAL Bar-at-Law, b Aug 17, 1872 Educ Saugor C P and Nagpur Hialop (College) Grays Inn, London Was elected to the C P Council in 1917 and to the Legislative Assembly in 1920 Is Vice President of the Municipality Hon Secy Co operative Bank Member of the C P Board of Agriculture First President of the Hindi Literary Conference held at Balpur Mem All India Hindi Association Publications Hindu Law in Hindi History of English Journals in Hindi a small pamphlet in English criticising the Calcutta University Commission's Report during Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty Address Chhindwara, C P**
- MISRA THE HON PANDIT SHYAM BEHARI, MA** Member Council of State, Registrar Co operative Societies U P b 12 August 1873 m Miss B D Bajpai has two s five d Educ Jubilee High School and Canning College Lucknow Entered Executive branch U P Civil Service in 1897 as Deputy Collector was on special duty in 1903-1908 1909 and 1921-22 in connection with consolidation of agricultural holdings on the last occasion was Deputy Supdt and Offg Supdt under 10th d (1906-09) on deputations as District Magistrate (Chhatrapur State) C I (1910-14) 1st Asst to Secy to Comr U I (191-20) Dy Comr Gonda (1920-21) for 6 years b sides having twice b listed as Magt and Collr of Bhaishwar for a few weeks Jt Registrar of Co operative Societies (1922-4) and Registrar since Aug 1924 Publications Several standard works in Hindi including the Mura Bandhu Vinoda (a text book for BA & MA Examinations) and the Hindi Nava Rati (a text book in the Dgr of Honours) Examination Address Golaganj Lucknow
- MITCHELL DAVID GEORGE BSc (Hdn) CIE (2nd June 1923) Indian Civil Service b 31st March 1879, m to Elizabeth Duncan Wharton Educ George Heriot's School Edinburgh Edinburgh University Lincoln College Oxford Joined ICS Oct 1903 Divisional and Sessions Judge in Central Provinces 1913 Legal Secretary and Legal Remembrancer to Government of CP and Secretary to CP Legislative Council 1919 Address Nagpur Central Provinces India**
- MILKA THE HON Sir Bhupendra Nath MA BSc CIE (1924) CBE (1919) Member of the Viceroy's Council (Industries and Labour) Dec 1924 Held Ministerial appts from 2nd April 1896 apptd to enrolled list Finance Dept Jan 1909 Asst Secy Sept 1910 on special duty in connection with Royal Commission on Indian finance and currency June to September 1913 on depty as Controller of War Accounts from May 1915 OBE Dec 1917 Mil Acc't General Nov 1919 offg Financial Adviser Mil Fin Branch May 1920, confirmed May 1922 temp member of Governor-General's Council, April 1924, Address Delhi and Simla**

MITTER, SRI RAKOD CHANDRA, Kt (1918), Barrister and Advocate, Calcutta. Member, Council of State (1921) b 1872 m Miss Charnishilla De Educ. Presidency College and Ripon College became examiner for many years for Doctorate of Laws in Calcutta University, twice officiated for a year and a half as Advocate General Bengal Vice President, National Liberal League Member of the Bengal Legislative Council 1910 16 Standing Counsel to the Government of India 1910 17 Member of Moderates Deputation to England 1919 Chairman of Reception Committee of Moderates Conference in Calcutta in 1919 was invited by the Punjab Government to serve on the Gurdwara Committee but declined Address 21 London Street Calcutta

MITTER THE HON DR DWARKANATH MA D.L. Member Council of State (1924) Advocate High Court Calcutta b 29 Feb 1876 m d of Bala Charan Dutt of Calcutta Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta Joined High Court Bar in 1897 Took his degree of Doctor of Laws in 1912 and since then has risen rapidly to the front rank of his profession and enjoys lucrative practice. In 1916 elected an ordinary Fellow of Calcutta Univ. for five years Publications A Thesis on Position of Women in Hindu Law published by Calcutta University Address Calcutta Club 241 Lower Circular Road Calcutta

MITTER KHAGENDRANATH BA (Hons) MA (Gold Medallist) Senior Professor of Philosophy Presidency College Calcutta b 1880 m Bhacharama Educ. Presidency College Calcutta Nominated Member Legislative Assembly (19-2) Member of Council of State 1924 Fellow (elected) Calcutta University (19-2) late editor of Bangiya Sahitya Parishat Address 30 Beadon Row Calcutta

MIYAN ASJAD ULLAH, MAULVI M LA Hon Magte Kishanganj Zamindar of Mehergaon b 6 Jan 1888 m Bibi S Nisa d of late Moulvi Insa Ali of Henria Educ at Mehergaon Member, Dist Board, Purneah (Bihar) and Member, Local Board, Kishanganj, Vice President Anjuman Islamia Kishanganj Address Mehergaon, P O Kishanganj, Dist Purneah, Bihar

MODI, JIVANJI JAMSHEDJI, SHAMS-UL-ULAMA (1893), C.I.E. (1917) Sec, Panchayat Bombay b 26 October 1854 Educ. Elphinstone High School Elphinstone College m Shirinbai d of the late H N Sakinwala. Has published numerous historical and antiquarian works chiefly dealing with Parsi history and religion is Ph Doc (Hon) Heidelberg, and Officer de l'Instruction publique Fellow Bombay Univ. 1887 Received the Campbell Gold Medal, Bombay Branch R Asiatic Society (1917) Fellow B B R Asiatic Society 1924 Address 1, Wodehouse Road Bombay

MODY, HORMUETI PHROSHAW, MA (1904), LL.B. (1906), Advocate, High Court, Bombay b 28 Sept 1881, m Jeeba d of Kavasji Dadabhai Dabhai Educ. St Xavier's Coll., Bombay Mem of Bombay Men.

Corp Chairman of its Standing Committee, 1921 22, and President, 1923-24, Partner, C N Wadia & Co Publications The Political Future of India (1906), Life of Sir Pheroze Shah Mehta (1921) Address Cumballa Hill, Bombay

MOHAMED AHMAD SAID KHAN, NAWAB C.I.E. (1921), Minister of Industries and Agriculture to the Governor of the United Provinces b 1893 m to daughter of Nawab Bahadur M Abdus Samad Khan Educ. M A O College, Aligarh Publications Council Speeches Presidential address, All India Moslem Rajput Conference Address Oakover, Naini Tal and Chhatari (Buland Shahar)

MOHAMED RAFIQUEL THE HON SIR, BA (Cambridge) Bar at Law (Middle Temple), Member Council of State b 29 May 1863 m Azmat Zamani Begum of the family of the Nawab of Patodi (Punjab) Educ. M A O College Aligarh St John's College, Cambridge Practised at the Bar 1886 to 1892 entered Judicial Service as S C Court Judge Lucknow Addl Judge 1894, soon after Dist Judge and in 1911 Judicial Commissioner Lucknow and in July 1912 appointed High Court Judge rtd 1923 Allahabad Address Chandwall Baradari Lucknow

MOHAMMAD AJMAL KHAN HAVIN Physician b 1865 Educated at home, Physician and politician Address Delhi

MOHAMMED YAMIN KHAN THE HON MR BA of the Allahabad University (1911) Bar at Law Member, Council of State (1924) senior Vice Chairman Municipal Board Meerut b June 1888 m to a cousin Educ at Meerut college M A O. College, Aligarh and England Practising as Barrister in Meerut since Dec 1914 Acted as Secretary of U P War Fund for Meerut District Secretary Y M C A Funds, Secretary Dist War League Was elected a member of the Municipal Board, Meerut, in 1916 and Vice Chairman a year later Elected member, Legislative Assembly 1920, Member of the Legislative Assembly 1920 1923 Address Junnut Nishan Meerut

MOIR, THOMAS EYERSON, BA, C.I.E. (1917), C.S.I. (1922), Finance Secretary to Government of Madras (on leave) b 1874 Educ. Fettes Coll., Edinburgh, Wadham Coll., Oxford, Ent. I.C.S., 1898 Address Fort St George Madras

MOLONY, JOHN CHARLES, MA, I.C.S. Collector and District Magistrate, North Arcot b 27 Feb 1877 Educ. Portora Royal Sch. Linniskillen, Trinity Coll. Dublin Assnt Political Agent for Banganapalle, 1906 09 President, Madras Corporation, 1914-19 Supdt of Census, Madras, 1910-11 Address Madras

MONTGOMERIE, ALEXANDER, MA, C.I.E. (1921), I.C.S. Secretary to Govt of Bombay, Home Department b 27 Feb 1879, m Katherine MacDonald Rankin Educ. Glasgow High School, Glasgow University. Balliol College, Oxford Joined Indian Civil Service 1903, served in various districts of Bombay Presidency. Address, Secretariat, Bombay,

MOOKERJEE, Sir NARAYAN, Zamindar of Uttarpara, b April 1859. Member, Bengal Legislative Council, since 1918, m 1878, one of the Uttarpara School, Presidency College Calcutta, Chairman of the Uttarpara Municipality since 1887, Chairman of the Bench of Hon Magistrates, 1889, Managing Committee of the British Indian Association, 1889, a Member of the Asiatic Society, a life Member of St John Ambulance Association, Member of the Provincial Advisory Committee for Indian Students, 1918, a Member of the National Liberal League, and Vice-President of Bengal Humanitarian Association, elected to Executive Committee of All India Landholders' Association, 1919. Address Uttarpara, near Calcutta.

MOOKERJEE, Sir RAJENDRA NATH, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O. (1922), M.I.M.E. (Hon. Life), Civil Engr, b 1854. Educ London Missionary Institution at Bhowanipur. Presidency College, Civil Engineering Branch, Calcutta Senior Partner in Martin & Co Calcutta, Member of Indian Industrial Commission, 1917-1918, Member of Indian Railway Committee, 1920-1921. President, Howrah Bridge Committee, 1921, President, Bengal Retrenchment Committee, 1922, Member, All India Retrenchment Committee, 1922 of Board of Trustees Indian Museum Calcutta, a Fellow of Calcutta Univ., Member of Court of Visitors, Ind Inst Science, Sheriff of Calcutta, 1911, Member of the Board of the Governing Body of Bengal Engineering College. Ex President, the Institution of Engineers (India) Member, Board of Apprenticeship Institute of Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, President, Indian Science Congress, 1922. President Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1924. Address 7 Harrington Street Calcutta.

MOORE, PHILIP LANGRISH, C.I.E. Ag. Financial Secretary to the Government of Madras b 29th June 1873 m Muriel d of the late Lumsden Strenge Educ Cheltenham, Christ Church, Oxford. Ent I.C.S., 1896, President, Madras Corporation, 1910-14. Inspector-General of Police, Madras, 1914-18. Address Madras Club, Madras.

MOORE, WILLIAM ARTHUR, Assistant Editor of *The Statesman*. Classical Scholar of St John's Coll, Oxford, 1900-1904. B.A., Lit. Hum. President, Oxford Union Society, 1904, b 1880 m Maud Ellen only surviving child of George Mallett Educ Campbell Coll Belfast and St John's College Oxford Secretary, Balkan Committee 1904-08, during which time travelled extensively in all the Balkan Countries. Special Correspondent of *The Times* for Young Turk Revolution 1908 and in Albania special correspondent 1909, *Daily Chronicle*, *Daily News* and *Manchester Guardian* at Siege of Tabriz, Persia. Joined foreign and war staff of *The Times* 1910, Persian Correspondent 1910-12, Russian Correspondent 1913, Spain 1914, Albanian Revolution 1914. Retreat from Mons and Battle of Marne 1914, obtained commission in Rifle Brigade, served Dardanelles, 1915, Salonika 1915-17 (General Staff Officer, 3rd Grade), Air Force (Flying Officer), Egypt, Salonika, 1918. After armistice General Staff Officer (2nd Grade), with mili-

tary mission (General Sir G. F. Bridges) in Constantinople and the Balkans, demobilised May 1919, despatches twice, M.B.E. (military), Serbian White Eagle, Greek Order of the Redeemer, Middle Eastern Correspondent of *The Times*, 1919-22, visiting Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, Persia, Caucasus, India, Afghanistan, etc. Publications *The Miracle* (By Antrim Oriol, Constable 1908) *The Orient Express* (Constable 1914). Address The Statesman, Calcutta.

MOOS, DR F. N. M.B., B.Sc. (Bombay), M.D. B.S. (Lond.) D.P.H. (Eng.), D.T.M. (Eng.) Surgeon in charge, Goculdas Tejpal Hospital b 22 Aug 1893. Educ at Cathedral and New High Schools Elphinstone and Grant Medical College, Bombay Univ Coll, and Hospital London. Clinical Fellow in Medicine Grant Coll Bombay Medical Registrar, J. J. Hospital Bombay, House Surgeon Metropolitan Hospital London, Tuberculosis Medical Officer, Horos of Stoke Newington Hackney and Poplar London, Medical Referee London War Pensions Committee. Publications Present Position of Tuberculosis Prevention of Tuberculosis and Pandemic of Influenza 1918 etc, etc. Address Alice Buildings, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay.

MOOS, NARAYHOY A.F. B.Sc. (Ldn), L.C.T. (Bom.) F.R.S. (Ldn) Retired Director, Bombay and All-India Observatories b 29 Oct 1859 m Bai Jeebhoy d of Byramjee Jeebhoy Esq Educ Bombay University and Edinburgh University, Prof of Physics Elphinstone Coll Bombay for some time. Inspector of Factories Bombay Presidency, from 1896 to 1920 Director of Bombay and All-India Observatories. Syndic and Dean in Science Bombay Univ, Representative of Bombay Univ on Royal Institute of Science Bangalore Advisory Committee of the Coll of Engineering Poona Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science Bombay. Board of Trustees of the Prince of Wales Museum Bombay and Municipal Corporation Bombay. Publications Papers in Royal Society Edinburgh and publications in the series Bombay Observatory Publications 1896-1920. Bombay Magnetic Data and Discussion 1846-1915 Vols I and II. Address Gowalia Tank Road Bombay.

MORSEHEAD, LEONARD FREDERICK, C.S.I. (1924), I.C.S., Board of Revenue, Bihar and Orissa b 5 Sep 1868 m Sybil May, d. of Archibald Hills, Esq Educ Winchester and Balliol. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1889, Collector of Customs, Calcutta 1902, Inspector-General of Police, Bengal and Behar and Orissa, 1908-12, Commissioner, Board of Revenue, 1919 to 1923.

MOTI CHAND, THE HON. RAJA, C.I.E. (1916) Banker, Landlord and Millowner b 2nd Aug 1876 Educ privately. First Non-Official Chairman, Benares Municipal Board. Chairman, Benares Bank, Ltd., Chairman of Benares Cotton and Silk Mills Ltd. Chairman Benares Industries, Ltd., Member, U.P. Legislative Council from 1913-1920, Member Council of State since 1920, Hon. Treasurer and Member of the Court and the Council of

the Benares Hindu University, Chairman of numerous local bodies, educational, industrial and social. Address Amnatgarh Palace, Benares

MOUNTFORD, LEWIS JAMES, O.B.E., Commissioner, Southern and Central Division, Bombay Presidency, 1916-20. Addl Mem of the Viceroy's Legislative Council 1919, & 1st Aug 1871. Educ Dulwich Coll and Pembroke Coll (Cantab). Joined I.C.S. Asst Collr 1892. Manager of Sind Encumbered Estates 1896, Collr of Larkhans, 1903. Spl Collr, Bombay, 1905. Collr Sholapur 1907. Satara 1911, Poona 1913. Ahmedabad 1916. Member of Standing Committee. Presidency Recruiting Board 1917. Publications Pamphlet on the Relations between Debtor and Creditor in Sind. Address The Secretariat Bombay

MOZOOMDAR RAI JADUNATH BAHADUR, Vedanta Vachaspathi, M.A., B.L., Kaiser-i-Hind (1916), C.I.E. (1921). M.L.A., Vakil and Landholder & Oct 1859. m. Srimati Saratkumari, d. of late Babu Abhaya Charan Sarkar. Educ Canning Coll, Lucknow and Free Church Coll Calcutta. Professor, Sanskrit College, Calcutta, editor, *Tribune* Lahore. Secy, Finance Dept., Kashmir. Principal, Katmandu Coll, Nepal, Vakil Calcutta High Court, Member Legislative Assembly. Publications *Amitvar Prasari* in 2 parts in Bengali. Commentary on Vedanta Philosophy in Bengali, *Jelligton of Love* in English, essays and addresses in English, Appeal to young Hindus in English and numerous other works. editor, *Hindu Patrika*. Address Jessore, Bengal

MUDDIMAN, SIR ALEXANDER PHILLIPS Kt (1922). C.S.I. (1920). C.I.E. Home Member. Governor General's Executive Council since March 1924 & 14 Feb 1876. Educ Wimbome Sch. Ent I.C.S. 1897. served in Behar and Bengal in various capacities. Dy. Sec. Govt of India. Leg. Dept. 1910-15. Sec. to Govt of India. Leg. Dept. 1915-20. President Council of State, 1920-1924. Address Delhi

MUHAMMAD ABDULLAH, SAYED, B.A. Zemindar and Member Legislative Assembly (1920) & 1878. m. Mahmudetun Nesa Bibi d. of late Chaudhury Keramutullah of Salar (Murshidabad). 1887. Educ Calcutta Madrasa. Presidency Coll & Ripon Coll. Hon. Magte, Rampurhat 1896. elected member, Local and Union Boards. Commissioner Meherpur Municipality, apptd Sub. Deputy Collr and Magte 1905 and Sub-Div. Officer Begusarai Dt., Monghyr and Meherpur (Nadia Dist). Asstt Settlement Officer Bhabna (Shahabad). Resigned 1917. Address Margam, Birbhum Dist.

MUHAMMAD ABDUL QUADIR, KHAN SAHIB MAULVI, B.A. LL.B., M.L.A., Pleader & 26th Dec 1867. Educ Government College, Jubulpore, O.P. and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Was for some time Headmaster, Mohindra High School, Tikamgarh, Orissa. Bundelkhand. Practised in 1896 at Amraoti (Berar). Official Receiver (1917). Hon. Secy, Bazar Mahasandha Educational Conference. Address - Amraoti Camp (Berar), O.P.

MUHAMMAD MUKARRAM ALI KHAN, MURTAS-UD-DOWLAH NAWAB, Chief of Pahan Estate and Tasimi Jagirdar (Jaipur State) & 2 Sept 1896. m. d. of late Ali Khan, Chief of Saadabad. Educ Maharaja's Coll Jaipur and M.A.V. Coll, Aligarh, Member of State Council, Jaipur, in the Foreign Dept. Publications: *Sada-i-Watan*. Tauegod Nadir Swarajya Home Rule. Address Nawab's House, Jaipur, Rajputana

MUKANDI LAL, B.A. (Oxon). Bar at law. Member U.P. Legis Council & Oct. 1890. Educ at Pauri and Almora, in colleges at Allahabad Benares and Calcutta and Christ Church, Oxford 1917. Called to Bar, Grays Inn 1918. Married in England. returned to India 1919. enrolled Advocate at Allahabad High Court. elected to U.P. Legis Council for Harwar 1923. Edits a Hindi periodical. Tarun Kumaon belongs to Swaraj Party. Address Dehra Dun

MUKHERJEE, BABU JOGENDRA NATH, M.A., B.L., M.L.A., Vakil, High Court, Calcutta & 23rd June 1861. m. d. of late Babu Harinath Chatterjee of the Provincial Executive Service. Educ Presidency College and Hindu School and Government Pathshala, Calcutta. Practised as pleader at Purnea, 1886-1908, was Municipal Commissioner, Vice Chairman, Purnea Municipality, and Chairman altogether for about 18 years. Member of Bengal Legislative Council (1905-1907) practised Calcutta High Court from 1908. Prof of Hindu Law in the Calcutta Law College from 1909-1919. Chairman of Professors, Criminal Law in that Coll. 1918-19. Address 17 Pran Kissen Mookerjee Road, Tallah, Calcutta

MULJI, VASANJI TRIKAMJI BAO SAHIB, SIR, Kt J.P. Hon. Magistrate, Mem, Bombay Cotton Exchange & 8 July 1866. Trustee, Bombay Pinjrapole rtd 1918. Address Malabar Hill Bombay

MULLA, THE HON. MR JUSTICE DINSHAH FARUJI, M.A., LL.B. Additional Temporary Judge of the Bombay High Court & April 1868. m. Jerral, d. of F.F. Karaka of Bombay. Educ at Sir Jamsetji Jijiboy School and Kiphinstone College, Bombay. Fellow of the Bombay University, Late President, Tribunal of Appeal, Bombay, 1910-1921. Publications. Commentaries on the Code of Civil Procedure. Principles of Hindu Law, Principles of Mahomedan Law, Joint author of Pollock and Mulla's Indian Contract Act. Address 21, Marine Lines, Bombay

MULLER JULIUS Merchant General Manager, Volkart Bros. Bombay & June 7, 1875. m. Mrs Rosa Muller nee Jach. Educ. Winterthur Switzerland. Entered service with Volkart Bros. Winterthur 1892. transferred to London Office 1895 and to Bombay 1895. Address Meher Mansil, Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill Bombay

MULLICK, SIR BABANTA KUMAR, Kt (1890). Judge, Patna High Court, since 1916. Educ. Univ. Col. Hon. King's Coll, Cambridge. Ent. I.C.S. 1887, Actg. Judge, Calcutta High Court, 1914, Patna Judge, 1918. Address - Bankipore.

MUMTAZUDDOLAH, NAWAB SIR MOHAMMAD FAIZAKALI KHAN, K O V O, K C I E, C S I, C B E, Nawab of Pahnau, Minister, Jaipur State, b 4 Nov 1851, late Member of Supreme and Provincial Legislative Councils Address Nawab's House, Jaipur

MURSHIDABAD, NAWAB SHAHABUDDIN, K O S I, K O V O, The Hon. Itisham-ul-Shah, Rais ud-Dowla, Amir ul Omrah, Nawab Asst. Engr. Synd Waseel Ali Moersa, Khan Bahadur, Mahabub Jung, premier noble of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, 38th in descent from the Prophet of Arabia, b 7 Jan 1875, m. 1898, Nawab Sultan Dulin Fugloor Jahan Begum Bahaba Educ in India, under private tutors and in England, at Esherborne, Stogby, and Oxford, has six times been Mem of Bengal Leg Council. Address The Palace, Murshidabad

MURTRIE, DAVID JAMES, O B E, I S O, Dy Dir Gen Post Offices, 1916-1921 (re tired), b 18 Dec 1864, Educ. Doveton Prot Coll., Madras Smt Govt Service in Post Office, 1884. Pres Postmaster, Bombay, 1918-19. Address "Londal," Sa, Canning haza Road, Bangalore.

MUTALIK, VIHNU NARAYAN alias ANNASABH B A, Sardar of the Deccan, Inamdar and Saranjamdar, Member, Legislative Assembly b 6 Sept 1879 m 8 Ramabalsahab, d of Mr K Bhiranhil Pearl Merchant, d at Satara High School and the Deccan Coll. Poona. Member, Bombay Legislative Council for the Deccan Sardars, 1921-1923. President Inamdar's Central Association, 1914 and onwards to the present day, Chairman, Satara City Municipality for 4 years. Member of Dist and Taluka Local Board, Satara for over 15 years. Publications Currency System of India in Marathi Address Shanwar Peth, Satara City

MUTHIAH CHETTIAR, SIR M CR, Kt 1922 Banker and Member, Legislative Assembly b 8 February 1887 m to Thevannal Educ Maharaja's College, Pudukottai. President, South India Chamber of Commerce Chairman, Madras Stock Exchange Director of Indian Bank, Ltd, Madras Trustee, Madras Port Trust Trustee, Pachiasappa's Educational Charities, Member, Advisory Board, Govt. Institute of Commerce and South Indian Railway Co, Ltd, Sheriff of Madras, 1921 and 1922, Presdt. United India Life Assurance Co, was Member of Madras Legis Council for a period before the Reformed Council and for one period after the Reformed Council now a member, Legis Assembly and Municipal Councillor of the Madras Corporation Publications Author of the Chapter on "Indigenous Banking in Dr Khan's book Address "Bedford House," Vepery, Madras.

MYSORE, H H, THE MAHARAJA OF, COL. SIR SRI KRISHNAIA WADIYAR SHAHABUDDIN, G C S I, G B E, b 4th June 1884, s father, 1895 Invested with full ruling powers by Lord Curzon, at Mysore, 1903, present at Delhi Durbar, 1903 Area of State is 29,444 square miles, and its population is nearly 6,000,000 Address The Palace, Bangalore, Mysore, Fern Hill, Nilgiris.

MYSORE, YUVARAJA OF, SIR SRI KAPTESHVARA NARASIMHARAJA WADIYAR SHAHABUDDIN, G C I E, Extraordinary Member of Council in Mysore, b 5 June 1888, y s of late Maharaja Sri Chamarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur Taken keen interest in welfare of people and in all matters of education, health, and industry Address Mysore

NABHA, MAHARAJA SRI RUPUDAMAN SINGHJI MALAVENDRA, SHAHABUDDIN OF, F R G S, M R A S, b 14 March 1888, s 1911 Educ privately Travelled good deal in India and abroad, Mem. Viceroy's Council, 1906-08, Pres of Ind Nat Soc Confee, 1909, attended Coronation of King, accompanied by Maharani, 1911, made handsome contributions towards various War Funds and Loans including gift of fully-equipped Hospital Ship for Mesopotamia Allocated, 1923

NAG, GIRIS CHANDRA, RAI SHAHABUDDIN, M A, B L, b 14 Feb 1864 m Sreemati Kunjalata, d of Rai Sahab P C Deb of Sylhet Educ Calcutta Presidency College Professor, Ravenshaw Coll. Cuttack (1886-1890), Pleader, Sylhet Judge's Court, 1890-1892, Member, Assam Civil Service, 1892-1919, Member, Decca University Court, and Member Leg Assembly Publications "Back to Bengal" Address Bakshi Bazar, Dacca.

NAGOD, RAJA JADUBHAI SINGH, RAJA OF, b 30 Dec 1855, s 1874, dynasty has ruled at Nagod for over nine centuries, State has area of 501 square miles, and population of 84,097, salute 9 guns Address Nagod, Baghelkhand

NAGPUR, BISHOP OF, since 1903, RIGHT REV. EYRE CHATTERTON, D D, F R G S, b 22 July 1863, m 1910 Lillian Agnes Haig, 2nd d of Henry Alexander Haig, 48, Kensington Park Gardens Educ Haileybury, Dublin Univ ordained, 1887 Head of Dublin University Mission, Chota Nagpur 1891-1900 Publications The Story of 50 years Mission Work in Chota Nagpur (S P C K), 1900 The story of Gondwana (Isaac Pitman & Co), 1916, with the Troops in Mesopotamia, 1916, Mesopotamia Revisited, 1917 Address Bishop's Lodge, Nagpur, C P

NAGPUR, R. C BISHOP OF, see Coppel

NAIDU, SAROJINI, MRS, Fellow of Roy Soc. of Lit in 1914 b Hyderabad, Deccan, 13 Feb 1879 Educ Hyderabad King's Coll, London Girton Coll, Cambridge. Published three volumes of poetry in English, which have been translated into all Indian vernaculars, and some into other European languages, also been set to music, lectures and addresses on questions of social, religious, and educational and national progress, especially connected with Women's Movement in India, and welfare of Indian students Address Hyderabad, Deccan

NAIR, MANNATH KRISHNAN, DESWAN SHAHABUDDIN (1915), Member, Madras Legislative Council b August 1870 Educ Alathur, Calicut, and Christian College and Law College, Madras Vakil, Calcutta Bar, Ch. Justice, Travancore High Court, for four years Dewan, Travancore, May 1914 to July 1920, Address Palghat, Malabar District.

NAIR, see Bankaran Nair

NAMBIAE CHANDROTH KUDALI THAZHATH
VITHAL KUNHI KAMMARAN Landlord, M.L.A.
 & Dec 1888 m Kalliat Madhav Amma, d
 of V Ryru Nambiar, B.A.B.L. High Court
 Vakil Educ at the Mission High School
 Brennan College Tellicherry and Madras
 Medical College Succeeded to the manage-
 ment of the Chandroth estate after the death
 of his brother in 1912 In 1914 was elected to
 the Tellicherry Taluk Board and in 1916
 to the Malabar District Board of which he
 continues to be a member In 1924 was
 returned to the Legislative Assembly as the
 representative of the Madras Landholders
 Address Panoor via Mahe N Malabar

**NANDY, MAHARAJA SIR MANINDRA CHAN-
 DRA, K.C.I.E.**, Add Mem of Imp Council
 Address Kasimbazar, Bengal

NANDY SIBU CHANDRA MA (1920) s and h
 of Maharaja Sir Monindra Chandra Nandy
 Bahadur K.C.I.E. of Kasimbazar Bengal
 b 1897 m 1917 second Rajkumari d of
 Hon Raja Promoda Nath Roy of Dighapattia
 Educ Berhampore Coll Bengal and Presi-
 dency Coll Calcutta Chairman Berhampore
 Municipality Hon Magte Berhampore and
 Member Bengal Legislative Council (1924)
 Address Rajbari Kasimbazar or 802,
 Upper Circular Road Calcutta

NANJUNDAYYA, H. VEMPANUR, C.I.E.,
 b 13 Oct 1860, Educ Wesleyan Mission
 Sch, Mysore, Christian Coll, Madras, Madras
 Univ (Bellow, 1895) Ent service of Mysore
 Govt, 1885 Judge, Chief Court of Mysore,
 1904, Mem of Council and Ch Judge of Chief
 Court, retired 1916, Vice Chancellor, Mysore
 Univ Address Mallavaram, Bangalore

**NARIMAN SIR TEMULJI BHICAJI KT, M.R.C.
 P** (Edinburgh), Hon Caus., 1922, Sheriff of
 Bombay 1922-23 Chief Physician Paral-
 lying in Hospital President, College of
 Physicians and Surgeons b Navsari 3rd
 Sept 1848 Educ Grant MC Elphinstone
 Coll Fellow of Bombay Univ 1883 J.P. a
 Syndic in Medicine 1891, a Dean in Faculty
 of Medicine 1901-02 Mem, Bombay Leg
 Council 1909 Mem of Provincial Advisory
 Committee, 1910 Member, Bombay
 Medical Council, 1913 Address Bombay

**NARSINGARH, HIS HIGHNESS SRI HUKU-
 RAJA VIKRAM SINGH SARIH BAHADUR** b 31
 September 1909 belongs to Paramar or
 Ponwar branch of Agnikul Rajputs, s 1924
 Educ Daly College, State is 734 sq
 miles in extent, and has population of
 1,01,426, salute of 11 guns Regent Her
 Highness the Rani Shriv Kanwar Sahiba
 D.B.E. Address Narsingarh C.I.

VATARAJAN, KAMAKSHI, B.A. (Madras Uni-
 versity) 1889 Editor *The Indian Social
 Reformer*, Bombay, & 24th Sept 1898 Educ
 St Peter's H.S., Tanjore, Pres Coll, Madras
 Govt Coll, Kumbakonam, and Law Coll,
 Madras Headmaster, Aryan H.S., Triplicane
 Madras, Asst Editor, the *Hindu*, Madras
 Pres, Madras Prov Soc Confee Kurnool,
 1911 and Pres, Bombay Prov Soc Confee,
 Bijapur, 1918 President, Mysore Civic and
 Social Progress Conference, 1921, and Presi-

dent, National Social Conference Ahmedabad,
 1921, General Secretary Indian National
 Social Conference, 1928-24 Publications
 Presidential addresses at above conferences,
 Reports of Census of Hyderabad (Deccan),
 1911 Address *The Indian Social Reformer*
 Office, Fort, Bombay, and Tata's Run-
 galow, Khar Road, Bandra, Bombay

NALESAN THE HON MR G. A. head of G. A.
 Natesan & Co and Editor *The Indian
 Review* Member Council of State b 25th
 August 1874 Educ High School, Kumbakonam
 St Joseph's School, Trichinopoly; H. H. School,
 Triplicane, Presidency College, Madras
 University B.A. (1897), Fellow of the
 Univ and Commissioner, Madras Corps Has
 taken a leading part in Congress work Joined
 Moderate Conference, 1910 Sec, Madras
 Liberal League Joint Secretary, National
 Liberal Federation of India 1922 Publications
 chiefly patriotic literature and speeches
 etc., of public men, "What India
 Wants 'Autonomy within the Empire'
 Address George Town Madras

NATHUBHAI, TRIBHUVANDAS MANGALDAS
 J.P. Hon Mag and Bellow of Univ, Bombay,
 Sheth or head of Kapol Banya community,
 resigned presidency after tenure thereof
 for 25 years, 1912 b 28 Oct 1856 Educ
 St Xavier's Coll, Bombay Was for 20
 years an elected Mem of Bombay Mun
 Corps has been Hon Mag since establish-
 ment of Courts of Bench Magistrates
 in Bombay Address Sir Mangaldas House,
 Lamington Road, Bombay

NAWAB SALAE JUNG BAHADUR was
 Prime Minister of Hyderabad from 1912-14
 Address Hyderabad Deccan

**NAWANAGAR, H. II. MAHARAJA JAM SHRI
 RAJNITSINGH, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., K.C.S.I.**,
 Hon Lt Colonel in army, b Sarodar, 10th
 September 1872, Educ, Rajkumar Coll,
 Rajkot, Trinity Coll Cambridge First
 appearance for Sussex C.C. 1895, head
 of Sussex averages same year, head of Sussex
 averages, 1896-1902, champion batsman for
 all England in 1896 and 1900, scoring 2,780
 runs with an average of 59.91, went with
 Stoddart's All England XI to Australia,
 1897-98, served European War, 1914-15
 Address Jamnagar, Kathiawar

**NELDHAM, BREVET COLONEL RICHARD
 ARTHUR** B.Sc., M.D., D.P.H. M.R.C.P.
 (Edinburgh) D.S.O. (1916) C.I.E. (1919),
 b 1877 Inspector of Medical Education in
 India on behalf of the General Medical Council
 of the United Kingdom Address Simla

NEHRU PANDIT MOTILAL, Member, Legis-
 Assembly for The Seven Cities of U.P. & May
 1881 President U.P. Provincial Conference
 1907 Member U.P. Legis Council founded
The Independent 1919 Presdt, Indian National
 Congress 1919 suspended practice at the
 Bar in pursuance of non co-operation resolu-
 tion 1920 imprisoned for six months, 1921-22
 Address Anand Bhawan, Allahabad

NEHRU PANDIT SHAMLAL, M.L.A. Journalist
 b 16 June 1879 m Owa, d of Pandit Niranjan
 Nath Hukku Educ at Allahabad Member,
 All-India Congress Committee, Provincial
 Congress Committee (U.P.), Allahabad Town

Congress Committee Allahabad Municipal Board, Chairman Allahabad Public Health Committee Member Allahabad Improvement Trust Member Khilafat Committee Member Legis Assembly six months imprisonment and fine for non co operation (1921-22) Publications Founder of The Democrat newspaper of Allahabad Address Allahabad U P

NEILSON WILLIAM HARDCASTLE OBE (1919) VD MA MAI b 21 Feb 1875 m Ethel Maud only d of the late Fra k Phillips of Plymouth Educ Mr Strangway's School Dublin Trinity College Dublin Asstt Engineer Keyham Dockyard Extension Devonport 1900 Asstt Engineer Calcutta Port Commissioners 1905 Port Engineer Chittagong Port Commissioners 1907 Chief Engineer Karachi Port Trust 1916 Chief Engineer Bombay Port Trust 1922 Chairman Bombay Port Trust 1923 Controller of Munitions Karachi Circle 1917 Major Bombay Battalion A B I Member Inst Civil Engrs Inst Mech Engrs American Soc C E (f Council) Inst Engrs (India) Publications Report on Grain Elevators in Canada and United States Address Bombay Port Trust

NEOGY KSHITISH CHANDRA M.L.A. (non Mahomedan) Electorate, Dacca Divn E Bengal) Vakil High Court Calcutta Journals 1887 b 1888 Educ Presy Coll Calcutta Dacca Coll m Broomfield Liba Devi bon time a member of the All India Council of the Nat Lib Fedn kj (tod Men b r of the Dacca Univ (court 1921 & Address 48 Toynbee Circular Road Wari Dacca a d 841 Amherst Street Calcutta

NEPAL, MAHARAJA CHANDRA SHUM SHERRJUNG RAHARDY RANA GCB, GCSI GCMG GVO DCL (Oxon 1908), FRGS Hon General in British Army Hon Colonel of 4th Gurkha Rifles Thonglin pima kokang wang syan (Chinese 1902) Prime Minister and Marshal of Nepal b 8 July 1868 Educ Durbar d 8 Khatmandu Entered army as a Colonel Command r in Chief 1901 Maharaja Prime Minister and Marshal 1901, during European War 1914 presented 81 machine guns, first gift of munitions to the King and placed whole of military resources of State at the King's disposal Address Singha Durbar Khatmandu, Nepal

NEVILL HENRY RIVERA B.A. OBE (1919) VD (1920) C.I.B. (1921) India (Civil Service) b 24th May 1876 m L. Jhan d of T Maxwell Esq of Irvine Ayrshire Educ Charterhouse Ork College Oxford Entered Indian Civil Service 1899 posted to U P Commanded U P Horse, 1918 17 services placed at disposal of C in C Nov 1917, Asstt Adjutant-General at A H Q and from August 1921 to April 1923 Dir c tor of Auxiliary and Territorial Forces Collector and Magistrate Agra Nov 1924 Publications Dist Gazetteers of the United Provinces Address Agra

NEWBOLD HON SIR BARRINGTON BENNETT BA (1924) Puisne Judge High Court Calcutta since 1916, b 7 March 1867 Educ Bedford Sch Pembroke Coll, Cambridge

Ent I C B 1885 Address Bengal United Service Club Calcutta

NICHOLAS COLONEL STEPHEN HENRY EDMUND Judge Advocate General in India b 26th Dec 1870 m Maud Lane Piers, late of Q.A.M.N.S.I Educ Swansea and Sandhurst 1st Bn East Surrey Regt 1890 Indian Army 2nd Infantry (Hyderabad Contingent) 1892 Judge Advocate-General's Department March 1912 (officiating) 1st May 1913 permanent Address Cecil Hotel Simla

NICHOLSON AIR FREDERICK AUGUSTUS K.C.B.I. 1925) K.C.I.B. (1903) C.I.E. (1899) Kaiser's Hind Medal First Class 1st Jan 1917 b 1846 m 1875 Catherine OBE d of Rev J Lechler three s Educ Royal Medical College Epsom Lincoln Coll Oxford entered Madras Civil Service 1869 Member Board of Revenue Madras 1899 Member Viceroy's Legislative Council 1897 99 1900 02 reported on establishment of Agricultural Banks in India 1895 Member of Famine Commission 1901 retired 1904 Hon Director of Fisheries 1905 1918 Publications District Manual of Coimbatore Address Surrounding Coonoor Nilgiris

NIHAL SINGH REV CANON SOLOMON B.A. Evangelistic Missionary b 15 Feb 1852 Educ Govt H S Lakhimpur Canning Coll Lucknow ordained 1891 Hon Canon in All Saints Cathedral Allahabad 1906 Address 2 Pioneer Road Allahabad

NOLAN JAMES JOSEPH, F.J.I. Director of Publicity Burma FRGS Editor Rangoon Times 1915 1920 b Limerick 7 May 1869 Educ Crescent Coll Limerick King's Coll London Asstt Editor Health and Home, 1897 Editor, 1906 12 late Editor of The Citizen Editorial staff Black and White 1903 12 Asstt Editor of Canada 1912 14 Address Pegu Club Rangoon

NORMAND ALEXANDER ROBERT M.A. B.Sc. Ph.D. Prof. of Chemistry Wilson Coll Bombay b Edinburgh 4 Mar h 1880 m 1909 Margaret Elizabeth Murray Educ Royal H S and Univ Edinburgh Address Wilson College Bombay

NORRIS ROLAND VICTOR D.Sc. (London) M.Sc. (Manchester) F.I.C. Professor of Biochemistry Indian Institute of Science Bangalore b 24 October 188 m Dorothy only d of Robert and Myriam Harrop Manchester Pd c Ripon (ramular School and Univ of Manchester Schunck Research Assistant Univ of Manchester 1909 Research Scholar Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine 1910 11 Beit Memorial Fellow 1911 13 Physiological Chemist Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory Muktesar U P 1914 war service (captain I.A.R.O. attached 103rd Mahratta Light Infantry 1915 18 Indian Agricultural Service Agricultural Chemist to Govt of Madras 1918 24 appointed Prof. of Biochemistry Indian Institute of Science July 1924 Publications numerous scientific papers in various technical journals Address The Indian Institute of Science Bangalore

NORTON, EARDLEY, Bar-at-law (Lincoln's Inn) b 19 Feb 1852 Called 1876 *Educ* Rugby Sch, Merton Coll, Oxford Advocate of the High Courts of Bengal (1888) and Madras (1879) *Address* Bar Library High Court Calcutta

NOYCE FRANK ICS (S.I. (194) (B.I. (1919) Secretary to the Government of Madras Development Department (1903) b 4 June 1884 *Educ* Salisbury Sch and St Catharines Coll (Cambridge) m Knid d of W M Kirkus of Liverpool Entered ICS 1902 Served in Madras Under Sec to Govt of India Revenue and Agricultural Dept 1912-16 Sec Indian Cotton Committee 1917-18 Controller of Cotton Cloth 1918-19 Vice President and subsequently President Indian Sugar Committee 1919-20 Member Burma Land Revenue Committee 1920-21 Indian Trade Commissioner in London 1922-23 President Indian Coal Committee 1924-25 *P. Merton* England India and Afghanistan (1902) *Address* Madras Club Madras

NUMAN WILLIAM BA TCD (1902) MB BCh TCD (1905) MD (1906) b 26 Jan 1880 m Jeanne Honorine Thibault de Chanvalon Paris *Educ* (Longwood Wood College) Kildare University of Dublin Trinity College Certifying Surgeon Bombay 1914 Coroner of Bombay 1915-1919 Police Surgeon of Bombay Prof of Medical Jurisprudence Grant Medical College Bombay *Address* Douglas House Colaba Bombay

OLDFIELD, HON JUSTICE FRANCIS DU PRA, Puisne Judge Madras High C since 1913 b 30 June 1869 *Educ* Marlborough Trinity Coll Cambridge Fellow Madras Univ 1916 Ent ICS, 1890 *Address* Rutland Gate Madras

ORCHHA H H SARMA-D-RAJAH I BUNDEL KHAND, MAHARAJA MAHENDRA SAWAI, SIR PRATAP SINGH BAHADUR GCIE GCBI b 1854 s brother 1874 State has area of 2,080 sq miles and population of over 300,000 *Address* Tikamgarh Bundelkhand

ADDISON GEORGE FREDERICK, M A (Oxon) CSI (1923) Commissioner of Labour, b 1873 m Miss E L Roberts *Educ* at Richmond School Yorkshire and Queen's College Oxford Special Asst Agent Visagapatam Special Settlement Officer Secretary and Member of the Forest Committee Collector of Madras Commissioner of Revenue Settlement Labour Commissioner Member Leg Council *Address* Madras Club

AKENHAM WALSH Rt Rev HERBERT DD (Dub), Principal Bishop's College Calcutta b Dublin 22 March 1871 3rd son of late Rt Rev William Pakenham Walsh Bishop of Ossory and Clara Jane Ridley m 1916 Clara Ridley y d of Rev Canon F C Hayes *Educ* Chard Grammar School Birkenhead School Trinity College Dublin Descon, 1896 worked as a member of the Dublin University Brotherhood Chota Nagpore India 1896-1903 Principal S P C College, Trichinopoly 1904-07 Head of the S P G Brotherhood Trichinopoly Warden Bishop Cotton School Bangalore

1907-14, Bishop of Assam 1915-23 Publications St Francis of Assisi and other poems Nisbet Altar and Table (S.P.C.K.) Evolution and Christianity (C.I.) Commentary on St John's Ep (S.P.C.K.) Daily Services for Schools and Colleges (Longmans) and Divine Healing (S.P.C.K.) *Address* Bishop's College 224 Lower Circular Road Calcutta

ALANPUR NAWAB CAPTAIN H H ZUNDA TUL MULK DEWAN MAHAKHAN TALIB MUHAMMAD KHAN BAHADUR KCIE (1920) KCVO (1922) b July 7 1883 State has area of 1,750 sq miles and population of over 2,36,694 *Address* Palanpur

PAL BIPIN CHANDRA Journalist b 7 Nov 1858 *Educ* Presidency College Calcutta Sub-Editor Bengal Public Opinion 1883-84 Sub-Editor Tribune 1887-88 Secretary and Librarian Calcutta Public Library 1890-92 License Inspector Calcutta Corporation 1892-93 visited England and America worked as a Brahmo Missionary started New India 1901 and afterwards 'Bande Mataram' convicted in 1907 to simple imprisonment for 6 months for contempt of court left for England 1908 where he started 'Swaraj' (monthly) in 1911 sentenced on landing at Bombay to simple imprisonment for one month on a charge of sedition started The Hindu Review in 1912 *Address* Calcutta

PALMER Rt Rev E J, *see* Bombay, Bishop of.

PANNA, H H MAHENDRA MAHARAJA YADVY DRA SINGH of KCIE (1922) b 1895. S cousin on his deposition, 1902, m 1912 Kunvari Shri Manhar Kunwar, o d of Maharajah of Bhavnagar State has area of 2,596 sq miles, and population of about 200,000 *Address* Panna, Bundelkhand

PARANJPE THE HON MR RAGHUNATH PRAKASHRAM b Murdi 16 Feb 1876, *Educ* Maratha H S Bombay, Fergusson Coll, Poona St John's Coll Cambridge (Engl) Paris and Göttingen, First in all Univ exam in India went to England as Govt of India scholar bracketed Senior Wrangler at Cambridge 1899 Prince and Prof of Math Fergusson Coll Poona since 1902 has taken prominent part in all social, political and educational movements in Bombay Pres Vice-Chancellor of new Indian Women's Univ 1916-20 Bombay Leg Council, 1913 represented the University of Bombay since 1916 Awarded the Kaiser's Hind Gold Medal in 1916 Minister, Bombay Government, 1921-23 Publications Short Lives of Gokhale and Karve *Address* Poona

PARREKH, SIR GOKULDAS KANANDAN, KT (1921), b 24 Jan 1847 *Educ* Bombay University m Parsambai, daughter of Hargovanadas Tribhovandas of Cambay School Master, Surat High School, Deputy Inspector, Gujarat Schools, Bombay, Piesdar High Court, Bombay; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1897-1920, presided at Satara Provincial Conferences Gujarat Political Conferences, Surat, 1919, All-India Social Conference, Bombay, 1904, Temperance Conference, Lahore, 1906,

- and Temperance Confee, Ahmedabad, 1916
Instituted preliminary inquiries into land
revenue collection irregularities and oppres-
sive measures 1890-1900 which re-
sulted in special Government Inquiry Ad-
dress New Queen's Road Bombay
- PARTAB BHADUR PING RAJA TALUQDAR**
OF KILA PARTABGARH, C.I.E. Hon Magis-
trate Hon Mem of U P Leg Council
c 1886 Address Kila Partabgarh Oudh
- PARTABGARH H H SIR BAGHUNATH SINGH**
BHADUR MAHARAJA OF KOIE b
1850 s 1890 State has area of 886 sq
miles and population of 62,704 salute of 15
guns Address Partabgarh Rajputana
- PASCOE EDWIN HALL M A SC D (Cantab)**
D Sc (London) FGS Director Geo-
logical Survey of India since 1921 Editor
Memoirs and Records of the Geological Survey
of India Treasurer and Editor Mining and
Geological Institute of India President
of the Governing Body Indian School of
Mining and Geology Corresponding Member
Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau Cor-
respondent Institute of Metals b 17 Feb
1878 m M.A. d of James MacLean of Beaulieu
Inverness, Educ Kings College and Univ
College London St John's College Cam-
bridge Joined Geological Survey 1905
Kangra Earthquake Investigation 1905
Survey of Burma Oilfields 1905-09 accom-
panied Makwari Punitive Expedition Naga
Hills 1910 deputed Persian Gulf Arabian
Coast and W Persia 1913 Sado Oilfields
Commission in Persia and Persian Gulf
1913-14 Punjab and N W Frontier 1914-15
Commandant 2nd Lt in I A R O 1915 Pub-
lications The Oilfields of Burma The Pet-
roleum Occurrences of Assam and Bengal
Petroleum in the Punjab and N W Frontier
Province Geological Notes on Mesopotamia
and several shorter papers in the Records
Geological Survey of India and elsewhere
Address Geological Survey of India 27
Chowringhee Calcutta
- PATIALA MAJOR GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS**
FAZL-UD-DIN KHAN I DAULAT-I-INGLISH I A
MAHARAJA ZAMAN AMIR UL UMRA MAHARAJA
DHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SHERI MAHARAJA
I RAJAN BHUPINDER SINGH MOHINDER
BHADUR, Ruler of Patiala State GCSI
GCIIE G C V O G B E A D C F R G S
F R S M R A S M R S A F R C I
F R E S b Oct 1891 the premier Ruling
Prince of the Punjab is one of the Ruling
Princes of India, a member of the Standing
Committee of Indian Princes Chamber
(Narendra Mandal) Commander in Chief
Patiala Forces, Hon Major-General in British
Army and Hon Colonel 15th Ludhiana
Sikhs served with Indian Expeditionary
Forces during European War 1914, on the staff
in France, Belgium Italy and Palestine in
1918 Afghan War 1919 (Grand Cross of the
Legion d'Honneur Grand Cross of the Order
of the Crown of Italy Grand Cordon of the
Order de Leopold Grand Cordon of the
Order of the Nile Grand Cross of the Order
of the Crown of Roumania) represented
India at the Imperial War Conference and
Cabinet, 1918, Or G.C.I.E., 1911, G.B.E.
- 1918, GCSI 1921, GOVO, 1922 A.D.C
to His Majesty the King Emperor, 1922
Address (Winter) Patiala (Summer) Chail,
Simla Hills Punjab India
- PATON NIGEL FAIRHOLT** Managing Partner,
Graham & Co Calcutta b 6 Nov 1847 m
Nora Ermengarde d of the late William
Skinner Edinburgh Educ Edinburgh
Academy and Edinburgh University
Chairman Bombay Chamber of Commerce
1919-20 Mem Imp Legislative Council,
1919-20 Trustee of the Port of
Bombay 1915-20 Major 15th Bombay Bat-
talion A F I Hon A D C to Governors of
Bombay 1917-1921 Member Bengal Cham-
ber of Commerce Committee Commissioner
Port of Calcutta Member Calcutta Board
P & O Banking Corporation Address
8 Alipore Lane Calcutta
- PATTANI SIR PRABHASHANKAR DALPATRAM**
K C I E President of Council of Administra-
tion Bhavnagar State 1920 Member of Exec
Council of Government of Bombay 1912-1915
of the Bombay Legislative Council 1916
of the Imperial Legislative Council 1917 of the
Council of India, 1917-19 b 1882 Educ
Morvi Rajkote Bombay Address Anand-
wadi Bhavnagar
- PAUL KANAKARAYAN TIRUPULVAM O B E**
(1918) Nat Gen Sec Y M C A of India
Burma and Ceylon b 24 March 1876 Educ
Madras Christian College Law College Tea-
chers College m Miss K Narasimha Rao
Teacher Headmaster College Lecturer
Municipal Commissioner and Chairman
General Secretary N M S of India Publi-
cations Citizenship in Modern India
Adult Education An Urgent Need of
Modern India Address 5 Russell Street,
Calcutta
- PEARS STEUART EDMUND C.I.E. (1916)**
(C.S.I. (1923) Resident in Waziristan b 25
Nov 1875 m Winifred M Barton Educ
Edinburgh University and Trinity Hall
Cambridge Entered Indian Civil Service
1898 served in N W F Province from 1901
onwards as Political Agent in Tochi Kurram
Khyber and Malakand Delegate to Anglo-
Afghan Conference at Muscorie in 1920
Address Dera Ismail Khan N W F Pro-
vince
- PERCIVAL PHILIP EDWARD BA (Oxon)**
ICS M.L.A. Dist and Sessions Judge
Hyderabad Sind b 11th Nov 1872 m
Sylvia Baines d of Sir J A Baines C.S.I.
Educ Charterhouse and Balliol College
Oxford Served under the Government of
Bombay as Asst Collr Asst Judge
Under-Secretary Judicial Dept Registrar
Bombay High Court, Remembrancer of Legal
Affairs and Dist and Sessions Judge, Satara
Address Hyderabad Sind
- PERINI RT REV PAUL S J DD** Bishop of
Callit since June 1923 b Brindola Italy
Jan 1867 Educ various Colleges of Society
of Jesus in Austria England and Belgium
Joined Society of Jesus 1883 Rector and
Prin of St. Aloysius Coll Mangalore for 15
years Bishop of Mangalore 1910-23
Address Bishop's House Calicut

PETIT, SIR DINSHAW MANOCKJEE, 2nd Baronet, s. of late Framjee Dinshaw Petit, 2nd son of 1st Baronet, b 7th June, 1873. s his grandfather, Sir Dinshaw Manockjee, under special remainder, 1901, and changed his name from Jeejeebhoy Framji Petit to Dinshaw Manockjee Petit, Merchant and cotton mill-owner, Member, Bombay Legislative Council, J P for Bombay, a Delegate of Parsee Ch Matrimonial Court of Bombay, Pres of Association for Amelioration of Poor Zoroastrians in Persia, the Petit Charity Funds, Petit Institute, and Parsee Orphanage, and Chairman and Member of Managing Committees of the principal Parsee charitable institutions in Bombay, s Dinbal, s of Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, 3rd Bart, and has issue *Address* Petit Hall, Malabar Hill, Bombay

PETIT, JHANGHORI BOMANJEE, Merchant millowner b 21 Aug 1879 s Mrs Jaljee Sorabjee Patuck, M B E, Kalesar Hind Silver medallist Educ Fort High and St Xavier's Institutions J P, merchant, mill owner and banker, Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, Bombay Development Board and the Industries Committee Member of the Committees of the Bombay Millowners Association (President 1915-16), Indian Merchants' Chamber (President 1919-1920) and Indian Industrial Conference (President, 1918), President Bombay Textile Association, Vice-President, Bombay Presidency Assn Trustees of Parsee Panchayat, Founder and Proprietor of *The Indian Daily Mail*, Founder and President of the B D Petit Parsi General Hospital, Indian Economic Society, Bombay Progressive Assn Bombay Symphony Orchestra, Tariff Reform League, Landlords Association and New High School for Girls (Bombay), Founder and Hon Secy of the Imperial Indian Citizenship Association and the Victoria Memorial School for the Blind, Delegate of the Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court (1902-1922) Member of Bombay Legislative Council (1921-1923), Excise Committee (1921-24) Indigenous Industries Committee (1915-1917), Industrial Disputes Committee (1921), and member of the University Reforms Committee (1924) *Address* Mount Petit, Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill Bombay

ETMAN, CHARLES HARIN BRYAN, C.I.E. a 9 September 1866 Educ Privately and at Trinity College, Cambridge Advocate, Calcutta H Court, 1892 and of Chief Court, Punjab, 1892, Government Advocate, Punjab, 1900, Judge of the High Court, Lahore, from April to Aug 1920 and from Oct 1920 to Feb 1921 *Publications* "Report on Frauds and Bribery in the Commissariat Department," "P W D Contract Manual" (Revised Edition) *Address* Lahore

ETRIE, DAVID, C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E. b 1879 Educ. Aberdeen Univ. Ent. Ind. Police, 1900, Asst. Dir., C.I.D., Simla, 1911-12, Spec. duty with Home Dept., since 1915 On special duty with H.E.H. the Duke of Connaught, 1921 On staff of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-23, Senior Superintendent of Police, Lahore, Member of the H. Comm. on Public Services, 1923 *Address* 40 Lloyds Bank, Bombay.

PIGGOTT, HOW JUNCTION SIR THEODORE CARO B.A., I.C.S., Poona Judge, Allahabad, since 1914, b Padua, 26 Oct. 1867 Educ. Kingswood Sch Bath, Christ Church, Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., Jud Commr of Oodh, 1911. *Address* High Court, Allahabad

PILCHER, GEORGE, M.A. (Oxon), (Mod Hist Hon 1907) M.L.A., Journalist b 1882 s Muriel Blackman s of Dr J G Blackman of Portsmouth Educ Kent College, Canterbury and Wadham Coll, Oxford On staff of London Morning Post 1907-1914 as occasional leader writer, Foreign Editor and War Correspondent (Balkan War 1912-18) on staff of Calcutta Statesman 1914-24, as Assistant (and some time Joint) Editor *Publications* Steel a Factor in India's progress (Longmans, 1924) various articles in the 'Nineteenth Century', and Fortnightly, Edinburgh and Calcutta Reviews *Address* C/o Cox's Branch, Lloyd's Bank, Calcutta

PILKINGTON, HARRY SWYMOUR HOYLE, C.I.E., M.V.O., Postmaster-General, United Provinces b 1869 Ent. Ind P.O., 1890, Asst. Dir.-Gen., 1909-16, served with F P O in China Exp., 1900-02, took charge of postal arrangements during visits to India of Prince and Princess of Wales, 1905-06, Amier of Afghanistan, 1906-07, and King George and Queen Mary, 1911-1912, Dir., Postal Services with Indian Forces in France, 1914-1916, mentioned in despatches. *Address* Lucknow

PIYARE LAL, LALA, M.L.A., Gold Medalist in Law (1880) Punjab Univ., Vakil High Court b 21 Apr 1858 Educ Delhi Govt College Lahore Govt College President, Delhi Bar Association, Vice President Municipal Committee Delhi Hon Secretary, Board of Trustees, Hindu College, Delhi Member, Executive Council Delhi Univ *Address* Piyare Lal Chandra Chowk Delhi

PONSONBY, MAJOR-GENERAL JOHN, C.B. C.M.G. D.S.O., Commanding Madras District, b 25 March 1866, Educ Eton Granted to Irish Rifles 1886. Transferred to Coldstream Guards, 1913, promoted Major-Genl., 1918 Saw service in Matabeleland, Uganda Mutiny, South Africa and European War 1914-18 *Address* Head quarters, Madras District Wellington

POSA, MAUNG I.S.O. (1911), K.S.M. 1893, b Toungoo, 13 May 1862 Educ St Paul's R.C.M. Sch Toungoo Asst to Civil Officer Ningyal Column II, B Expeditionary Field Force, 1885-1887, Burma Medal with clasps, 1885-87 Senior Member, Burma Provincial Judicial ser since 1911 Interpreter to Prince of Wales during visit to Burma Jan 1906 Also to three Viceroy's, 1898, 1901, 1908, Dist Judge, 1916, Offg Divisional Sessions Judge, 1918, Retired June 1918 Asst Dir Recruiting, July to Dec 1918 Mentioned in despatches *Address* Thaton

PRASAD, GANESH, M.A. (Cantab), D.Sc., M.L.C. (Allahabad University Constituency) Hartdige professor of Higher Mathematics the Calcutta University, Life President of the Benares Mathematical Society, Vice President, Calcutta Mathematical Society, Patron, Allahabad University Math. Assn b 15th Nov 1876 Educ. Ballia, Allahabad: Cambridge, Göttingen, Member

- of Court, Council and Senate, Hindu Univ (1934), Member of Court, Executive and Academic Councils and Faculty of Science, Allahabad Univ. Fellow of Calcutta University and Vice President, Indian Association for cultivation of science Publications "Constitution of Matter and Analytical Theories of Heat" (Berlin, 1903) text books on Differential Calculus and Integral Calculus (London 1909 and 1910) "Mathematical Research in the last twenty years" (Berlin, 1922) and many other original papers published in the mathematical and scientific journals of England, Germany Italy and India during 1900-1921 Address 2 Samanaya Mansions Corporation Street, Calcutta and 37 Benares Cantt
- PRASAD, THE HON JUSTICE SIR JWALA B.A., LL.B.**, Purnea Judge Patna High Court, since 1918, Acting Chief Justice, 1921 to 1875 m 1888, s of Munshi Mangul Sen Singh, Zamindar and retired Dy Commr. Educ Patna College, Calcutta University. Mulr Central College and Allahabad University, Vakil Calcutta and Allahabad High Courts, Fellow of Patna University. Rai Sahib 1914 Rai Bahadur 1915 Ag Chief Justice in 1924 Address Patna
- PRATT, THE HON MR JUSTICE EDWARD MILLARD**, Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1918 to 29th August 1895, Educ Dulwich Coll and Univ Coll, London Appointed ICS 1880, Dist and Sess Judge 1897 Leg Rem, 1905, Jud Commr of Hind, 1910 Address Orisbill Malabar Hill, Bombay
- PRATT, FREDERICK, C.S.I.** (1925) ICS Commissioner, Northern Division Bombay Presidency to 4th Dec 1899 Educ Dulwich Coll Hartford Coll, Oxford Address Shahibag Ahmedabad
- PRYOR, EDWIN LESEWAKE B.A. (Oxon)**, Barr-at Law C.I.F. O.B.F. Merchant French Consular Agent at Karachi since 1914 to 8th July 1874 Member, Legislative Assembly 1920 21 Address "Newcroft", Ghilari Road Karachi
- PUDUKOTTAI, H. H. RAJA MARTAND BHAIKAYA TONDIMAN BAHADUR RAJA OF COIE**, b 1875, s grandfather 1886 m 1915 State has area of 1179 sq miles and population of 426,813 and had been ruled by Tondiman dynasty from time immemorial Salute 11 guns Address Henry 8 King & Co, London
- PUDUMJEE, NOWROOJEE**, 1st Class Sardar of Deccan, Bombay, C.I.E., b 1841, Educ Poona Coll under Sir Edwin Arnold, war mem of Bombay Leg Council, Promoter and Chairman of several Industrial and Banking Companies Address Pudumjee House, Poona
- PURSHOTAMDAS THAKURDAS SIR, Kt.** (1923), C.I.E. (1919), M.B.E. Non Official Member, Indian Legislative Assembly (Indian Commerce) Cotton Merchant, b 80th May 1879, Educ Elph Coll Bombay President East Indian Cotton Association, Chairman, Bombay Cotton Exchange Member, Lord Inchcape's Endowment Committee, Director, the Imperial Bank of India, Bombay Address Malabar Castle, The Ridge, Bombay
- PURVES, ROBERT BERTON, C.I.E., F.W.D.**, retired, b 1859, Educ Thomason Coll, Roorkee, Ex Eng, 1895, Supdt Eng., 1907, Ch Eng and Sec to Govt, Punjab Irrigation Branch, 1913 14 retired, 1914, since practising as Hydraulic Eng and Irrigation Expert Address c/o Messrs King Hamilton & Co, Calcutta
- QUILON, BISHOP OF**, see Bensiger, Rt Rev A.M.
- RADHANPUR H. H. MAHOMED JALALUDDIN KHAN BABI, BAHADUR, NAWAB OF**, b 1st April 1889 Pathan, Babi Mahomedan Educ Rajkumar Coll, Rajkot S brother, 1910 State has area of 1,150 sq miles, and population of 67,789 Salute 11 guns Address Radhanpur
- RAHM, THE HON SIR ABDUR, M.A., Kt.** (1919) Judge, Madras High Court since 1908 b September, 1867 m Nisar Fatima Begum Educ Government High School, Midnapore Presidency College, Calcutta Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1890, practised as Advocate, Calcutta, Presidency Magistrate, Calcutta, 1900-03, Fellow Madras University, since 1908, Member of the E Commission on Public Services 1913-15 officiated as Chief Justice, Madras July-October 1916, and July to October 1919 Publication "Principles of Mahomedan Jurisprudence" Address College Bridge House, Egmore, Madras
- RAHMTOOLA, SIR ISRAHIM KCSI CIE** President Bombay Legislative Council (1928) b May 1862 was Mem of Imp Council, Mem, Bombay Leg Council Mem, Exec Council Bombay Address Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay
- RAINY, SIR GEORGE KCIF (1925) CSI** (1921), C.I.E. (1918), Ch Sec to Govt of Bihar and Orissa since (1911) b 11th Feb 1875 Educ Edinburgh Academy and Merton Coll, Oxford Entered ICS, 1899 Under-Sec to Govt of India, Commerce and Industries Dept., 1906 09 Member Imperial Delhi Committee, 1914 16, Dy Sec to Govt of India, Finance Dept, 1916-19 Chief Secretary to the Government of Behar and Orissa 1919 23 Address V S Club, Calcutta
- RAJABATHINA MUDALIYAR PAKAM, C.I.E.** Diwan Bahadur, served in Salt Dept since 1860 Insp Gen, Registration, 1896, Mem of Madras Council, 1896 1902 Address Madras
- RAJKOT THAKUR SAHIB LAKHJI BOWAJI KCIE** b 17th Dec 1885 Educ Rajkumar Coll Rajkot State has area of 282 sq miles and population of 60,993 Salute of 9 guns Address Rajkot
- RAJPIPLA, CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHEH VJAYSINGH, MAHARAJA OF, KCSI** (1925) b 1890 s to the gadi in 1915 Educ at Rajkumar Coll, Rajkot, and subsequently with the Imperial Cadet Corps in Dehra Dun Enjoys permanent hereditary salute of 15 guns Address Mandod, Rajpipla State

RAJWADE, MAJOR-GENERAL GANPATRAO RA-
GHUNATH RAO RAJA, MAHARAJ-KHAS BAHADUR
SAUKAT-JUNG, C.B.E., A.D.C. Army
 Member, Gwalior Govt., and Inspector-
 General, Gwalior Army. Member of His
 Highness' Majlis-i-Khas, ranks as First Class
 Bardar in the Bombay Presidency 3 Jan
 1884 *Edue* Victoria College Address
 Gwalior

RAMA RAYANINGAR, SRI P. THE HON
RAJAH of PANAGAL, M.A., Minister in charge
 of Local Self Government, Madras, since 1921,
 6 1886 *Edue* Triplicane Hindu High
 School, Presidency College was nominated
 Fellow of the Madras University represented
 Zemindars of this Presidency in Imperial
 Legis Council from 1912-1915, was invited
 to Imperial War Conference in 1918 again
 returned to Imperial Legislative Council in
 1919, gave evidence before Joint Committees
 of Parliament on behalf of All India Zemin
 dars pleaded also the cause of non Brahmins
 of Madras Address Secretariat, Madras

RAMCHANDRA RAO DEWAN BAHADUR M
B.A. B.L. Kaiser Hind Gold Medal Vakil
 High Court Member Legislative Assembly
 6 September 1888 *m* M. Vidyamma *Edue*
 at Presidency College Madras Member
 Madras Legislative Council 1910-1923
 member of the deputation of the All India
 Moderates in 1919 and Member of the Lytton
 Committee on Indian Students Publications
 Development of Indian Polity Address
 Eloor- Madras Presidency

RAMPAL, RAJA, see Kutichr

RAMPUR, COL. H. H. ALIJAH, FARZAND I
DILPIKIR I DAULAT-I INGHILIA, MUHKIL
UD-DAULAH, NAHIR UL-MULUK, AMIR ULUM
ARA, NAWAB SIR SAYED MOHAMMAD HAMU
ALI KHAN BAHADUR MUSTAFI JUNG, G.C.S.I.
 (1921) G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O. A.D.C. to King
 Emperor 6 81st Aug 1876 S 1889 State
 has area of 892 sq miles and population
 of 581,712, Salute of 15 guns Address
 Rampur State U P

RANGACHARIAR, DEWAN BAHADUR TIRU
VENKATA, B.A. B.L. C.I.E. (1925) M.L.A. since
 1920 Vakil, High Court Madras 6 1865 *m*
 Ponnammal, G.C.B. of S. Rajagopala Aiyangar of
 Srirangam *Edue* S. P. G. College Tri-
 chinopoly, Law College, Madras School
 master for 8 years enrolled as Vakil,
 High Court, Madras 1891 Professor, Law
 Coll 1898-1900, Member, Madras Corps since
 1906, Member, Madras Legis Council, 1918
 1919 Member Indian Bar Committee Mer-
 cantile Marine Committee Escher Committee
 Elected Dy. President, Leg. Assembly
 Member Indian Colonies Committee on
 deputation at London with the Colonial Office,
 President Tel-graph Committee 1921
 Member, Frontier Committee Chairman,
 Madras Publicity Board Publications A
 book on Village Panchayats Address
 Ritherdon House Vepery Madras

RANGASWAMY AYYANGAR, K. V. Land
 holder and Member of the Council of State
 6 1886 Member of the old Imperial Legisla-
 tive Council and a Congressman of the Tilak
 School Address Vasudeva Vilas, Sriran-
 gam, Madras Presidency

RANGOON, BISHOP OF, since 1910, Bt. Rht
ROLLESTON STREET FIVE, D.D. m 1914
 Annie Kathleen, d. of late Herbert Hardy of
 Danhurst, Sussex, two s. *Edue* Clifton Coll.,
 Emmanuel Coll., Cam., Ordained 1894,
 Curate of Bishopwearmouth, Sunderland,
 1894-98, Curate of St Agnes, Bristol 1898-
 1900, Vicar of St Agnes, Bristol, 1900-1904
 S. P. G. Missionary, Mandalay, 1904-10
 Address Bishops Court, Rangoon

RANJITSINGHI, see Nawansagar

RANKIN, THE HON. SIR JUSTICE GEORGE
OLAVE, Kt. (1925), Judge, High Court, Cal-
cutta 6 12th August 1877 m. Alice Maud Amy
 Sayer *Edue* Trinity College, Cambridge
 Barrister (Lincoln's Inn) 1904 Practised on
 Northern Circuit R. Garrison Artillery,
 1916-18 Address High Court, Calcutta

RAO, RAO SAHIB S. M. RAJA RAM, Editor,
The Wednesday Review 6 24th December
 1876 *Edue* S. P. G. and St Joseph's
 College Trichinopoly Started *The Wednes-*
day Review in 1905 and *The Zamindar and*
Progress (monthly) incorporated into the
Fendatory and Zemindar India in 1919
 Address Trichinopoly and 16, Harrington Road,
 Chetpet, Madras

RATLAM, COL. H. H. SIR SAJJAN SINGHI,
K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H.H. The
 Prince of Wales, Maharaja Sahib Bahadur of
 Rutlam 6 13 Jan 1880, S. father (Sir Ranjit
 Singhji, K.C.I.B.), 1893, *m* 1902, d.
 of H.H. Rao of Kutich, descended from younger
 branch of Jodhpur family, and maintains
 moral supremacy over Rajput Chiefs in Malwa,
 served European War (France) from April 1915
 to May 1918, mentioned in despatches, pre-
 sented with Croix d'officier of the legion d'
 Honneur Served Afghan War, 1919,
 Member of Managing Committee, Mayo
 College Ajmer Mem Managing Com-
 mittee Daly College Indore, Vice-President,
 Central India Rajputra Hit Karini Sabha
 Salute 15 guns Address Ranjit Bilas Palace,
 Rutlam

RAWLINSON, 1st Baron, cr 1919, HENRY
STYMOUR RAWLINSON, 2nd Bt., cr 1931,
G.C.B., cr 1919, K.C.M.G., cr 1918, G.O.V.O.,
cr 1917, G.C.S.I. (1924), K.C.B., cr
1915, C.B. 1900 Commander-in-Chief
 in India since Nov 1920, 6 20th Feb
 1864, *ss* of Maj Gen Sir Henry
 Creswick Rawlinson, Bt., and Louisa, d. of H.
 Seymour Knowle Wilks, S. father 1895, *m*
 1890, Meredith, o. d. Coleridge J. Kennard
Edue Eton, B.M.C. Sandhurst, Staff
 College, Camberley (P.S.C.) Entered 40th
 K.R. Rifles, 1864, A.D.C. to Sir Frederick
 Roberts, Commander in Chief in India,
 1887, served with Mounted Infantry, Burma
 campaign (medal and clasp), resigned A.
 D. C. ship and returned to England, 1889,
 entered Staff College, 1892, exchanged into
 Coldstream Guards, 1892, served in
 Soudan campaign as D.A.A.G. to Lord
 Kitchener, 1898, present at battle of
 Atbara and Khartoum (medal and two
 clasps, despatches twice), served in S.
 African war (two medals and eight clasps),
 A.A.G. (Lady Smith siege), Natal, 1899,

- A.A.G. Headquarters, 8 Africa, 1900**, commanded Mobile Column, 1901-2 (despatches three times), European war, 1914-18, commanded 4th Division 4th Corps and the Fourth Army despatches eight times, K.C.B., Prom Lt General and General, K.C.B., G.C.B., G.C.V.O., K.C.M.G., Commandant, Staff College, 1903-6, commanded 2nd Brigade, Aldershot, 1907-9, commanding 3rd Division, Salisbury Plain, 1910, Commanded Forces in N Russia, 1919, received thanks of H.M.'s Government, Commander-in-Chief, Aldershot, 1919-1920, Member of Army Council, Grand Officers, Legion of Honour, Order of Danilo (Montenegro) 1st Class 1917, 1st Class Order of Leopold, Belgium, 2nd Class Order of St George, Russia *Publication* The Officers' Notebook *Address* Army Headquarters, India
- RAWLINSON, HUGH GEORGE**, Principal, Deccan College, Poona, Fellow, Bombay University, b 12th May 1880, m 1910, to Rose, only d of Lt-Col J F Fitzpatrick I.M.S. *Educ* Market Bosworth Grammar Sch and Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge, (Exhibitioner and Scholar, B.A., 1st Class, Classical Tripos, 1902, M.A. 1908), Lecturer in English and Classics, Royal College, Colombo, 1908-08, Hare University Prize, 1908, Entered I.E.S. as Professor of English Literature, Deccan Coll., Poona, 1908, Ag Principal, Gujarat Coll., Ahmedabad, 1914, *Alto*, Deccan College, 1915, Fellow of the Royal Historical Society, 1916, Principal Karnataka Coll., Dharwar, 1917-23, *Publications* Bactria, the History of a Forgotten Empire, Indian Historical Studies, Shilvaj, the Maratha, Intercourse between India and the West, The Beginnings of British India, an Account of the Old English Factory at Surat New Edition of Forbes Bas Maia Contributor to Vol II, Cambridge History of India *Address* Deccan College, Poona
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- BAY, PROFULLA CHANDRA, C.I.E., D.Sc.** (Edin.), Ph.D. (Cal.), Sen Prof of Chemistry, Univ Coll of Sc, Calcutta, b Bengal, 1861, *Educ* Calcutta, Edinburgh Univ Graduated at Edinburgh, D.Sc., Hon Ph.D., Calcutta Univ, 1908, Hon D.Sc., Durham Univ, 1912, Dean of Fac of Sc Univ of Calcutta, 1915 *Address* College of Science, Calcutta.
- READING, 1st EARL OF, or 1917, RUFUS DANIEL ISAACS, VISCOUNT ERLINGH, or 1917**, 1st Viscount Reading, or 1916, Baron, or 1914, Kt, or 1910, G.C.B., or 1915, P.C. 1911, K.C.V.O., or 1911, G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E. (1921), G.C.V.O. (1922), Viceroy and Governor General of India since April 1921 Lord Chief Justice of England, 1913-21, President of Anglo-French Loan Mission to U.S.A., 1915, Special Envoy to U.S.A., 1917, High Commissioner and Special Ambassador to U.S.A. 1918, First Attorney General to become Member of Cabinet, 1912 b London, 10 Oct 1860, 2nd s of late Joseph H Isaacs, merchant in City of London, m 1887, Alice Edith C.I., G.B.E., 3rd d of late Albert Cohen, merchant, City of London one s *Educ* University College School, Brussels, Hanover Bench of Middle Temple, 1904, Solicitor-General, 1910 Attorney General, 1910-13, K.C. 1908, M.P. (L. Reading, 1904-13, *Notes* s Viscount Erlingh *Address* Simla or Delhi
- BRADY MONEY, SIR JEHANGIR COWASJI JEHANGIR, see Jehangir**
- REED, SIR STANLEY, KT., K.B.E., LL.D.** (Glasgow), Editor, *The Times of India*, Bombay, 1907-1923, b Bristol, 1872, m 1901, Lilias d. of John Humphrey of Bombay joined staff, *Times of India*, 1897, Sp Correspondent, *Times of India* and *Daily Chronicle* through famine districts of India, 1900, tour of Prince and Princess of Wales in India, 1905-06, Amir's visit to India, 1907, and Persian Gulf, 1907, Jt Hon Sec, Bombay Prov. King Edward and Lord Harding Memorials, Ex Lt-Col Comdg Bombay, L.H. Represented Western India at Ind. Press Confc., 1909 *Address* *The Times of India*, 187 Fleet Street, London, E.C.
- REID, COLONEL CARTWRIGHT, C.B.** (June 1917), M Inst C.E., Engineer in Chief, Vizagapatam Harbour b 7 Nov, 1864 m Julia only d of late Henry Miller *Educ* Kirkby Lonsdale Grammar School Articled to Thomas Reid, C.E. Wakefield and Normanton Entered Admiralty Service (1888) as Asst, Civil Engineer, served at Pembroke, Halifax, Requinault and Chatham, was Superintending Civil Engineer Malta, Chatham and Bosyth and Deputy Civil Engineer in Chief Admiralty Lt-Col Royal Marines for reconstruction of Belgian Ports, Acted as a Consultant to Calcutta Port Trust in connection with proposed King George's Dock Scheme and Basra Port re Shatt-el-Arab Loaned by Admiralty (1921) for construction of Vizagapatam Harbour *Address* Vizagapatam Harbour, Vizagapatam
- REID, WILLIAM JAMES, C.S.I., Member and Vice-President, Executive Council, Assam.**

- 1871. Educ.**; Glasgow H. S.; Emmanuel Coll. Cambridge; Mem. I.C.S., 1897. *Address*: Kensington, Assam.
- ARMOUR, BEN CAMPBELL, Kt.**, or 1823; C.B.E., 1890, Partner, Hoare Miller & Co., London. b. 1874 Son of Doctor Francis Rhodes Manchester, m. 1905, Eleanor Wemyss (d. 1921) d. of late A. G. Reid, J.P., Dublin *Educ* Manchester Grammar School & Owens College, Pres., Bengal Chamber of Com., 1923 Member Indian Fiscal Commission & Bengal Retrenchment Com. *Offs*: Bengal, Calcutta, Oriental, London *Residence*: Kentons, Henley-on-Thames. *Address*: Calcutta
- RICH, WALTER FRANCIS, C.B.I.**, Ch. Sec., Burma, since 1907, Mem. of Lt.-Gov's Council, since 1909, Add. Mem. of Imp. Council. *Educ*, Morrison's Acad., Orléans, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1890; Sec. to Govt. 1904. *Address*: Secretariat, Rangoon.
- RICHARDSON, MAJOR-GENERAL CHARLES WILLIAM GRANT, C.B.**, 1920, C.B.I., 1918, G.O.C., Poona District (1922), b. 1868, m. 1900, Served Burma, 1888-90, (medal and clasp); N.W.F. 1894-97; (Clasp), South African War 1900-2 (Queen's medal and two clasps) G.O.C., Sind Rajputana District, 1921-22, Great War 1914-1918 (G.S. and Victory Medals mentioned in despatches), Afghan War 1919 (Medal and Clasp) and S.W. Persia (Medal and Clasp) *Address*: Poona.
- RICHMOND, REAR ADM. HERBERT W., C.B.** (1921), appointed Commander-in-Chief, East Indies Squadron, May 1925, b. 15 Sep 1871, s. of Sir William Richmond, B.A., K.C.B. and Clara Jane Richards, m. 1907, Florence Eliza, d. of Sir Hugh Bell, Bart four d. one s. *Educ*. H. M. S. Britannia, Lieut. 1893, Commander, 1903, Captain, 1909, Assistant Director of Operations, 1913-15, Liaison officer with Italian Fleet, 1915, Commanded Commonwealth, Conqueror, and Erin in Grand Fleet, Director of Staff Duties and Training, 1918, President, R. N. War Coll Greenwich, 1920-23. *Publications*: Papers relating to the Loss of Minerva, The Navy in the War, 1780-1748, The Spencer Papers, Vols III and IV *Address*: H. M. S. "Chatham."
- RINU, JEAN LOUIS, I.C.S.**, C.B.I. (1920), Commissioner in Sind since 1919; b. 23 Nov 1878, m. to Ida Augusta Edwards (deceased) *Educ*. University Coll. School, London and Balliol Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S. in 1898, served as Asst. Collr and Collr in the Bom Bay Presidency till 1911, when appointed Collr to Government, General Department, Collr of Karachi, 1917, Secretary to Govt., Revenue and Financial Departments, 1918 *Address*: Government House, Karachi.
- RIVETT-CARNAO, JOHN CLAUDE THURLOW** b. 1886, eldest s/o John Thurlow Rivett-Carnao, retired Dy. I.G. of Police, m. 1922, Juli, d. of S. Wilson, of New York City *Educ* Southbourne College. Entered Indian Police, 1906, served during War with 18th Bengal Lancers in Mesopotamia (M.C. and medals), awarded King's Police Medal, 1923, is Sup. of Police, United Provinces, and Captain I.A.R.O. (Cavalry). *Address*: Gonda, U.P.

- RIVETT-CARNAO, JOHN THURLOW**, retired Dy. Insp. General of Police, Eastern Bengal and Assam, and s/o late Charles Forbes Rivett-Carnao Bengal Civil Service and gr. s/o Sir James Rivett-Carnao, Bart Governor of Bombay, 1838-41 b. 1864, m. 1887 Emily, d. of late H.H. Brownlow and has four sons and one daughter *Residence*: Shillong, Assam. Entered Indian Police, 1877, retired 1911, served in Burma campaign, 1886-7 (medal), and in Chin Lushai expedition 1889-90 (clasp).
- RIVETT-CARNAO, HERBERT GORDON**, Second in Command, Kolhapur Infantry b. 1892, 3rd son of John Thurlow Rivett-Carnao, retired Dy. I.G. of Police *Educ* Bradfield Coll (Berks) and E. M. O. Entered Army 1911 Served during War on General Staff in Mesopotamia and as Asst. Political Officer, Amara, is Captain Indian Army and Offy Asst. Resident, Kolhapur State. *Address*: Kolhapur
- RIVINGTON, REV OSCAR STANFIELD**, Kalcey-Hind Gold Medal (1918), Mission Priest in Diocese of Bombay, Suppl. of B.P.G. Missions in Canara-speaking district of Bombay Diocese, Hon. Canon of St. Thomas Cathedral, Bombay, b. London, 1853 *Educ* Rugby, Scholastic Examination, London, Cuddesdon College, 1879, *Publications*: Commentaries on the Psalms, St. Luke and St. John, a Manual of Theology (all in Marathi) *Address*: Setgori-Gadag, Dharwar District, Bombay
- ROBINSON, SIR SYDNEY MADDOCK, Kt.**, Chief Justice, High Court, Burma (1923) b. 3 Dec 1865 *Educ* Hereford Cath Sch., Brasenose Coll., Oxford, Called to Bar, Middle Temple, 1888, Govt. Adv. and Leg. Coun. to Punjab Govt., Puisne Judge, Ch. Court of I. Burma, 1906-1920, Chief Judge, 1920-1922 *Address*: I, Leeds Road, Rangoon
- ROUSE, ALEXANDER MADDOCK, C.I.E.** F.C.B., Superintending Engineer, Delhi, b. 14 Sep 1878, m. Jean Louis Jameson, March 1912, two s. *Educ* St. Paul's Sch.; E.L.W.C. Cooper's Hill. *Address*: Delhi.
- BOW, DEWAN BHADUR KUNVERHAM KRISHNA-SWAMI, Vak.**, High Court, Madras, b. Aug 12, 1867 *Educ* Presy. Coll., Madras, m. a grand-daughter of the late Raja Sir T. Madhava Bow, K.C.S.I., Vakill, Madras High Court 1889 Joined Provincial Judicial Service, 1884, Rao Bahadur in 1911 Gave evidence before the Public Services Commission 1913, M.L.A. (nominated), acted as Judge, High Court, Madras 1921, retired as District Judge in 1922 rejoined the bar; made Dewan Bahadur 1923. *Address*: Madras Baug, St. George's Cathedral Road, Madras
- BOW, DEWAN BHADUR RAGHUNATHA BOW RAMACHANDRA, Secretary to Government of Madras**, b. 27 September 1871. *Educ*. Trivandrum and Presidency College, Madras. Statutory Civil Service, 1900-32. Transferred to Provincial Service. Collector, Bangalore, Co-op. Credit Societies *Address*: Madras.
- ROY, MR. REV. AUGUSTUS**, Bishop of Calcutta, since 1904; b. France, 1808. *Address*: Calcutta Cathedral, Calcutta.

BOY, THE HON. RAJA PRANADA NATH of Dighapaty; Member, Council of State and President of Bengal, 29 Jan. 1878. Educ. at Raj Shahu College and Presidency College, Member of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1910-12. Address: Dighapaty, Rajbari, Dist. Rajshahy or 143, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

BOY, SURENDRA NATH, RAJRA VACHANPATY B.A., B.L. (Calcutta Univ.), Vakil, High Court, Calcutta and Landholder 5 April 1882. Educ. St. Xavier's College, Hindu School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Enrolled as Vakil of the High Court, 1888, elected Vice-Chairman of the Garden Reach Municipality (first Mill Municipality in Bengal) in 1897, has been elected Chairman, South Suburban Municipality since 1900, Commissioner, Calcutta Corporation from 1896-1900; Member, Dist. Board of 24 persons, from 1916-1922, elected member, Bengal Legis. Council in January 1918 and elected to Council at subsequent elections. Elected first Deputy President of the Reformed Council in Feb 1921, acted as Presidnt from May 1921 to Nov 1922. Introduced the Bengal Primary Education Bill in the Bengal Legis. Council and got it passed by the Council in 1919. Publication: (1) "A History of the Native States of India," (2) Local Self-Government in Bengal, etc. Address: Behala, Calcutta.

BUNCHOORELAL, SRI GRIYAPRASAD CHINULAL MADRAYAL, 2nd Bt., 5. 18 Apr 1906. a. of 1st Bt. and Sulochna, d. of Chunilal Khushabral, 8 father 1916. [Father was first member of Hindu community to receive baronetcy.] Has none Address: Shah pur House, Ahmedabad.

BUSHBROOK WILLIAMS, LAURENCE FREDERIC, M.A., B.Litt. (Oxon) 1920, O.B.E., 1920, O.B.E. (1923), M.L.A. (1924), Director of Public Information, Government of India, 5 10 July 1891, m. 1923. Fred. a. d. of Frederick Chance. Educ. University College, Oxford, Private Study in Paris, Venice, Rome. Lecturer at Trinity College, Oxford, 1912, travelled Canada and U.S.A., 1913, Fellow of All Souls, 1914. Attached General Staff Army Head Quarters, India, 1916. Professor of Modern Indian History, Allahabad University, 1915-1919. On special duty with the Government of India, 1918-1921 in India, England and America. Official Historian of the Indian Tour of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-22. Secretary to the Indian Delegation at the Imperial Conference, 1923. Publications: History of the Abbey of St. Albans, Four Lectures on the Handling of Historical Material, Students Supplement to the *Annals of the Bazar*, A Sixteenth Century Empire Builder, India in 1917-18, India in 1916, India in 1920, India in 1921-22, India in 1922-23. General Editor "India of Today" and India's Parliament Volumes, 1, 2, 3 and 4. Address: Home Department, Government of India.

SANKIS, RAO RAHADUR SRI R. V., KR. (1925), B.A., O.L.E., Dwar, Kothapur State, since 1906; 5.1 April 1887. Educ. Rajaram H.S., Kothapur Hyderabad Coll., Bombay. Mat. Educ. Dept.; held offices of Honorary Quinlan and Ch. Rev. Officer, Kothapur, Mem. of Royal Soc.

of Arts, East India Assoc.; Reg. Asiatic Soc., Bombay Br. Address: Kothapur.

SACHIN, MAJOR H. H. NAWAR SHENDEN ISRAHIM MOHAMMED YAKUT KHAN-MURAHARUT DAWALA NAKHAT JUNG BAHADUR, NAWAR OF, A.D.C. 5 1886, and succeeded as an infant in following year. Installed May 1907; Hon. Captain, 1909, Major 1921. State has area of 40 sq miles and population of 60,000, salute of 9 guns, personal 2 guns extra. Educ. Rajkumar Coll., Rajkote, Mayo Coll., Ajmer, Imp. Cadet Corps. Served G.R.A. in 1914-15. Address: Sachin, Surat.

SADIQ HASAN S. B.A., Bar-at-Law and Member Legis. Assembly, President of Messrs K. B. Shaikh Gulam Hussain & Co., Carpet Manufacturers 5 1888. Educ. Amritsar, Lahore and London, President, Moslem League, Amritsar, Municipal Commissioner for last 9 years, takes active interest in Moslem education and Khilafat movement. Address: Amritsar.

SAGRADA, RT. REV. EMMANUEL, VICAR Apostolic of Eastern Burma and Titular Bishop of Trina, since 1909 5. Lodi, 1880. Address: Toungoo, Burma.

SAIYID ABDUR RAHMAN, KHAN BAHADUR M.L.C., Retired Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar), 5 1884. Educ. St. Francis de Sales, Nagpur. Supdt., Commissioner's Office, Hoshangabad, Extra Asst. Commissioner, Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar) 1919-1921, Dy. Commissioner, Yeotmal, Per. Asst. to Commissioner of Berar in C. P. Commission, Official Receiver, Berar, President of many Municipalities and district boards. Berar Mahomedan representative in C. P. Council, Fellow, Royal Society of Arts (England). Address: Official Receiver, Akola.

SAILANA, HIS HIGHNESS RAJA SAHIB BHARAT DEARM NIDHI DILIP SINGHJI BAHADUR OF, 5 18 March 1891, succeeded the Gadi, 14 July 1919 m. first to the daughter of H. H. the Maharawat of Partabgarh and after her death to the daughter of the Rawat of Meja in Udalpur. Educ. Mayo College, Ajmer, salute 11 guns. Address: Sailana C. I.

SAKLATVALA, NOWROZI BAPUJI, C.I.E. (1923), J.P., Director, Tata Sons, Ltd., a. 10th Sept 1875, m. Goolbal, d. of Mr Hormaji S. Bellivala. Educ. at St. Xavier's College, Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1916, Employers' Delegate from India to the International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1921, Member, Legislative Assembly representing Bombay Millowners' Association, 1922. Member, Board of Trustees for the Port of Bombay. Address: Navsari Buildings, Fort, Bombay.

ST JOHN LE-COLONNEL HENRY BRACONNAY, C.I.E., O.B.E., Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States, 5 26 Aug 1874, m. Olive, d. of Colonel C. Herbert, C.B.L., 1907. Educ.: Sandhurst. Ent. Army, 1898. Address: The Agency, Bharatpur.

SAMALDAS, LALUBHAI, see MENETA.

SAMIULLAH KHAN, M. B.A., LL.B., M.L.A., Pleader 5 1889 m. Miss Inamunnisa A. Jati. Educ. M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Worked

on many war committees during the war; Secy, Prov. Khilafat Committee, O.P., 1920-21, Secy, Anjuman High School, Nagpur (1925), Vice-Prest., Nagpur Municipal Committee since 1921, one of the secretaries of the Silver Wedding Fund at its start was Member, All-India Congress Committee and the Central Khilafat Committee from 1921-23, non-co-operated from practice from 1921-23, at present a member of Swaraaj Party and a Member of the Executive Committee of the Anjuman High School Institute since 1915. Address Sadar Bazar, Nagpur, O.P.

SAMS, HUBERT ARTHUR, C.I.E. (1919) Deputy Director-General, Posts and Telegraphs April 1922 to 3 May 1875 m. Millicent Helen Langford Educ. St. Paul's School, Peterhouse, Cambridge, B.A. (1897) Entered L.C.S., 1898 Punjab Commission, 1899-1907, P.M.G., 1907, Director of Postal Services, M.E.F., 1917-19, Temp Lt.-Col., R.E. Aug. 1917-May 1919 Three times mentioned in despatches Postmaster-General, Bombay Circle, 1920-1922, Offg. D.G. 1923-25 and May 1924 Publication Post Office of India in the Great War Address c/o Lloyd's Bank, Cox's Branch, Bombay

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General for some time acting, then permanent Judge, High Court, Madras; for many years a member of Madras Legis. Council; President of the Indian National Congress at Amraoti, President of the Indian Social Conference at Madras; President of the Indian Industrial Exhibition, Madras, Founder and for some time Editor, Madras Review and Madras Law Journal Member of Governor-General's Executive Council in India, 1915-1919, Mem. of Council of the Secretary of State for India, 1919-1921. Address Madras

SANT, MAHARAJA SRI JORAWARHARJI, RAJA OF, b. 24 March 1881, s. 1896. Address Santrampur, Rewa Kantha.

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SARDAR GHOUSS BAKSH KHAN RAISANI, SIR, K.C.I.B., premier Chief of Sarawak, Balauchistan.

SARMA, THE HON SIR B. NARAYANHA, Member of Governor-General's Executive Council (for Education, Health and Lands) b. 1 Jan 1867 Educ. Hindu Coll., Vijnayapattam, Rajamundry Coll. and Presy Coll., Madras. Subsequently teacher Professor, and at the bar in Vijnayapattam and Madras. Address: Simla

SARVADHIKARY, SIR DEVA PRASAD, KT, C.I.E., M.A., B.L. (Calcutta), LL.D. (Aberdeen), LL.D. (St Andrews), Surinagar (Navadwip), Vidyaratnakar (Dacca), Vidyaratnakar (Benares), Jnan Sindhu (Puri), Vakeer and Solicitor, Fellow, Calcutta University and Benares University, late Vice-Chan., Calcutta Univ., Mem. of Council of State, late member of Indian Legislative Assembly, b. 1862 m. 1883 Nagendranandini. 2 s. and 3 d. Educ., Rameswarpore, Sanskrit College, Bareilly and Howrah Schools Presidency College, Calcutta. For several years Mem. of Mun. Corp., of Calcutta; Mem. of Imp. Leg. Council;

- Travels, Imp. Museum; Pres., various literary, social and philanthropic societies and Calcutta Licensing Board, Calcutta. Temperance Federation Anti-Smoking Society; Calcutta University Corps Committee, Vice-President, Indian Association and National Council of Education Sahitya Parishat, Publications "Notes and Extracts" "Three Months in Europe," "Prabash, Patna," Address: Framdhar, 20, Suri Lane, Calcutta.**
- SASTRI, SRI CALAMUR VENKATRAMA KUMARASAMI, KY. (1924) b. July 1870. Educ., Proxy and Law Colls. Madras B.A. (1890); B.L. (1898), Vakil, 1894, Judge, Small Causes Court, 1906-06, Judge, Madras City Court, 1906-12, District and Sessions Judge, Ganjam, 1912-14, Member of the Rowlett Committee, 1918, Chairman, Labour Committee, 1920; Judge, Madras High Court, 1914-20, Member, Criminal Procedure Code Committee, 1917 Address, Kalamur House, Madras, M.E.**
- SASTRI, THE RT HON V S SRINIVASA, PC 1921, b. Sept. 22, 1859 Educator at Kumbakonam Started life as a Schoolmaster, joined the Servants of India Society in 1907, succeeded the late Mr G K Gokhale in its Presidency in 1915, Member, Madras Legis. Council, 1912-16, elected from Madras Presidency to Imperial Legis. Council, 1916-20 Closely associated with Mr. Montagu during his tour in India in 1918, Member, Southborough Committee, gave evidence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reform Bill, 1919, served on Indian Railway Committee, represented India at Imperial Peace Conf., 1921 and at the meeting of the League of Nations at Geneva and the Washington Conf.; during the same year Elected Privy Councillor and received the freedom of the City of London, 1921, undertook a tour in the Dominions as the representative of Government of India, 1922, Member, Council of State, since 1921 Address: Servants of India Society, Bombay or Poona**
- SAUNDERS, COLONEL MACAW, D.S.O., Deputy Director, Military Intelligence, Army Headquarters, India b. 9 Nov 1864 m. Marjory, d. of Francis Bacon Esq. Malvern College, M.B.A., Woolwich Lieut., Royal Field Artillery, 1908, Lieut., Indian Army 1907, Capt., 1912, Major, 1918, Bt. Lieut.-Col., 1919, Col. 1923, in India till 1914 except for a year in Russia, Staff Capt., 2nd Royal Naval Brigade, 1914, operations in Belgium and siege of Antwerp, Operations in Gallipoli 1915, from 1st landing to evacuation, G.S.O. 8 in Egypt to March 1916, Brig. Major Eastern Frontier Field Force to April 1917, G.S.O. 3 and Intelligence Officer with Major-General Dunsford's Mission through N.W. Persia to the Caucasus, 1918, G.S.O. 1, Caucasus Section, G.H.Q. British Salonika Force, 1919 (wounded, despatches four times, D.S.O. 2, Lt.-Col.), Military Attaché, Teheran, Persia, 1921-24, Appointed D.D.M.I., Army Headquarters (1924) Address: General Staff, Army Headquarters (India), Simla**
- SAVANTVADI, HES HIGHNESS CAPTAIN KHEM SARFAT V. alias RAJAPATKAR BHOORAJ, Raja Sahadur, Sardesai Maharaj of, b. Aug. 20, 1897 m. Princess Shri Lakshmi Devi of Baroda. Educ., Malvern College, England Served in the Great War as Mesopotamia from Oct 1917 to March 1919, attached as Hon. Officer to 116th Mahattas. Address: Savantvadi**
- SCOTT, GAVIN, M.A., C.I.E. (1923), L.O.S. Municipal Commissioner for the City of Rangoon b. 10 Aug 1876, m. Elsie Macle, Nolan. Educ., Glasgow University. Joined I.O.S., 1899; posted to Burma, 20 Dec., 1899 Address: Kilmaleis, 14, Kokie Road, Rangoon**
- SCOTT, LIEUT.-GEN THOMAS EDWIN, C.B. (1917), D.S.O. (1897), C.I.E. (1900), Colonel, The Royal Irish Fusiliers, Colonel, 4th Bn., 12th Frontier Force Rifles, G.O.C. and Political Resident, Aden, since 1920 s. of the late Rev J. E. Scott b. 6 March 1867, m. Brenda Josephine, d. of the late Rev E. M. Chaplain. Entered Army, 1888 Served N.W. Frontier, 1891, Washington Field Force, 1894-95, East Africa, 1895-96, Uganda, 1897-98, China, 1900, European War, Mesopotamia and German East Africa Military Sec. to the C-in-C in India, G.O.C., Bangalore Bde., 1919-20 G.O.C., Aden Field Force, 1920 Address: Aden**
- SEAL, BRAJENDRANATH, M.A., Ph.D., D. Sc., Vice-Chancellor, Mysore University, since 1920 George V., Prof. of Mental and Moral Science, Calcutta Univ., 1914-1920 b. 8 Sep 1864 Educ., Gen. Assembly's Institution, Calcutta University Del., Orientalist Congress, Rome, 1899, opened discussion at 1st Univ. Races Congress, London, 1921, Mem., Simla Committee for drawing up Calcutta Univ. Reg., 1905, Chairman, Mysore Constitutional Reforms Committee, 1922-23, Author of New Essays in Criticism, Memoir on Co-efficients of Numbers, Comparative Study in Vishnavism and Christianity, Race Origins, etc Address: Mysore, 8 India**
- SEILL, REV CANON E. S.D. (Lambeth), D.D. (Edin.), Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medallist, b. 1839, Educ. O.M.S. Coll., London Arr. in India, 1865, Numerous publications on the history of Islam and on Old Testament Literature Address: Vepery, Madras.**
- SEN, JYENDRANATH, M.A., Calcutta Univ., Sen Prof. of Phy. Sc., City Coll., since 1903, b. 1876, m. 1899, Educ. Hindu Sch., Presidency Coll., City Coll. and St. Anne's, Calcutta. Publications: Elementary Wave Theory of Light and other small books. Address: 1, Muddun Mohun Sen's Street, Calcutta.**
- SEN, RAI BAHADUR NRI KANTA, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., General Manager, Estate Nurugun, Purnea City, and Vakil b. 8 March 1868 m. Mrs. Sen. Educ., Dacca College. Entered Bar in 1894; was Govt. Pleader up to 1912, nominated member, Behar and Orissa Leg. Council in 1914, renominated in 1916, Elected Member, Legis. Assembly in 1921, acted for 6 months as member, Special Tribunal during Arrah-Gaya Bakrid disturbances, was Vice-Chairman, Purnea Municipality, for 7 years, Vice-Chairman, Purnea Dist. Board, for 12 years up to 1921 when elected Chair-**

- man, Purnea District Board. *Address*: Sen Villa, Purnea (Bihar).
- SETALVAD, SIE CHINMAL HARIKAL, K.C.I.E.** (1894) LL.D., Advocate, High Court, Bombay, 5 July 1896 m. Krishnagard of Nurbheram Raghunadas Govt. Pleader, Ahmedabad *Educ* Elphinstone College, Bombay Pleader, High Court, Bombay, Admitted as Advocate High Court, Member, Southborough Reforms Committee, 1918, Member, Hunter Committee, 1919, Additional Judge, Bombay High Court, 1920, Member, Executive Council of Governor of Bombay, Jan 1921 to June 1923 *Address* Setalvad Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay
- SETALVAD, RAO RAHADUR CHINMAL HARIKAL, C.I.E.**, Bar-at-Law, Ag. Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay *Address* Bombay
- SETHNA, THE HON MR. PHILIP CURRIE, B.A., J.P., O.B.E.** (1918); Member, Council of State, 8 Oct 1898 Manager for India, Sun Life Assurance Co of Canada, Chairman, Central Bank of India, Ltd, Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, Trustee, City of Bombay Improvement Trust, Trustee, Bombay Port Trust. *Address* Canada Building, Hornby Road, Bombay
- SHADI, LAL, SIR, M.A.** (Punjab), 1895, B.A. Honours (Oxford) 1898, B.C.L. Hon (Oxford), 1899; Boden Sanskrit Scholar (Oxford), 1899, Arden Law Scholar (Gray's Inn), 1899; Honourman of Council of Legal Education, 1899, Special Prisoner in Constitutional Law, 1899, Chief Justice, High Court, Lahore 5 May 1874, *Educ* at Govt Coll, Lahore, Balliol Coll, Oxford Practised at the Bar, 1899-1913, Offg. Judge, Punjab Chief Court, 1913 and 1914, Permanent Judge, 1917, Judge, High Court, Lahore, 1919, Chief Justice, May 1920 Elected by Punjab Univ to the Leg. Council in 1910 and 1913 Fellow and Syndic, Punjab University Publications Lectures on Private International Law, Commentaries on the Punjab Alienation of Land Act and Punjab Preemption Act, etc. *Address* Lahore.
- IAFI, THE HON MIAN SIR MUHAMMAD KHAN RAHADUR K.C.I.E.** (1922), C.I.E. (1916), D. Litt (Aligarh), LL.D. (Delhi), Pro-chancellor, Delhi University, 1922, 5 10 March 1899 *Educ* Govt College and Forman Christian College, Lahore, Scholar and Barrister (Middle Temple), President, All India Urdu Conference, 1911, President, Islamia College Committee, 1907-1919; President, All-India Muslim League, 1918, Trustee, M.A.O. College, Aligarh, President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference, 1916, President, High Court Bar Association, 1917-1919, President, Punjab Prov Bar Assoc., 1919, Member, Punjab Legislative Council and Imperial Legislative Council from 1909-1919, Education Member, Government of India, 1919-22 Vice-President of the Executive Council and Law Member, Govt of India (1922-24), President, Indian Soldiers' Board, 1924. Publications "Punjab Tenancy Act with notes," "Provincial Small Cause Courts Act with notes" and "Law of Commutation for Improvements in British India". *Address* Simla or Delhi
- SHAM, HON. SIE LAKSHMAN SHAM, K.C.** (1920), M.A., LL.B., Judge of High Court, Bombay, since 1918, Ag. Chief Justice since 1923 5 1873, *Educ* Gujarat Coll, Ahmedabad Govt. Law Sch., Bombay *Address* Cumballa Hill, Bombay
- SHAHAB-UD-DIN CHAUDHRI, KHAN RAHADUR, B.A., LL.B.**, High Court Judge, Editor and Proprietor, "Indian Cases", Member, Legislative Assembly for 3 years and President, Municipal Committee, Lahore *Educ* Government Coll and Law Coll, Lahore. Started Criminal Law Journal of India in 1904 and Indian Cases in 1909 Was first elected member, Lahore Municipal Committee in 1918, President of the Corporation in 1923. Elected member, Punjab Leg. Council re-elected President, Lahore Municipal Committee 1924 Publications The Criminal Law Journal of India, Indian Cases and two Punjab poems. *Address* "Al Mumtaz", 2, Durand Road, Lahore
- SHAHANI, SANTIRING CHANDASING, M.A.**, Principal, D.J. Sind College, Karachi, Zemin-dar and Member, Legislative Assembly (1920-21 1889 m. Rishi Tejmal Manankhan *Educ* Bombay and Poona. Professor, Wilson College, Bombay, 1892-96, Prof., D.J. Sind Coll., Karachi, since 1896 Publications, Umar Khayyam, Shah-Jo-Basak, Sind Grasses *Address* D.J. Sind College, Karachi.
- SHAHUPURA, RAJADHIRAJA SIE NAHAR SINGH, K.C.I.E.**, 7 Nov 1855, Shahpura Gaddi by right of inheritance, 1870 *Address* Shahpura, Rajputana.
- SHAKESPEAR, ALEXANDER BLAKE, C.I.E.** Merchant, partner in firm of Begg, Sutherland & Co., 5 1873 *Educ* Berkhampstead Was Sec. Upper India Chamber of Commerce, 1905-12. *Address* Cawnpore
- SHAMSHER SINGH, SIE SARDAR, SARDAR RAHADUR, K.C.I.E., C.I.E.**, Ch. Min., Jind State, 5 1890 *Educ* Jullundur and Hoshiarpur H.S. and Govt. Coll., Lahore Served during Afghan War, 1879-80, with march from Kabul to Kandahar, Ch. Jnd of State, High Court, 1899-1903 *Address* Sangrur, Jind State
- SHAMS-UL-HUDA, THE HON MR. JUTCHER (NAWAR SIE SYED) K.C.I.E., M.A., B.L.**, Judge, Calcutta High Court, since 1917, 5 1864, belongs to well-known family of Syeds in Tippera, East Bengal *Educ* Presidency Coll, Calcutta, Calcutta Univ Commenced practice as Vakil in High Court at Calcutta, Mem., Bengal Exce. Council, 1912-17, Vice-Pres., Bengal Exce. Council, April-June 1917, held office of Sec. of Bengal Prov. Moslem League and that of Bengal Landholders Assoc., Pres., All-India Moslem League, 1912 *Address* 220-2, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.
- SHANKARSHASTRI, NARASINGHSHASTRI, PANDIT JOTMARAND, Astronomer and Astrologer 5 19 Dec. 1884, m. Ansa Parnabai, d. of Vedanmurti Chandramadixit of Laxmehwar, Miraj Senior *Educ* Hoshikoti, Taluka Haveri, Dharwar Compiler of the Aangal Indian calendar known as "Hoshikoti Panchang", Publisher of the annual general**

- Abderson, Edm.** King's Coll., Aberdeen University and Christ Church, Oxford. Entered L.C.S., 1901, served in U.P. as Asst. Magt. and Collr., Under-Secretary to Govt., Chairman, Cawnpore Municipal Board, Dy. Commissioner, Financial Secretary to Government, U.P., has served under the Government of India since Jan 1920 Member, Board of Inland Revenue, 1922 *Address*, United Service Club, Simla
- SIMLA, ARCHBISHOP OF**, since 1911, Most Rev. ANSELMO, E. J. KERNALY, b 1864 Entd. Franciscan Order, 1879, Priest, 1887, Guardian of Franciscans, Crawley, Sussex, 1890, Minister Provincial for England, 1902, first Rector of the Franciscan College, Cowley, Oxford, 1906, elected life member of Oxford Union, 1907, Definitor-General representing English-speaking provinces 1908, Visitation-General, Irish Province, 1910 *Address*, Archbishop's House, Simla E
- KIMONSEN, JOHN LEONEL, F.I.C., D.Sc (Manch), F.A.S.B., K.I.H. Silver Medal, 1921** Prof. of Chem Presidency Coll., Madras, 1910-18, Dy. Controller, Ind. Mun. Board 1918-19, Forest Chemist 1919, b 22 Jan 1884, m. 1913, Janet Dick Hendrie, M.B., Ch.B., L.M. *Educ.* Manchester G. S. and Univ.; Pres. Chem Section Ind. Sc. Congress 1917 *Publications*: Numerous papers in the Transactions of Chemical Society of London and Indian Forest Records *Address*, Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun
- SINGH, Lt.-Col. BAWA JIWAN, O.I.E. (1918), I.M.S. (ret'd)** b 6 May 1863 *Educ.* Government and Medical Colleges, Lahore and St. Thomas' Hospital Medical Schools, London Joined I.M.S. 1891 Served in Military Department to 1896, Civil Surgeon, Melkita, 1896, Secretary, I.G. Prisons, with Civil Medical Administration, Burma, 1897-1899, Supdt. Central Jail, Imsein, Burma from 1899 to 1909, Inspector-Genl. of Prisons, Bengal and Assam, 1910-1912, Inspector-Genl. of Prisons, Behar and Orissa, from 1912-1920, Director, Medical and Sanitation Departments, H. E. H. The Nizam's Govt., 1920-23, and Director, Medical, Sanitation and Jail Depts., H. E. H. The Nizam's Govt., 1923-24. *Address*, Ranchi, Chotanagpur
- NGH, GAYA PRASAD, B.A., B.L., M.L.A.** Pleader, Muzaffarpur *Educ.* Muzaffarpur and Calcutta Was a sub-deputy magistrate and collector for a few years but resigned subsequently, now practising as a pleader, was a member of the Muzaffarpur Municipal Board *Publications* "Pictorial Kashmir" *Address*, Muzaffarpur (Bihar)
- NGH, BARDAR GULAB, M.L.A.** Managing Director, Punjab Zemindars' Bank, Ltd., Lyallpur, and Landlord b March 1866 m. d. of Dr. Bardar Jawahir Singh Bels of Lyallpur *Educ.* Government Coll., Lahore. Headmaster, Govt. Sandeman High School, Jhotta, for 10 years, Member, Lyallpur and Jhotta Municipalities and Dist. Board, Lyallpur, and Pres. of several co-operative credit societies and associations and elected as member of Legislative Assembly, 1920, and re-elected in 1923. Hon. Magt., Lyallpur, for 9 years. *Address*, Bhawana Bazar, Lyallpur Punjab
- SINGH, RAJA SURJ BAKSH, O.B.E. (1919)**, Taluqdar of Oudh, b 15 Sept. 1868, m. granddaughter of Raja Gangaram Shah of Khairigarh (Oudh) *Educ.* at Sitapur and Lucknow. Hon. Magt., Hon. Munshi, Vice-President, British Indian Assoc. of Taluqdars of Oudh. Member, Leg. Assembly *Publications* "A Taluqdar of the Old School" by "Hollodorus" and "Arbitration" *Address*, Kamalpur P. O., Sitapur Dist. (U.P.)
- SINGH, THE HON. BIRDAR JOGENDRA**, Member of Council of State, Taluqdar, Agra Estate, Khari District, b 25 May 1877. Contributions to several papers in India and England. Has been Home Minister, Patiala State. Fellow of the Punjab Univ., Friends of Sikh Educ. Confc., served on Indian Sugar Committee, Editor of *East and West*, *Publications* Nurjehan, Nasrin, Life of B.M. Malabari *Address*, Agra Holme, Simla (East)
- SINGH, KUNWAR MAHARAJ, M.A. (Oxford)**, Bar-at-Law, C.I.E., Deputy Commissioner Bahvelal, (1923) b 17 May 1878 m. to Miss Maya Das, d. of the late Rai Bahadur Maya Das of Ferozpur (Punjab) *Educ.* Harrow Ball. Coll., Oxford, Bar-at-Law, Middle Temple, 1902 Ent. Prov. O.S.U.P. as Dy. Coll. 1904, Sen. Asst. Sec. to Govt. of India, Dept. of Education, 1915, Mag. and Collr. of Hamirpur, U.P., 1917, Dy. Commissioner and Collector, U.P., 1917-19, Secy. to U.P. Govt., 1919, Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India, Education Dept., 1920-23 *Publications*, Annual Report on Co-operative Credit Societies in the U.P., 1908-1909 and various contributions to the press. *Address*, The Manor, Simla.
- SINGH, SRI RAMESH, G.O.I.E., K.B.E.** D. Litt., Maharajadhiraja of Darbhanga, Mem. Exe. Council, Bihar and Orissa, since 1912; Mem. of Imp. Council, 1899-1900 b 16 Jan 1860 twice married, two s. one d. b. Maharaja Bahadur Sri Lakshmeshwar Singh, G.O.I.E., made hereditary Maharaja Bahadur, 1907, hereditary Maharajadhiraja, 1920, *Educ.* Queen's Coll., Benares, privately: Life-Pres., Behar Landholders Assoc., Malhel Mahasabha Bharat Dharma Mahamandal and also Pres., Hindu Univ. Soc., Behar Panchayat Assoc., etc. A member of the Indian Police Commission and of Indian Famine Trust; Pres., Prince of Wales Reception Committee for Bengal, 1905, Indian Industrial Conference, 1906, Religious Convention held at Calcutta, 1910 and Allahabad, 1911, All-India Hindu Conference, April 1915, All-India Landholders Assoc., and Bengal Landholders' Assoc., Member, Council of State, since 1920 *Address*: Darbhanga.
- SINGH, COL. MAHARAJ, SRI SRI BRAHMA BHARADU, K.O.S.I., A.D.C.**, Vice-Pres. of State Council, b 1879, s. of Maharaj Sri Khet Singhji and c. of H. E. H. the Maharaja of Bikaner *Educ.* Mayo Col., Ajmer. *Address*, Bikaner
- SINGH, THE HON. RAJA SRI RAMPAL, K.O.I.E. (1916)**, Member, Council of State; Taluqdar b 7 Aug. 1867 m. niece of Thakur Jagannathan Singh, late Taluqdar of Dhanawan Estate in

Gonda Dist. Educ. at Rae Bareilly High School and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. President-elect of the second U.P. Social Conference held in Lucknow in 1908 and of All India Social Conference in 1910, presided over 5th All India Hindu Conference at Delhi in 1918, elected President, British Indian Association of Oudh, in 1921 and was re-elected in 1924. Was Fellow of Allahabad Univ. until 1909 and is Secretary of Kshatriya College, Lucknow, Member of the Executive Committee of the Lucknow University and of the Court of the Hindu University of Benares. President of the Trust for the Bhadri Estate and of the Board of Directors of Mahaluxmi Sugar Corporation, Lucknow, also Director of the Allahabad Bank. *Publications* Pamphlets entitled "Talugdars and the British Indian Association" (1917), and "Talugdars and the Amendment of Oudh Rent Law (1921), and contributions to the press on social, political and religious topics." *Address* Karri Sudauli Raj, Dist. Rae Bareilly Oudh.

SINGH, PRINCE VICTOR D. see Duleep Singh.

SINHA, BROJES RACHUG, Member, Legislative Assembly, Zamindar and Jagirdar. Educ. Government College, Jubbulpore. Hon. Magte, 2nd Class, sitting singly, has been member of the O.P. Council on behalf of Zamindars for two terms, elected Member, Legislative Assembly on behalf of O.P. Zamindars. *Publications* Hindi Shastra Siddhanta Sar. *Address* Jubbulpore.

SINHA, KUMAR GANGAIDAN, M.A. (1921), M.L.A., Hon. Research Scholar of the Calcutta University, Proprietor, Srinagar Raj, b. 24 Sept. 1898. Educ. at Monghyr Zilla School (1907-10), Purnea Zilla School, Presidency College (Calcutta), Government Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta, and Post-Graduate Department, Calcutta University. Elected to the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland in 1921, Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1922, Bihar and Orissa Research Society in 1924 and to the Fellowship of the Royal Society for the encouragement of arts, manufacture and commerce, etc., in 1923, a commissioner of the Purnea municipality and a member of the Purnea District Board and President of the Social and Religious Department of the Maithili Sammelana, one of the founders of the Nationalist Party in the Legislative Assembly. *Publications* "The Place of Videha in the Ancient and the Medieval India" (read in the Second Oriental Conference), "A Note on the Jangala Dosa", and "Discovery of Bengali Dramas in Nepal" (published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal), joint editor of the typical selections from Maithili proposed to be published by the Calcutta University and author of several works under preparation. *Address* "Srinagar Darbar," P.O. Srinagar, Dist. Purnea, (Bihar).

SINHA, THE HON. LALA SUKBER, Landlord and Jagirdar b. 5 Jan. 1868. Educ. Agra College, Member, U.P. Legislative Council, from 1909-1930 when elected to the Council of State from the four Northern Divisions of the Agra Province; Genl. Secy.,

All-India Hindu Sabha, Hon. Secretary, Meerut College; Hon. Secy., U.P. Zamindar Association, President, Rashikul Asram and Ayarvadi College, Hardwar. Member (1) Indian Central Cotton Committee, (2) Advisory Committee in the Agriculture and Rev. Dept., Govt. of India, (3) Board of Agriculture, U.P., (4) Board of Management, Agricultural College, Cawnpore, (5) President, Edward High School Muzaffarnagar, and (6) Member, Hardwar Improvement Committee. *Publications* Translation of the 'Gita' and 'Yoga Patanjali' in Hindi. *Address* "Anandbhuwan," Muzaffarnagar, U.P.

SINHA, NARENDRA PRASAD, Major, I.M.S., retired, Consulting Physician, Mem., Advisory Council, India Office, b. 30 Sept. 1868. Educ. Calcutta Univ. Coll., London Ent. I.M.S., 1896, retired 1903.

SINHA, THE HON. MR. SACHCHIDANANDA, Barrister, Member, Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1921, also President of Legislative Council 1921-22 b. 10 Nov. 1871, w. the late Srimati Radhika, s. of the late Mr. Sewa Ram, of Lahore. Educ. Patna College and City College, Calcutta. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1903. Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1898, Allahabad High Court, 1896, Patna High Court, 1916. Founded and since edited *The Hindustan Review*, 1899. Twice Elected Member, Imperial Legislative Council, Elected Legislative Assembly, 1920, also elected his first Deputy President, Feb. 1921. Established and endowed in 1924 the Srimati Radhika Institute in memory of his wife, which building contains, besides the largest public hall in Patna, the Sachchidananda Sinha Library, a splendid collection of classical and current works in English. *Publication* "The Partition of Bengal or the Separation of Behar." *Address* Patna, Behar and 7, Elgin Road, Allahabad.

SINHA, SATYENDRA PRASAD, FIRST BARON, P.C., K.C., raised to Peerage (1st Indian), K.C.S.I. (1921), b. 1864. Educ. Birbhum Zilla Sch., Presidency Coll., Calcutta, Lincoln's Inn, called to Bar, 1896. Barrister, Calcutta H.C. Standing Counsel, Govt. of India, 1908. Adv. Gen., Bengal, 1907-9 and 1916-17; Law Member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1909-10, Member, Bengal Executive Council, 1917-18, Representative of India in Imp. War Conference 1917 and in 1918. Freeman of City of London, 1917, App. Representative of India at Peace Conference. Under Secretary of State for India, 1919-20. Governor of Behar and Orissa, 1921-22. *Address* Calcutta.

SIRMOOR, LIEUT.-COL. H. H. MAHARAJA SIR AMAR PRASAD BHADUR, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., b. 26 Jan. 1898 s. of the late His Excellency Maharaja Deb Shamsher Jung, Rana Bahadur ex-Prime Minister of Nepal in 1910. Educ. under European and Indian Private tutors. *Address*: Sirmoor, Nahan.

SIROHI, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ, MAHARAO SARUP RAM SINGH BHADUR, b. Sept. 27, 1865 s. to the gadi, April 20, 1920. *Address* Sirahi, Rajputana.

SITAMAU, H. H. SIR RAJA RAM SURESH, RAJA of K.O.I.E., b 1890; descended from Rathor House of Kachi Baroda. m. thirice. *Educ.* Daily Coll., Indore, Hindi and Sanskrit poet, and keen student of science and ancient and modern philosophy, is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. S. by selection by Govt. of India in default of direct issue, 1900 *Address* Raminivas Palace, Sitamau, C.T.

SIVAGNANAM PILLAI, THE HON. DEWAN RAHADUR TIRUNVELLY NELLAIAPPA, B.A., Minister of Development, Madras, b 1 April 1881 *Educ.* Madras Christian College Service under Government, Retired as Dy. Collector, President, Dist. Board, Tinnevely, 1920-1923. *Address* The Hermitage, Mysapore, Madras

SIVASWAMI AYYAR, SIR P. S., K.C.S.I., 1915, O.B.E. (1912), O.I.E. (1908), M.L.A. Held Member, Executive Council, Madras, b 7 Feb 1864 m. no c. *Educ.* S. P. G. College, Tanjore, Government College, Kumbakonam, Presidency College, and Law College, Madras, High Court Vakill, 1885, Asst. Professor, Law College, Madras, 1893-99, Joint Editor, Madras Law Journal, 1893-1907, first Indian Representative of the University of Madras in the Madras Legislative Council, 1904-07, Advocate General, 1907, Member of Executive Council, Madras, 1912-17, Vice-Chancellor, University of Madras, 1916-18, Vice-Chancellor of Benares Hindu University, 1918-19, Elected to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the districts of Tanjore and Trichinopoly, 1920, President of the Second Session of the National Liberal Federation at Calcutta, 1919, Member of the Indian Delegation at the Third Session of the Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva, 1922, Nominated Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1924. *Address* Sudharma, Edward Elliot Road, Mysapore, Madras

LOOOCK, FRANCIS SAMUEL ALFRED, C.I.E. *Educ.* Marlborough, Trinity Coll., Oxford, Ent. I.C.S., 1889 served Madras and C.P. Ch. Sec. Ch. to Commr 1906, Inspr Genl. of Police, C. P., 1908-14, Sp. duty, Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1914-16, Ch. Sec. to Ch. Commr, C. P. and Addl. Mem., Imp. Leg. Council *Address* Nagpur

MITH, SIR HENRY MONCRIEFF, Kt. (1923), C.I.E. (1920), President, Council of State (Dec 1924) b Dec. 23, 1873 *Educ.* Blundell's School, Tiverton, Sidney, Sussex Coll., Cambridge, I.C.S., 1897 Asst. Commr., in U.P., Dist. and Sessions Judge, 1908, Addl. Sec. to U.P. Govt., 1914, Dy. Sec. to Govt. of India, 1915, Joint Sec., 1919 Secretary, Council of State, 1921-23 Sec. to Govt. of India, Leg. Dept., and Secretary, Leg. Assembly, 1921-24 *Address* Simla or Delhi

WITH SIR THOMAS, Kt. (1921), V.D. (1914) Chevalier of the Order of the Crown (Belgium) (1919), Managing Director, Mair M.H. Co., Ltd., Cawnpore, b. 23 Aug. 1875 m. Maud. d. of Sir Henry Ledgard Kt. 1907, 3 s 1 d, Member of the Hunter Committee on

Punjab Disorders, 1919, French, Upper India Chamber of Commerce, 1918-1921; Member, U. P. Leg. Council, 1912-24, Fellow of Allahabad University, 1913-22; Com. mandant, 18th Cawnpore R.M.S., 1912-22. *Address* Westfield, Cawnpore.

SORABJI, CORWALLA, Kasteet-Hind Gold 1st class medal (1909), Legal Adviser to Pundahelie, Court of Wards, Bengal, Behar and Orissa, and Assam, and Consulting Counsel, Educ. Somerville Coll., Oxford; Lee and Pemberton, Lincoln's Inn, England, London, Bachelor of Civil Law Examination, Oxford, 1893, obtained special privileges, Lincoln's Inn, London, 1903, proposed in 1902 scheme to India Office for connecting Woman Counsel with Prov. Eng. Govts. of India, in 1904 app. by Govt. of Bengal to position she now holds. *Publications:* *Sun-Babes* (1904), *Between the Twilight* (1908); *The Pundahelie* (1916), *Sun-Babes* (2nd Series Illustrated) 1920, contributions to the *Nineteenth Century*, *Westminster Gazette*, *The Times* and other newspapers and Magazines. *Address* Board of Revenue, Calcutta.

SPENCER, HON. SIR JUDITH CHARLES GORDON, Kt. (1885) I.C.S., Bar-at-Law, Puisne Judge of Madras High Court, since 1914, b 23 Feb 1859 *Educ.* Marlborough, Keble Coll., Oxford, Lincoln's Inn Knt. I.C.S., 1888, *Address* Rutland Gate, Nussumbakum, Madras

SRINIVASA RAO, RAJ. RAHADUR PATRI VENKATA, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakill, Guntur, and Member, Legis. Assembly b 1877 m. to d. of Rao Bahadur Baru Ramanaras Pantulu Garu *Educ.* Town High School and Noble College, Masulipatam, and Christian Coll. and Law Coll., Madras Joined Cawnpore Bar, 1903, and Guntur Bar in 1906 Vice-President, Guntur Dist. Board, for 6 years, was Municipal Councillor for some years, was member, Krishna Flood Committee, Secretary of the First Dt. Congress Committee *Address* Guntur.

STANDEN, BERTRAM PRIOR, C.S.I. (1920), O.I.E., Commr., Berar Div., C.P. since 1915, b 1867 *Educ.* Uppingham, Trinity Coll., Camb. Ent. I.C.S., 1886, Ch. Sec. to Ch. Commissioner, 1908-11, Member, Prov. Leg. Council *Address* Amraoti

STANDLEY, ALFRED WILLIAM EVANS, Associate of Cooper's Hill College, Member of Council of the Institution of Engineers (India), Chief Engineer and Secretary, P. W. D., Bikaner State, b. 20 Nov 1866 m. Una d. of H. P. D. Buntington, I.C.A. (ret'd) *Educ.* Royal College of Mauritius and then at Royal Indian Engineering Coll., Cooper's Hill. Joined P. W. D. in U.P. Irrigation Branch, as Asst. Engineer in 1891. Construction of Ganga Dam, Upper E. J. Canal in 1895; services lent to Bikaner Municipality in 1896 as Resident Engineer for construction of drainage and sewerage and water-works. Promoted Ex. Engineer in 1899; services lent to Bikaner State, 1903-06, during which several irrigation schemes, water works and central electric power station were designed and constructed, also originated the investigation of the feasibility of irrigating the North

tanks of the State from the Sutlej river which has eventually led to Bikaner getting a share of the water in the Sutlej Valley Project now under construction. Sanitary Engr. to Govt., U.P. in 1906 and 1909. Promoted to Superintending Engineer, 1912, and then Chief Engineer and Secretary to Government, P. W. D., Irrigation Branch, U.P. in 1918 and retired in 1921. *Publications* Papers on "Subsoil Percolation" and "Flood Absorption of Reservoirs" in the Journal of the Institution of Engineers (India), Vol. II. *Address* Bikaner, Rajputana.

STEIN, SIR AUBREY, K.C.I.E., Ph.D., D. Litt (Hon. Oron.), D. Sc (Hon. Camb.), D. O.L. (Hon. Punjab), Fellow, Brit. Acad., Correspondent de l'Institut de France, Gold Medalist, R. Geo. Soc. etc., Indian Archaeological Survey, Officer on special duty, to Budapest, 28 Nov 1892. *Educ.* Budapest and Dresden, studied Oriental Languages and Antiquities at Vienna and Tübingen Universities and in England 1888-99, Principal, Oriental College and Registrar, Punjab University, app to I. E. S. as Prin. of Calcutta Madrassah, 1899. Inspector-General of Education, N. W. P. and Baluchistan, 1904. Carried out archaeological explorations for Indian Govt., in Chinese Turkestan, 1900-1, and in C. Asia and W. China, 1906-08, transferred to Archaeological Survey, 1909, carried out geographical and archaeological explorations in C. Asia and Persia, 1919-16. *Publications* Kalhana's *Chronicle of Kings of Kashmir*, Sanskrit text 1892, trans. with commentary, 2 vols., 1900, *Sanskrit History of Khosro*, 1903, *Ancient Khosro*, 1908 (2 vols.); *History of Desert Country*, 1912 (2 vols.), *Sanskrit*, 1921 (5 vols.); *The Thousand Buddhas*, *Memoir on Maps of Chinese Turkestan and Kansu* (2 vols.), and numerous papers on Indian and Central Asian Archaeology and Geography. *Address* Srinagar, E. T. United Service Club, London.

STEVENS, Lt.-COL. CHLOE ROBERT, I.M.S., M.D., B.S., Lond., F.R.C.S., Eng., Prof. of Clinical and Operative Surgery, Medical Coll., Calcutta, to 14 Mar 1897. *Educ.* Malvern Univ. Coll., London, St. Bartholomew's. *Address*, 5, Middleton Street, Calcutta.

STILL, CHARLES, C.I.E., Indigo Planter, to 1869. *Educ.* privately. *Address* Bath Factory, Champaran.

STOKES, HOPKINS GABRIEL, C.I.E., B.A., m. Alice Henrietta, d. of the late Sir Henry Lawrence, Bart., Decr 1922, 3rd Member, Madras, Board of Revenue, 1924. Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1903-11; Fin. Dept., 1911-13, Fin. Mem., Imp. Delhi Committee, 1913-15. Priv. Sec. to Govt., of Madras 1915. Pol. Ag., Bangalore, Madras, Secy. to Madras Govt., Local and Municipal Dept., 1918-19, Administrative Adviser, Madras Municipal Commission, 1920, Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1921, Secy. to Madras Govt., Development Dept., 1922. *Educ.* Clifton, Oriel Coll., Oxford, B.A. I.O.S., 1904. *Address* c/o Binny & Co., Madras.

STONE, EDWARD WALKER, C.I.E., M.E., M.I.C.E., M. Inst. C.E., late Ch. Eng. of Madras Ry. (retired), 1904, 4th s. of late T.G. Stoner, J.P., of Kyle Park and Arranhill, Co. Tipperary, Ireland; m. 1875; Scholar, Gold Medalist and M.E., Queen's University, Ireland, Fellow, Madras University. *Publications* various engineering papers. *Address* The Gabias, Oconoor.

STUART, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE LOUIS, C.I.E., J.C.S., Puisne Judge, High Court, Allahabad since 1922 to 12 March 1879. *Educ.* Charterhouse; Balliol Coll., Oxford, B.A. I.O.S., 1891, Jud. Sec. to Govt. and now as Mem. of U.P. Council, 1910-12. Lt.-Col. Commanding Allahabad Auxiliary Force. *Address* Allahabad.

STUART, CAPT. MURRAY, D.Sc. (Birm.), B.Sc. (Lond.), F.G.S., F.C.S., m. Inst. P.T. Chief Geologist, Indo-Burma Oilfields (1920) and since 1921 to 5 Nov 1889. *Educ.* King Edward's H.S. Birmingham and Birmingham Univ., I.L.B., Prof. of Geol. in Poona Coll. of Engineering, in addition to other duties, 1918-21. Attached Waziristan Expedition, 1919-21, attached Mahsud Expedition, 1919-20 (mentioned despatches), India General Service medal with two clasps. Retired with rank of Captain, 1920, as Prof. of Geol., Presidency Coll., Madras, 1911-14. Ag. Superintendent, Madras Government Museum and Ag. Dir., Madras Govt. Marine Aquarium, 1912. Univ. lecturer in the Madras University, 1913-14. Geo. Survey of India, 1907-1921. *Address* Tharyanto, Burma, and Royal Societies Club, London.

STUART-WILLIAMS, SYDNEY CHARLES, M.A. (Cantab.), B.A. (London). Acting Chairman, Calcutta Port Commissioners, to 9 May 1879, m. Feb 1903. *Educ.* Kingswood Sch., Bath Univ. Coll., Aberystwyth and Trinity College, Cambridge, Private Sec. to Sir Edward Holden, 1900. Junior Sec. to Agent, E. I. Ry., 1900-03, Dy. Sec. to Agent, E. I. Ry., 1903-06, Secy. to Agent, E. I. Ry., 1906-14, Sec., Port Commissioners, Calcutta, 1914-16, Vice-Chairman, 1916. Dy. Chairman, 1921, Member, Bengal Legislative Council 1922, Acting Chairman, 1922. *Publications* The Economics of Railway Transport, 1909, Article on Indian railways in Modern Railway Practice, 1913. History of the Port of Calcutta, 1870-1920. *Address* Port Commissioners' House, Calcutta.

SURAHMANYAM, BAO BANADUR CALAGA SUNDARAYYA, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Landowner, to Nov 1892. *Educ.* Kumbakonam and Madras Presidency Colleges. Practised as Vakil at Bellary, Chairman, Bellary Municipality, 1904-10, Vice-President, District Board, Bellary, 1911-1915; Member, Liberal League, Madras, has taken interest in co-operative work and social and political movements; elected to the Legislative Assembly, 1920. Appd. President of Bench of Hon. Magistrates Mayavaram Town, in 1928. *Publications* Pamphlets on Bubonic Plague and Irrigation Problems of the Ceded Districts. *Address* Mayavaram, 8 India.

SUDBOROUGH, PROF. JOHN JOSEPH, Ph.D., D.Sc., F.I.C., Prof. of Org. Chem., Ind. Inst. of Sc., to 11 Nov. m. Elsie Dora Bean,

1899. *Edue.* King Edward's Sch. Camp Hill, Birmingham; Mason Coll., Birmingham, Univ. of Heidelberg, Owen's Coll., Manchester, D. Sc., London, Senior Lecturer in Chemistry, Univ. Coll., Nottingham, Prof. of Chemistry, Univ. of Wales, Aberystwyth, Director of the Edward Davies Chemical Laboratories and Dean of the Faculty of Science. *Publications* Text-book of Organic Chemistry, Practical Organic Chemistry, numerous papers in Journal of the Chemical Society, Berichte and Journal of the Indian Institute of Science. *Address* Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore
- SUKHDEO PRASAD, B.A., B.L., Rao Bahadur** Gold Kaiser-i-Hind Medal (1901), C.I.E., 1902. Political Judicial and Finance Member, State Council, 6 March 1892. *m.* Mohanji, d. of Prannath Hukko *Edue.* at Agra College Deputy Supdt., Settlement, Ambala, 1885. Judicial Secretary, Marwar, 1886. Member of Council 1887, Senior Member, 1901, Minister, 1906, Udaipur Minister, 1914-18, Political and Judicial Member, Regency Council, 1922-23, Officiated as its Vice-President, 1920. Is Sardar of first rank with judicial powers. Holds 3 villages in Jagir of an annual rental of Rs. 25,000. *Publications* Famine Report, 1899-1900; Origin of the Rathores; Agricultural Indebtedness. *Address* Sukh Ashram, Jodhpur, Rajputana
- SUKHLA, DR. NADERHAW H. E., L.M. & S. (1889), L.V. Sc. (Spl.), F.R.S. (Lond.), Mun** Councillor (1901), J.P. (1911), Hon. Presy Magte. (1913), Del. the Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court (1916), Member, Schools Committee (1916-1922), Member of the Committee, the Panchayat of the Sir J. J. P. and Benevolent Institute (1921), Member, Government Advisory Committee, re Liquor Licenses for A. Ward (1906), as Corporation representative (a) on Ex. Committee, of King George V Anti-Tuberculosis League (1918), (b) on Ex. Committee of Anti-Venereal League (1919), (c) on the question of Tobacco Act IV of 1857 (1923), (d) on the question of Medical Relief in the City (1924), (e) on the question of the extension of the World Sewage Outfall (1924), Member, Prince of Wales Museum Trust Board (1920-22), Member, Development Committee (1921), Member, G. I. P. Railway Advisory Committee, 1924, Physician and Sanitarian, 26 May 1890. *married* *Edue.* Graduate, Bombay Univ. 1883, Univ. Medl. Examr., Bombay Univ. 1895, Lecturer in Anatomy and Physiology Govt. Vety Coll., 1896-1899, Con. Vety Surgeon, Assist. Surgn., Indian M. Service, 1894-99, Med. Officer in charge of H. H. ex-King Theobaw of Burma and Suite and Ag. Civil Surgn., Ratanagiri (1899), Mem., Standing Committee, Bombay Mun. Corpn. (1911 to 1916). *Publications* Persian Translation of *Esop's* Fables, Pickings from the *Avesta*, Juddin controversy, Comparative Anatomy of the Domesticated Quadrupeds and Notes (minutes, etc.) on various Municipal Matters, the Municipal Act and law of Public Meetings. *Address* Sukhla Buildings, Cowaji Patel Street, Bombay.
- SULTAN AHMAD KHAN, SERDAR SAHIBKADA, MUSTAFA-UD-DAYLA, C.I.E. (1904), M.A., LL.M. (Oxonab), Barrister-at-Law, son of** Imtiaz-Ud-daula Nawab Ghulam Ahmad Khan Bahadur Ahmedi, Appeal Member since 1918, & 1899, m. 1912, Lucy Pelling Hall, of Bristol. *Edue.* at the Allgarh Mahomedan Anglo-Oriental College and Christ's College, Cambridge (called to the Bar at the Inner Temple, London, April 1894, B.A., LL.B. June, 1894, M.A., and LL.M., 1906), was Chief Justice, Gwalior State, 1902-6, Law Member of Council, 1909-12, Finance Member, 1912-16, and Army Member, 1917, a Member of the Hunter Committee to inquire into causes of Disturbances in Delhi, Punjab, and Bombay, 1919-20. *Address* Gwalior, India.
- SURAJ SINGH, CAPTAIN BAHADUR, I.O.M.,** Marshal of the Legislative Assembly 4, 10 Feb 1878. *m.* Ratanakur *Edue.* under private tutors. Entered army in 1898, as a private soldier served in Somaliland 1903-04; mentioned for good service, Viceroy's Commission 1907, served as Indian Staff Officer of the Cavalry School, Saugor, 1910-14 and 1919-21, served on the staff of General M. F. Remington, Commander of the Indian Cavalry Corps in France 1914-16, France to 1918, Egypt and Palestine to 1919, Afghan War 1919, retired on amalgamation of the Forces in 1921 granted hon rank of Captain 1923, apptd Marshal of Indian Legislative Assembly 1921. *Publications* Khilafat Marcus Aurelius (Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius in Urdu), Guide to Physical Training for Youths, Other Military books in 1901, 1907, 1910 and 1911. *Address* Kucha Khali, Katra Karam Singh, Amritsar
- SUTHERLAND, LIEUT.-COL. DAVID WATERS, C.I.E., V.H.S., I.M.S., Prof. of Medicine, Med. Coll., Lahore & Australia, 18 Dec 1871, m. 1916, Princess Bamba Duleep Singh, d. of late Maharaja Duleep Singh *Edue.* Melbourne and Edinburgh Univ. M.D. (Edin.), M.B. C.M. (Edin.), F.R.O.P. (Lond.), F.R.S. (Edin.) Fell. Roy Soc., Med., London. *Address* 28, Jail Road, Lahore.**
- SWAIN, WALTER, C.I.E. (1922), M.L.C., Inspector-General of Police, Behar, 1923 & Jan 17, 1876 m. Annie Matilda, sec. d. of Chas. Fox, Esq., of Carnarvon, Scotland. *Edue.* Boston, Grammar School. Assistant Superintendent of Police, 1895, Supdt. of Police, 1906, Dy. Inspector-General of Police, 1910; Off. Insp.-Genl. of Police, 1920, Delhi Durbar Medal, 1912; Volunteer Long Service Medal, 1919, King's Police Medal, 1918. *Publications* "Instructions for Constables" (1901) in English, Kaithi and Bengali, "Advice on the Construction of Police Buildings" (1921). *Address* The Imperial Bank of India, Patna, I.L.E.**
- SWAMIKANNU, PILLAI LOULAN DOMINGO, M.A. B.L., LL.B. (London), C.I.E. (1924), Divan Bahadur (1909), I.S.O. (1917), President, Madras Legislative Council, 4 Feb 1895. *Edue.* St. Joseph's College, Negapatam. Assistant and Lecturer, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, 1883-1887; Clerk to the Legislative Council and French Translator, Chief Secretariat, Fort St. George, 1888-1890; Latin Master, Presidency College, Madras, 1890-91, Deputy Collector and**

Magistrate, 1892-95; Fellow of Madras University, 1900; Asst. Secretary, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1895-1906, Chairman, Board of Examiners to Madras University in Greek, Latin, French and German, 1903-17, Secretary, Board of Revenue, Revenue Settlement, Madras, 1908-11, Registrar of Co-operative Societies, 1911-1917, Collector and District Magistrate, 1917-1919, Secretary to Government and Director of Agriculture, 1920, Secretary, Legislative Council, 1920-23. Deputed to England to study House of Commons Procedure, April to July 1922, President, Madras Legislative Council, 1924. *Publications* *Indian Chronology* 1911, 2nd Edn 1922, *Indian Ephemeris A D 1800-1900*, published 1915, 2nd Edn 1922, *Indian Ephemeris A D 700-1800*, 6 Vols (Madras Government publication 1922). Various articles in *Indian Antiquary* and *Epigraphia Indica* on Indian Chronology. Creditability of Indian Astrology, 1922. Maximum Age of Dhruva Nadi, 1923, and Secret of Memory, 1909. *Address* "Roseville," Royapuram, Madras.

SYED MOHAMMED FAKHREDDIN, The Hon. KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., B.L., Minister of Education, Bihar and Orissa b 1870 m. Musammat Kanis Banoo of Shalkhpura. *Ednc.* at Patna. Practised as a vakil in the mofussil courts and then in the Patna High Court, was the first Government Pleader in the Patna High Court, Member, Legislative Council, Bengal in the first reformed Council under Morley-Minto Reforms Scheme. Served two terms in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council. *Address* Muradpur, Patna.

SYED, SIR ALI IMAM, K.O.S.I. (1914), C.S.I. (1911) b Neora (Patna), 11 Feb 1863, s of Nawab Syed Imad Imam, Shamsululama m. 1891, Ave a four a Calid to bar, Middle Temple, 1890. Standing Council, Calcutta High Court, President, 1st Session of the All-India Moslem League held at Amritsar, 1908, Mem, Moslem League Deput to England, 1909 member of Governor's Legislative Council, Bengal, 1910, Fellow of Calcutta University, 1909-12, Law Member of Governor General's Council, 1910-16, Puisne Judge of Patna High Court, 1917, Member, Executive Council of Behar and Orissa, 1918, President, Executive Council of the Government of the Nizam of Hyderabad 1919, First Indian Representative to sit at the first meeting of the League of Nations Nov 1920. *Address* Mariam Manzil, Patna, also Bella Vista, Hyderabad (Deccan).

SYED RAZA ALI, THE HON., B.A., LL.B. (Allahabad Univ.) Member, Council of State, Vakild of the High Court, Allahabad b 29 April 1882 s of his mother's first cousin. *Ednc.* Government High School, Moradabad and Mahomedan College, Aligarh. Started practice at Moradabad in 1908 and was a radical in politics returned to U.P. Legis. Council 1912, took prominent part in Cawnpore Mosque agitation, elected Trustee of Aligarh College, gave evidence before Education Commission and Southborough Committee, returned unopposed to U.P. Council in 1918 and 1920, was one of those responsible for introducing separate Moslem

representation in Municipal Boards in U.P., took active part in negotiating the Congress League Compact in 1916, same year settled at Allahabad, identified himself with Swaraj and Khilafat movements but strongly differing from non-co-operation programme, became independent in politics in 1920, elected member of Council of State in 1921, elected member of Delhi University Court, was member of North West Inquiry Committee and signed majority report, headed two deputations of Moslem members of Indian Legislature to Viceroy in 1922 and 1923 in connection with Turkish question, gave non party evidence before Reform Inquiry Committee in 1924, has great faith in social reform and Western education, President, All-India Moslem League, Bombay Session, Decr 1924. *Publications* *Essays on Moslem Questions* (1912) *Address* 2, Elgin Road, Allahabad.

TAGORE, ABANINDRA NATH, O.I.E., Viceroy, Govt. Sch. of Art, Calcutta, since 1909, founder of Shashadpur, Bengal, b 1871. *Ednc.* Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta, and at home. Designed Memorial Address to Lady Curzon. Oasket presented to King by Corp of Calcutta, 1911, principal work consists in reviving School of Indian Art. *Address* 5, Dwar Kanath Tagore's Lane, Calcutta.

TAGORE, MARAJA BAHADUR SIR PRADYOT COOMAR, Kt., b 17 September 1873. *Ednc.* Hindu Sch., Calcutta, afterwards privately. Sheriff of Calcutta, 1909, Trustee, Victoria Mem Hall, Trustee, Indian Museum, Mem of Asiatic Soc of Bengal formerly Mem, Bengal Council. *Address* Calcutta.

TAGORE, SIR BANINDRANATH, Kt., D.Lit. (Calcutta Univ.), b 1861. *Ednc.* privately. Lived at Calcutta first, went to country at age of 24 to take charge of his father's estates, there he wrote many of his works, at age of 40 founded school at Shantiniketan, Bolpur this has been his life-work ever since, visited England, 1912, and translated some of his Bengali works into English, Nobel Prize for Literature, 1913. *Publications* In Bengali—about 30 poetical works, and 28 prose works, including novels, short stories, essays, sermons, dramas, etc. In English—*Gleanings*, *The Gardener*, *Siddhant*, *The Crescent Moon*, *Chitra*, *The King of the Dark Chamber*, *The Post Office*, *A Play*, 1914, *Fruit Gathering*, *Nationalism*, 1917, *Personality*, 1918, *Stray Birds*, 1919, *Sacrifice*, 1919, *Love's Gift*, 1919, *Raminiscences*, 1919, *The Wreck*, 1921, *Creative Unity*, *The Fugitive*, 1922. *Address* Shantiniketan, Bolpur.

TANNAN, MOHAN LAL, B Com (Birm), Bar-at-Law, L.E.S., J.P., Principal, Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay b 2 May 1885 m Miss C Chopra. *Ednc.* at Govt. High School, Gulrat, Forman Christian Coll., Lahore, and the University of Birmingham. Official Liquidator of the Industrial Bank of India, Ltd., in liquidation and the Jt. Official Liquidator of the Indian Uniforms Supplying Co., Ltd., in liquidation (both of Ludhiana, Punjab). Vice-President, the Indian Economic Society, 1921-22, Member of the Finance Sub-Committee of the Indian Merchants' Chamber

- and Bureau, Bombay (1921-22), Syndic of the Bombay University, 1923-24 and 1924, Secretary, Accountancy Diploma Board, Bombay, from 1st March 1923, Director, Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Bombay, 1924, Member, Auditors' Council, Bombay, Principal and Prof. of Banking, the Sydenham Coll. of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, Chairman, Ex. Committee of the Seventy Indian Economic Comtee. (Bombay) Publications "Indian Currency and Banking Problems" jointly with Prof. K. T. Shah, B.A. (Bom), B.Sc. (Econ.) London and several pamphlets such as the "Banking Needs of India," "Indian Currency and the War," etc. Address The Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Hornby Road, Bombay
- TASADDUK RAHUL KHAN, RAJA SIR, K.C.M.G.**, Taluqdar of Jehangirabad, Mem. of U.P. Council, Mem. B. I. Assoc., Oudh awarded Sword of Honour for war services 1919 Address Jehangirabad Raj, Dist. Bara Banki
- TATA, SIR DORABJI JAMNATJI, Kt., J.P.**, senior partner, Tata Sons, Ltd. 27 Aug. 1859, s. of late Jamsetji Nusserwanji Tata, m. 1898, Maharba, d. of H. J. Bhabha. Educ. Calcutt Coll. (Hon. Fellow), Camb., Bombay Univ. Address "Eplanade House," Wand- by Road, Bombay
- TAVEGGIA, RE REV SANTINO**, Bishop of Krishnagar, since 1906; b. Italy, 1855 Went to India, 1879 Address Krishnagar
- TAW SEIN KO, C.I.E., S.O., K.I.H., M.L.C.** (1923); Examiner in Chinese, Burma since 1906, b. 7 Dec. 1864 Educ. Christ's Coll., Camb., Burmese and Paili Lecturer, Rangoon Coll., 1882-85, Asst Sec. to Govt of Burma, 1889-91, Burmese Lecturer, Cambridge, 1892-93, Supdt., Archaeological Survey, Burma Circle, 1899-1919 Publications Burmese Sketches, Vols I and II, Selections from the Records of the Huttaw Translation of Maha Janaka Jataka, Elementary Handbook of the Burmese Language Address Peking Lodge, Mandalay
- TEGAR, CHARLES AUGUSTUS, C.I.E., M.V.O.**, Indian Police, officiated as Dy Insp.-Gen. of Police, Calcutta, b. 1861 Educ. Portora Royal Sch., Bunkskillen, Trinity Coll., Dublin Joined Indian Police, 1901
- TEHRI, CAPTAIN H.H. RAJA NARENDRA SHAN SHANKH BAHADUR, C.B.I.**, of Tehri-Garhwal State b. 8 Aug. 1893 Succeeded 1913. Educ. Mayo Coll., Ajmer Address Tehri, Garhwal State
- THAKUR, RAJ BAHADUR KASHINATH KUNWAI, I.S.O.**, Sen. Div. and Sen. Judge, Nagpur since 1911; b. 15 Feb. 1860. Educ. Sangar and Jabalpur H. S. Mair Central Coll., Allahabad. Address Nagpur
- THOMPSON, JOHN FERRELL, C.B.I. (1919)**, Political Secretary, Foreign and Political Department, b. 8 March 1873, m. Ada Lucie, d. of the late R. Y. Tyrrell, Libt. D. Senr. Fellow, Trinity Coll., Dublin. Educ. Leeds Gr. Sch. and Trin. Coll., Cambridge. 1st Class Classical Tripos, President of the Union (1898), Bursar, I.C.S., 1897, Revenue Sec. to Punjab Govt., 1913, Ch. Sec. 1916. Mem. of Indian Leg. Council, 1919-12, Member of Reform Committee, 1919-19 President, Railway Police Committee, 1921, Member of Council of State and Secretary to the Order of Princes, 1923, Secretary to the Order of the Star of India and Indian Empire (1923), formerly President, Punjab Historical Society and Fellow and Syndic of the Punjab University Address Delhi or U. S. Club, Simla.
- THORNTON, HUGH AYLMER, C.I.E., B.A., I.C.S.**, Commissioner Educ. Cheltenham, Christ Church, Oxford (B.A.), B.A. I.C.S. 1895 Address Farnham, Weymouth.
- THULRAI, TALUQDAR OF, RAJA SIR SINGH SINGH BAHADUR OF KHAJURAHO, K.C.I.E.**, Rai Bareilly District, b. 1866, m. 1st, d. of Balu Amarjit Singh, s. of the Raja of Mathura, 2nd, d. of Raja Somnath Singh, s. Raja of Kundwar, 3rd, d. of the Raja of Bilaspur District Educ. Govt. H. S., Rai Bareilly S. School, 1897, descended from King Bahvan, whose Sumat Writ is current in India. His Kunwar Lal Mra. Satti Singh Bahadur Address: Thulrai, Khajuraho.
- TODHUNTER, SIR CHARLES GEORGE, K.C.S.I.** (1921), O.B.E., K.-I-H Member of Executive Council, Madras, b. 16 Feb. 1869 Educ. Aldenham Sch. and King's Coll., Cambridge, Member's prizeman, Cambridge University, 1886, m. Alice, d. of Captain C. Lomax, 3rd Highlanders Served in I.C.S., Madras, also conducted special inquiries into Customs and Excise matters in Kashmir, the O. P. and C. I. States Sec., India Excise Committee, 1906, I. G. of Excise and Salt to the Govt. of India, 1909-12, President, Life Saving Appliances Committee, 1913, Secretary to Govt. of Madras, 1915, Member of Board of Revenue, 1916, Member of Council, 1919 Address The Hermitage, Mysapore, Madras.
- TOFT, COMMISSIONER JAMES**, Salvation Army, Territorial Commander, Northern Territory Has served in all Scandinavian Countries and U.S.A. Arrived in India, 1921 Address Ferozepur Road, Lahore
- TOLLINTON, HENRY PHILLIPS, C.I.E., I.O.S.** Commissioner, Lahore Educ. Lamington Coll., Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1892. Address Lahore.
- TOMKINS, LIONEL LINTON, C.I.E.**, Inspector Genl. of Police, Punjab, since 1922, Ent. India Police Dept. in 1891 Dy Insp. Genl. of Police, Punjab, 1914-1922. Address: Lahore.
- TONE, H. H. AMIN-UD-DULA WASEMUL MULK, NAWAB SIR HAFIZ MUHAMMAD INARAT ALI KHAN BAHADUR SAUAT JANG, G.C.I.E., G.O.S.I.**, b. 1846, 1847 S. State has area of 2,559 sq. m. and population of over 237,000. Address Tonk
- TRAVANCORE AND COCHIN, SOUTH INDIA, RUMOR OF, since 1895, RE. REV CHARLES HOVE GILL, M.A., D.D.**, b. 11 Feb. 1821. Educ. St. Edmund's Sch., Canterbury, King William's Coll., Isle of Man, Queen's Coll. and Ridley Hall, Cambridge. Address: Kottayam

TRAYNER, WALTER LARKELOT, O.B.E. (1918), Chairman, Dockers' Planters' Association, 1914-20; Vice-Chairman, 1921-1924. Member, Bengal Legislative Council 1920 and of Reformed Council 1921-23 and 1924 to date, Member, Jalpaiguri District Board, 1914-24, Captain (ret.) North Bengal Mounted Rifles. Address: Baradighi P. O., Jalpaiguri, and Bengal Club, Calcutta.

TREHOE, WILLIAM LAURENCE CROSSIE, Principal, Engineering College, Poona & 23 July 1881 m. Margaret Tephania Hudleston. Educ.: at Lays School and Dublin University. P. W. D. Address: Engineering College, Poona.

TURNER, ALFRED JOHN, B.Sc. London, 1901, F.I.C., 1905, Principal and Professor of Chemistry, Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute Matunga & 1874 m. Nita Aspdon Educ.: Finsbury Technical College and London University. Analyst in various firms and London County Council, Demonstrator and Lecturer at East London College (London Univ.), Science Master at Giggleswick, Yorkshire. Publications: Papers to the Berichte Chemical Society and Monograph on Bittens. Address: King's Circle, Matunga Bombay.

TURTON, COLONEL RALPH DOUGLAS, C.M.G. (1918), Director of Military Prisons and Detention Barracks in India & 11 Aug 1862 m. Irene & of the late A. Andrews, Esq. Educ.: at Uppingham. Joined Cheshire Regiment Feb 1886; transferred to Military Provost Staff Corps, 1910, Lt.-Colonel 1918. Brevet Col. 1919. Address: The Club of Western India, Poona.

TYABJI, HUMAII BADRUDDIN, M.A. (Honours), LL.M. (Honours), Cantab 1896; Bar-at-Law Second Judge, Presidency Court of Small Causes, Bombay & 11 October 1878, m. Miss Nasir Mohammad Fatehally Educ.: Anjuman-e-Islam, Bombay, St. Xavier's School and College, Downing College, Cambridge. Practised in the Bombay High Court. Address: Alimnelli, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

UDAIPUR, H. H. Maharajadhiraj MAHARANA SUR FATEH SINGHJI BAHADUR OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. G.C.V.O. Maharana of Udaipur, Marwar. & 1948. Address: Udaipur.

UDAIPUR, H. H. THE RAJA OF, CHANDRASEKHAR PRASAD SINGH DMO, OMV OF Address: Udaipur.

ULLAH, VEH IMHAN; Archdeacon of Delhi. Archdeacon in Lahore Diocese, since 1910 and Supd. Missionary of Toba Tek Singh Mission; & 1887 Educ.: Baring H. & Baring; Lahore Div. Coll. Address: Holy Trinity Church, Lahore.

UNLUCKE, MAJOR-GENERAL SIR HERBERT OSWEN CAMPBELL, K.C.M.G., or 1910; O.B., 1918; C.M.G., 1918, G.O.C., Rawalpindi District, & 4 Dec 1868, m. Minnie Mary, & of late Thomas Widd of Thorne, Yorkshire, 25 Dec. Woodville. Commissioned Royal Artillery, 1888. Served three terms as Adjutant; Chief Instructor, Royal Horse and Royal Field Artillery. Commandant, School of Instruction, Shoeburyness; served Europeans

War, 1914-18 (despatches ten times, K.C.M.G., promoted Maj.-General, G.B., Commander Legion of Honour, Commander Order of Savoy (Italy), Grand Officer Order of Avis (Portugal) 1st class order of St. Anne (Russia), Croix-de-guerre (Belgium), Address: Park House, Rawalpindi.

VAKIL, SIRDAR SIR RUTON JHANGIR, Kt (1924), Khan Bahadur (1907), First Class Sirdar of Gujarat (1911), Millowner and Merchant & Sept 1875 m. Tehmina & 4 of Dr D. E. Kothawala, Civil Surgeon, Bombay Medical Service Educ.: at Gujarat College, Ahmedabad. Since 1901 Managing Partner in Nowroji Pestonji & Co, Govt Salt Agents, Pioneer of Magnesium Chloride industry in India, Presdt, Dist Local Board, for many years member of Ahmedabad Municipality, Dist. Scout Commissioner, Officer Commanding "D" Coy, 12-2 Bombay Pioneers, Divisional Supdt., St. John Ambulance Brigade, Ahmedabad Division. Was member of Imperial Legation Council from 1918-16 has extensively travelled in European countries, Chairman and Director of several industrial concerns and Railway Boards, helped Government during the War in recruitment of combatants and non-combatants and was awarded medal and also certificate by H. E. Lord Willingdon First Class Magistrate independently in charge of a whole Division since 1911 Address: The "Bosery", Shahi Bag, Ahmedabad.

VAUGHAN, MAJ.-GEN., SIR LOUIS RUDLEY, D.S.O. (1918) O.B. (1918), K.B.E. (1928), Officer of the Legion d'Honneur (1919) Commanding Central Provinces District; & 7 August 1875 Educ.: Uppingham and R.M.C., Sandhurst m. Emille, & of J. P. Egan of St. Stephen's Cork. Served with 25th Madras Infantry, 78th Moplah Rifles, 18th Infantry, 7th Gurkhas Rifles, and on the Staff in France, 1914-19. Served in the Afghan War, 1919, in command of 4th War Division Commandant, Staff College, 1919-22. Address: Flagstaff House, Mhow C.I.

VAUX, MAJOR HENRY GEORGE, C.I.E. (1921), M.V.O. (1922), Military Secretary to the Governor of Bombay & 1882 m. The Baroness Edna von Stock Hansen (American), 1915, Educ.: St. Lawrence School. Joined the Army 1900, A.D.C. to Governor of Victoria, 1908-11, A.D.C. to Governor of Madras, 1911, A.D.C. to Governor of Bengal, 1912-14, Military Secretary to Lord Carmichael, 1914-17, Mil. Secretary to Earl of Ronaldshay, 1917-22. Mil. Secretary to Earl of Lytton, 1922, Mil. Secretary to Sir George Lloyd, 1922-23, Mil. Secretary to Sir Leslie Wilson, 1923. Address: Government House, Bombay.

VELINKER, SHRIKRISHNA GUNAJI, B.A., LL.B. (Bombay), J.P. (1909), Holder of Certificates of Honour, Council of Legal Education Trinity (1909), of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn, Bar-at-Law, Trinity, (1909) & 12 April, 1868, m. to Prabhavati, & of Rao Bahadur Mahomed Ramchandrar, Executive Eng., Bombay. Educ.: St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Enrolled as pleader, High Court, Bombay, in 1906; called to the Bar in July 1909. In

prominent practice in the High Court at Bombay and criminal courts of the Presidency. One of the Commissioners appointed under the Defence of India Act to try culprits in Ahmedabad and Viramgam areas and murder cases, 1919, President, Tribunal of Appeal under City of Bombay Improvement Act, Sept 1922 to April 1923, Secy, P. J. Hindu Gymkhana, 1897-1908. *Publications*: Law of Gaming and Wagering and the Law of Compulsory Land Acquisition and Compensation. *Address*: Ratan House, 1-4 Lamington Road (South), Bombay.

VERKATASWETA CHALAPATI BUNGARAO BAHADUR, MAHARAJA SIR RAVI, MAHARAJA OF BOBBILI, G.C.I.E., C.B.R., Maharajah, 1900, Ancient Zemindar of Bobbili, b. 28 Aug 1862. *Educ.* Bobbili, privately. *Ascended* Gadil in 1881. *Life Mem.*, Royal Asiatic Soc., Mem. of Madras Council, 1896, 1898, 1900, and 1902. *First Native Mem.* of Madras Exec. Council, 1910-11. *Publications*: Advice to the Indian Aristocracy, Hindu Religion, Diaries in Europe. *Criticism* on the *Aranyakas* and the *Mahabharata*. *Address*: Bobbili, Madras Presidency.

VERRIERES, ALBERT CLAUDE, C.I.E., Joint Chief Engineer (1920), P.W.D. m. 1899, Mabel Blanche, d. of the late Francis Moore. *Educ.* St. Peter's Coll. Agra, Thomason Civil Engineering Coll., Boorkee, Ent. P.W.D., 1898, Under Secy to Govt., P.W.D., Naini Tal, 1911-14, Exec. Eng., Dehra Dun, 1915-16, Supdt. Eng., 1916-18, Sanitary Eng., 1918-19, Offg. Chief Engineer, United Provinces, 1920-21. *Address*: "Dar-ul-Shafa", Lucknow.

VIRIRA DE CASTRO, R. RV THEOTONIUS MARCOS RIBEIRO, D.D., D.O.L., B.C. Bishop of San Thomé de Mysore, since 1899, b. Oporto, 1859, *Educ.* Gregorian Uni., Rome. *Address*: San Thomé, Madras.

VIJAYABAGHAVA CHARTA, DIWAN BAHADUR, M.B.E. (1919), Commissioner for India, British Empire, Exhibition b. August 1875. *Educ.* Presidency College, Madras. *Joined* Provincial service, 1898, Revenue Officer, Madras Corp., 1912-17, Secretary to Board of Revenue, 1917-18, Dewan of Cochin, 1919-22, Collector and Magistrate, 1920. *Address*: 42, Grosvenor Gardens, London, S.W.1.

VIRA VALA, DURBAN SHEN, Dewan, Junagadh State, b. 31 Jan 1888, Educ. at Rajkumar College, Rajkot. *Wing Master, Rajkumar College; Adviser to the Thakore Sahab, Chunda, Deputy Political Agent, Palanpur; Manager, Lathi State, Dewan, Porbandar State.* *Address*: Junagadh, Kathiawar.

VISHNU DIGAMBER PALUSKAR, PANDIT, GAYACHARYA, Principal, Gandharva Mahavidyalaya, m. Mrs. Ramabai Kelkar. Educ. Miraj State. *Publications*: 50 Music books of notations. *Address*: Gandharva Mahavidyalaya, Sandhurst Road, Girgaum, Bombay.

VIVESVARAYA, MOHAGUNDUN, SIR, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., M.I.C.E., late Dewan of Mysore, b. 15 Sept. 1861, *Educ.*: Central Coll., Bangalore, and Coll. of Science, Poona. *Asst. Engineer, F.W.D., Bombay, 1884; Supdt. Eng., 1904, retired 1908. Appdt.*

Sp. Consulting Eng. to Mysore's Govt., 1909; Ch. Eng. and Sec., F.W. and R. Depts., Govt. of Mysore, 1908; App. Dewan of Mysore, Nov. 1918-1918; has visited Europe, America and Japan twice, the last tour being in 1919 and 1920. Publications: "Reconstructing India" (P. S. King and Son, Ltd., London). *Address*: High Ground, Bangalore.

VOLKERS, ROBERT CHARLES FRANK, C.I.E., Sec., Railway Board, 1907-18, Accountant, P.W.D., since 1878, Examiner, 1894. *Address*: Calcutta.

WACHA, SIR DINSHA EDULJI, Kt., a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920) and Member, Council of State (1920), Director, The Central Bank of India and the Sindh Navigation Company b. 2 Aug 1844. *Educ.*: Elphinstone Coll., Bombay, in Cotton Industry, since 1874, for 30 years Bombay Mun. Corp. (President, 1901-02), for 35 years, Mem. Bombay Millowners' Association Committee since 1889 and President in 1917 and Member, Bombay Imp. Trust since its formation in 1898 up to 1919; Pres. of 17th National Congress, Calcutta, 1901, and of Belgaum Prov. Conference, 1894, gave evidence before Royal Commission on Indian expenditure in 1897, Trustee of Elphinstone Coll., also Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, was Gen. Sec., Indian National Congress for 15 years from 1894, Trustee of Vio. Jubilee Technical Institute from 1902 and Hon. Sec. from 1909 to 1923, Member, Bombay Legislative Council (1915-16), President, Western India Liberal Association since 1919. Was Secretary, Bombay Presidency Association from 1885 to 1915 and President from 1915 to 1918. Was President of the First Bombay Provincial Liberal Conference in 1923. *Publications*: Pamphlets on Indian Finance, Currency and Economics, Agricultural Condition of India, Railways, Currency, Temperance, Military Expenditure, etc., large contributor to leading Indian newspapers and journals for the last 40 years, also had published History of Share Speculation, 1863-64, Life of Frenchman Boychand, Life of J. N. Tata, the Rise and Growth of the Bombay Municipal Government, four papers on Indian Commerce and Statistics and My Recollections of Bombay (1860-75). *Address*: Jiji House, Ravalin Street, Fort, Bombay.

WADIA, BOMANJI JAMNANJI, M.A., LL.B. (Univ. of Bombay), Bar-at-Law and Principal, Government Law School, Bombay b. 4 Aug. 1881 m. Bhatnagar Hormuji Wadia (now widower). *Educ.* St. Xavier's College, Bombay and at the Inner Temple, London, for the bar, 1904-6. *Address*: Quesita Terrace, Chowpatty, Bombay.

WADIA, O. N., C.I.E. (1919), Millowner, b. 1869. Educ.: King's Coll., London. *Joined* his father's firm, 1888, Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association (1916). *Address*: Peddar House, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

WADIA, JAMNANJI ANDASJI, J. P., 1860; Merchant, b. 31 Oct. 1867. *Educ.*: Elphinstone Sch. and Coll. and served apprenticeship in Dickinson Arnold & Co. of London; Promoter and Director of Cotton and other

- Industrial concerns:** Member of Bombay Mm. Corps., from 1901-1921. *Publications:* *Notes on Industrial and Economic subjects* comprised two pamphlets against closing of the Minto Address. *Wilderness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.*
- WADIA, SIR HORMASI ARDHAR, Kt. (1918),** Bar-at-Law b. 3 January, 1849. *Educ.* Elphinstone College, Bombay, and University College, London. *m. Almal, d. of the late Mr Ardcar Hormasji of Lowji Castle, Parel.* Called to the Bar, 1871. Personal Assistant to Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji, Dewan of Baroda, February 1874 to January 1875. Practised in Kathiawar since 1875. Trustee, Parsi Panchayat, 1912. Trustee of the late Mr N. M. Wadia under his will, 1906. Recd Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1918. *Address:* 67, Marine Lines, Bombay.
- WADIA, PUSTONI ARDHAR, M.A.,** Professor of Philosophy and History, Wilson College, Bombay. b. 16 Dec. 1878. *Educ.* Elphinstone College, Bombay. *Publications:* *The Philosophers and the French Revolution, Ecorastricism and our Spiritual Heritage, Inquiry into the Principles of Theosophy, The Wealth of India, etc.* *Address:* Hormandi Villa, Malabar Hill, Bombay.
- WALI MAHOMED HUSSAINI, KHAN** BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., Member, Legislative Assembly, Retired Deputy Collector and Special First Class Magistrate and Landed Proprietor, Karachi. b. 5 Dec. 1860. *Educ.* Elphinstone College and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Served Govt. in various departments for 35 years; retired in 1915. *Address:* Khurshed Lodge, Ramnagar Road, Karachi.
- WALKER, COLONEL GEORGE KEMP, C.I.E., O.B.E.,** Fell. of Royal Coll. of Vet. Surge., Principal, Punjab Veterinary College, Lahore. Commandant, Punjab Light Horse. b. 20 March 1878; *m.* Jan. 10, 1899. *Educ.* Warwick Sch., E. V. C., London. Commission A. V. D., 1894; transferred to Civil Employ, 1897. *Address:* Lahore.
- WALKER, LIEUT. GENERAL SIR HAROLD BRIDGWOOD, K.C.B.,** or 1918, K.O.M.G., or 1919; C.B. 1915, D.S.O., 1902, D.C.L.I. and Border, Regt., G.O.C., Southern Command, 1923; b. Apr. 1863. *d. of late Rev James H. Walker, m. 1887, Harriet Edith Conthard, Plymouth, two s. Educ.* Shrewsbury School, Jesus College, Cambridge. Entered Army, 1884, Capt. 1891, Major 1902, Lt. Col. 1906, served Nile Expedition, 1884-85 (Medal with clasp), (Khedive Star), Egyptian Frontier, 1885-86, N.W. Frontier, India, 1897-98 (Medal with 2 clasps), South Africa, 1899-1902 (Queen's medal, 2 clasps) (King's medal, 5 clasps) (Brev. Major D.S.O.); served with Mediterranean Expeditionary Force, Commanded 1st Australian Division, 1914-1918 (despatches seven times, wounded twice, C.B., promoted Maj.-Gen., K.C.B., K.O.M.G.), with B.E.F. France and Italy, Commanding South Midland Division. *Address:* Headquarters, Southern Command, Poona.
- WALKER, SIR JAMES, K.C.I.E., C.I.E.,** Commr., Nagpur; A.M. Man. Exp. Comm., 1918. b. 1859. *Educ.* Aberdeen Univ., Balliol Coll., Oxford. Served in extensive branch of I.C.S. in Madras and C.P. *Address:* Nagpur.
- WALLACE, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE EDWARD HAMILTON, M.A. (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon),** Judge, High Court, Madras b. 18 May 1878. *m.* Anna Richmond Miller London. *Educ.* High School, Glasgow. Glasgow Univ. Balliol Coll., Oxford. Passed I.C.S., 1896. Served in Madras Presidency since 1896; Judge of Chief Court, Mysore State, 1912-14. *Address:* Cathedral Gardens, Madras.
- WALMSLEY, SIR HUGH, Kt. (1923), M.A.** *Educ.* Judge, Calcutta High Court, since 1915, I.C.S., Merton Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1893. *Address:* High Court, Calcutta.
- WANKAR, CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SIR AMARINJI, RAJ SAHIB OF, C.I.E.,** b. 4 Jan. 1879, *s. 1881 Educ.* Rajkumar Coll. State has area of 425 sq. miles, and population of 34,824. Salute, 11 guns. *Address:* Wankar, Kathiawar.
- WARBURTON, JOHN PAUL, C.I.E. b. 28** Aug. 1840. Joined Pol. Dept., Punjab, 1864, Asst. Insp. Gen., Railway Police, 1894, retired, 1900. *Address:* Gilbert House, Kasauli.
- WARD, COLONEL HENRY CHARLES SWINBURNE, C.I.E. (1920), O.B.E. (1919)** and Serbian Order of White Eagle (1917), Director of Pay and Pensions b. 12 June 1879. *Educ.* Winchester and Sandhurst. 1st Commission, 1898, Joined 2nd Bengal Lancers, 1901, Staff College, 1911-12, War service, 1914-1917; various staff appointments, Afghan operations, 1919, G.S.O. I 2nd Division, commanded 2nd Lancers, 1921-22, A.A.G., Army Headquarters, 1922-23. *Address:* United Service Club, Simla.
- WARNE, RT. REV. FRANCIS WHITLEY, Bishop** of the Methodist Episcopal Church since 1906, b. 30 Dec. 1854. *Address:* Inayat Bagh, Lucknow.
- WATSON, GERRARD ARNTHUR, M.A., C.I.E., I.B.S.,** Prin. Khalsa Coll., Amritsar, since 1915, b. 25 Dec. 1875. *m.* 1909. Mallow, *d. of the late C. L. Burton, Educ.* St. Paul's Sch., Peterhouse, Camb. *Amst.* Master, Tonbridge School, 1903-05, Prof. of Govt. Coll., Lahore, 1905-1914; Inspector of Schools, Jullundur, 1914-15. *Address:* Khalsa College, Amritsar.
- WATSON, HERBERT EDWINSON, D.Sc. (Lond.), A.I.C.** Fellow of University Coll., London, Professor of General Chemistry, Indian Institute of Science, b. 1886. *m.* 1917. Miss M. K. Rowson. *Educ.* Marlborough Coll., London, Berlin, Geneva and Cambridge Universities. *Amst.* Prof., Indian Institute of Science, 1911, apptd. Prof. of General Chemistry in 1916. *Publications:* numerous papers on physical chemistry and allied subjects. *Address:* Indian Institute of Science, Hebhal, Bangalore.
- WAFF, REV. JOHN, M.A., D.D., F.R.S.;** Pres. Scottish Churches Coll., Calcutta, since 1910, b. 1842. *Educ.* Parish Sch., Methick, Gram. Sch., Old Aberdeen, Aberdeen Univ., New Coll., Edinburgh. Joined Duff Coll., Calcutta, 1858. *Address:* 4, Cornwallis Square, Calcutta.

WHEE, CHARLES MORRIS, M.A. (Cambridge), O.I.E. (1931). Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust, 204th June 1972. m. to Lilian Elizabeth Griffiths. Educ. Maccles College, Birmingham, St. John's, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1894, Deputy Commissioner, 1901, Settlement Officer, 1908, Supdt. Census Operations, Burma, 1909, Secy. Govt. of Burma, 1914, Chief Secy. Govt. of Burma, 1918, First Vice-Chancellor, Rangoon University, 1920, Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust, 1921. Publications: Census Reports, Burma, 1911. Address: Toronto Villa, Frome Road, Rangoon.

WHESTER, JOHN EDWARD, O.S.I., O.I.E., I.C.S., Commr. Surma Valley, Assam, since 1913. Ranchi, 3 Sept. 1871. Educ. Charterhouse, Trinity Hall, Cam. Ent. I.C.S., 1891. Address: Bilhar.

WESTOOTT, Rt. Rev F., see Calcutta, Bishop of.

WESTOOTT, Rt. Rev G. H., see Lucknow, Bishop.

WHITLIE, Sir HENRY, K.C.S.I. (1921), K.O.I.E. I.C.S., Governor of Bihar and Orissa (1923). Educ. Christ's Coll. Cam. Ent. I.C.S., 1891. Dy. Sec. Govt. of India, Fin Dept., 1907-08. Sec. Royal Commission on Decentralization, 1908-09. Fin. Sec. Govt. of Bengal, 1909-12; Home Sec. Govt. of India, 1912-16. Member, Executive Council, Bengal, 1917-22. Address: Government House, Calcutta.

WHEELER, THE VENERABLE HUGH TREVOR M.A. (Dublin), Archbishop of Lahore, 1912. 27 September 1874. m. Kathleen Gunning. Educ. Trinity College, Dublin. Chaplain to the Forces, M.E.F., 1915. Address: Ashleigh, Murren.

WHITE, MAJOR FREDERICK NORMAN, O.I.E., M.D., Asst. Dtr. Gen., I.M.S. (Sanitary) 1914; Sanitary Commr. Govt. of India. India. Address: c/o Grindlay, Groom & Co., Bombay.

WHITTY, JOHN TALBOT, O.I.E., Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi. Educ. Clifton Coll., New Coll., Oxford, Univ. Coll., London. Ent. I.C.S., 1896. Address: Ranchi.

WRYTE, THE HON. SIR FREDERICK, Kt. (1922), Presdt., Indian Legal Assembly. 30 September 1883. Educ. Edinburgh Academy, Abbotsholme, Jena Univ., Edinburgh Univ., Grenoble Univ. m. Margaret Emily, d. of the Rev W. Fairweather, D.D., two d., one a Lectur. d'Anglais at the Sorbonne, 1905-1906. Industrial Insurance Comr. Vienna and Budapest, 1908. Pol. Sec. to Lord Lucas (Under Sec. for War) 1908-10. M.P. for Perth, 1910-18. Parl. Pts. Sec. to Mr. Churchill, 1910-16, one of the founders of *The New Europe* and joint Editor, 1917-20. Lt. T. R. N. V. R., 1914-18. Chairman, Indian Red Cross Society, 1923. Address: Legislative Assembly, Delhi.

WILLIAMS, GEORGE BRANNEN, M. INST. C.E., M. I. MECH. E. F. R. SAN. I., F.R.G.S., M.I.E. (Ind.), Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Calcutta. 7 April 1872; m. Dorothy Wood, d. of E. Thorpe of Cheshire.

Educ. Clifton Coll. Assistant to Mr. James Hensleigh, F.R.S., 1891, Asst. on York Main Drainage Works, Birmingham Waterworks; Resident Engineer-in-charge, Wharfedale Waterworks, Served in Africa, 1900-02, Railway Staff Officer, Asst. District Engineer, Imperial Military Railways; Pers. Asst. to Mr. G. B. Strachan, M. Inst. C.E., 1903-04. Crofton Waterworks, Shrewsbury Waterworks, Consulting Engineer to Colonial Office, 1906-09. Nairobi Drainage and Waterworks, Nairobi, Nakuru and Embu sanitation, designed Shetty Sewerage Works, Asst. Sanitary Engineer, Bengal (1909); designed nearly 400 schemes of water supply, drainage and sewerage of which about 80 have been carried out including Ikeria, Gaya, Hoochiff, Chintarah, Kallimpong, Serampore, Moughri, Comilla waterworks, Gaya, Burdwan, Dacca, Kurseong and Tithaghar main drainage schemes. Publications: Elementary Sanitary Engineering (1st and 2nd editions); Practical Sanitary Engineering, Modern Sewage Disposal. E. E. Journal, 1909, 'Mainline of Wales', Geographical Journal, 1909; Engineer, 1923, Recent Progress in Sanitary Engineering in Bengal, &c. Address: 3 Charnock Palace, and 15 Mayfair, Calcutta.

WILLIAMS, CAPT. HERBERT ARTHUR, D.F.O., I.M.S., Resident Medical Officer, Rangoon General Hospital, since 1907. 3. 11 Feb. 1875. Address: General Hospital, Rangoon.

WILLIS, MAJOR-GENERAL EDWARD HENRY O.B. (1918), C.M.G. (1917), Technical Adviser, R.A. India. 5th Sept. 1870. Educ. Bath. Commissioned Royal Military Academy, 1890. Commanded 4th Battery, R.F. (Lahore Division), 1914. Commanded 78th Brigade B.F.A. (17th Division), 1915. O.B.A. 17th Division 1916-17, 17th Corps, 1917-18. Address: Army Headquarters, Simla.

WILLIS, GEORGE HENRY, O.I.E., 1918; M.V.O. (4th) 1911, Lt.-Col., B.E., M.I. Mech. E., M.I.E. (Ind.), J.P., Master of Mint, Bombay, 21 Oct. 1876; m. 3 d. Educ. St. Paul's Sch., London, R. M. A., Woolwich, B. E., 1895, Major, 1914. Arrived India, 1900, Deputy Mint Master, 1907, officiated as Mint Master till October, 1916, Past President of Council, Institution of Engineers (Ind.). Address: H. M. Mint, Bombay.

WILSON, HENRY ROBERT, THE RT. HON. SIR LAMIE ORME, P.C. 1923, G. C. I. E. (1923), C. M. G. (1916), D. S. O. (1900) Governor of Bombay. 1 Aug. 1876, a. s. of late H. Wilson m. 1909, Winifred, a. d. of late Captain Charles Smith of Goderich, Sydney. Educ. St. Michael's, Westgate, St. Paul's School. Appnt. 2nd Lt. R.M.L.I., 1895, Lieut. 1899, Captain 1901. Served South Africa, 1899-1901 (severely wounded, despatches Queen's Medal 5 Claps, D.S.O. & A.D.C. to Governor of N.W. Capt. 5th Berkshire Royal Horse Artillery (Territorial), promoted Temp. Lt.-Col. R. M. and appointed to command Hawke Bk., E.N.D., served through operations in Gallipoli, 1914-15 (despatches, C.M.G.); served in France, 1915-16 (several times wounded); Parliamentary Asst. Secy. to the War Cabinet, 1918; Chairman, National Maritime

Boned, 1919; Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Shipping, 1919, Jt. Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury and Chief Opposition Whip, 1921-1923, M.P. (O.U.) Reading, 1919-1923. *Address:* Government House, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

WITHERS, LIEUT. EDGAR CLEMENT, C.I.E., R.N.M.; Intelligence Officer, Persian Gulf *Address:* Intelligence Department, Basra.

WITNEY, GEORGE, F.R.I.B.A., Director, Tata Engineering Co., Ltd. & 26 November 1876, Consulting Architect to the Govt. of Bombay, 1906-1918. *Address:* Dongars Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

WOOD, SIR JOHN BARRY, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., C.S.I., Resident in Kashmir & 1870; & 1896, Ada Milnebeth, d. of G.A. Stack, I.R.S. *Educ.* Marlborough, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1894, Under-Sec. to Govt. of India, Foreign Dept., 1899-1903, 1st Assist. in Baluchistan, 1903, Dy. Sec., Foreign Dept., 1906-10, Resident, Indore, 1912; Pol. Sec., Government of India, 1914-22. *Address:* Srinagar, Kashmir.

WOODROFFE, SIR JOHN GEORGE, Esq., Puisne Judge, Calcutta High Court since 1904, & 15 Dec. 1865. *Educ.* Woburn Park, Univ. Coll., Oxford (B.C.L., M.A.). Barr., Inner Temple, 1889, Advocate, Calcutta H. C., 1890, Standing Counsel, Government of India, 1903, Judge, 1904, Off. Ch. Justice, Bengal, Nov 1915. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

WOOLACOTT, JOHN HYAMS, Editor of The Pioneer & 1862. Educ. Milford Haven Sch., and Gr. Sch. Monmouth. & Anjoune, d. of the late A. Seneca. On staff of *General News* Correspondent of *The Daily Mail* in Cairo and Paris Assistant Editor, *The Economist* City Ed. *The Tribune* has edited *The Statesman* and *The Bombay Gazette*. President, Institute of Journalists, 1908. Parliamentary Candidate, Glasgow, 1906. *Address:* Allahabad.

WORTLEY, LIEUT. GENERAL, THE HON. SIR A. RICHARD M. STUART, K.C.B. (1824) K.C.M.G. (1915), D.S.O. (1898), Quarter Master-General, India. & 20 Jan. 1862. & Hon. M.J.M. Winn, 1 & 1 d. Educ. Wellington 2nd Lt., K.R.C., 1887, Lt.-Col., 1910 Col., 1914, Major-General, 1917, Lt. Gen., 1924; Staff Capt. and G.S.O. 2, Army Head quarters, 1904-7, G.S.O. 2 1907-8, A./D. Movements 1914-1915, Director of Movements 1915-1917, Commanded 68 Inf. Brig. and 19th and 32nd Divisions, D.Q.M.G., Mesopotamia, 1917-19, Major-General-I-C Administration, Southern Command, 1919-23, Q.M.G. India, 1924, Served in Chitral 1895, 8 African War severely wounded (mentioned despatches Medal D.S.O.), Great War (mentioned despatches several times), C.B. 1915, specially promoted Maj. Gen., K.C.M.G., Legion of Honour 3rd cl., Order of Crown of Belgium 3rd cl., Order of Crown of Italy 2 cl., Is Hon. Colonel of Engineer and Railway Staff Corps (T.A.) *Address:* Army Head quarters, Simla.

WYNDHAM, PERCY, C.I.E., C.B.E., R.G.S., Commander, Kumaon, since 1915 & 15 Dec. 1867. *Educ.* Giggleswick Sch., Queen's Coll., Oxford, M.A., Joined I.O.S., 1889, Magte. and Collector, Mirzapur, 1900-1913, Commissioner, Naini Tal, from 1913. *Address:* Naini Tal.

YAIN, LEE AN, K.-I-H (Gold), Bar-at-Law, M. L.C. Councillor, Rangoon Corporation, Fellow of Rangoon University, & April 1874, Educ. Rangoon College and Cambridge. *Address:* 67, Merchant Street, Rangoon.

YULE, SIR DAVID, Bart. (1922), Managing Director, Messrs. Andrew Yule & Co., Ltd. & 4 Aug. 1858. & Annie Henrietta Yule, d. of late Andrew Yule. Educ. R. High School, Edinburgh. Joined firm of Andrew Yule & Co., Calcutta, 1875, Director of London Joint City and Midland Bank, Ltd., Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd., Royal Exchange Assurance Corporation. *Address:* 8, Olive Row, Calcutta.

Racing.

Calcutta.

King Emperor's Cup Distance 1 mile.—
 Mr Ephraums' Orange William (9st 2lbs.), Dobie 1
 Mr Eve's Flaming Orb (9st 2lbs.), A. C Walker 2
 Mr J C Galstaun's Solo Bridge (9st 2lbs.), O'Brien 3
 Mr Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (9st 2lbs.), A T Harrison 4
 Won by two lengths, a neck, one length Time—1 min 39 3-5 secs

Viceroy's Cup Distance 1½ miles.—
 Mr Ephraums' Orange William (9st 2lbs.), Dobie 1
 Mr Thaddeus' Aborigine (9st 2lbs.), Marsh 2
 Mr Galstaun's Gaurishankar (9st 2lbs.), A C Walker 3
 Mr Kelso's Revival (9st 2lbs.), G Smith 4
 Won by one and three-quarter lengths, a head, two and a half lengths. Time—3 mins 0 2 5 secs

Governor's Cup Distance 1½ miles.—
 Mr Bartleet's Aborigine (8st 9lbs.), Dobie 1
 Mr Thaddeus' Untol (8st 7lbs.), Perkins 2
 Mr Eve's Silver Saint (7st 11lbs.), A C Walker 3
 Mr Douetill's Midenais (8st 5lbs.), J E L Harrison 4
 Won by a short head, a neck, one length Time—3 mins 1 4-5 secs

Carmichael Cup Distance 1½ miles.—
 Mr Ephraums' Orange William (9st 6lbs.), Morris 1
 Mr Avasia's Vale of York (9st 1lb), Townsend 2
 Mr Panniock's Sweet Adare (9st 1lb), Dobie 3
 Mr Galstaun's Starspot (8st 10lbs), Donoghue 4
 Won by half a length, three lengths, four and a half lengths Time.—2 mins 6 secs

Doch Behar Cup Distance 1 mile 3 furlongs.—
 Mr Eve's Knight of Clonmel (8st 2lbs.), A C Walker 1
 Mr Bartleet's Aborigine (7st 12lbs.), Stevens 2
 Nawabzada Khan's The Larx (7st 8lbs), Parker 3
 Mr Eve's The Count (7st 12lbs), Morris 4
 Won by three-quarters of a length, one length; half a length Time.—2 mins. 19 secs

Loamistay Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
 Mr Eve's Flaming Orb (9st. 2lbs.), A. C. Walker 1

Mr Thaddeus' Goldgainer (9st 2lbs.), Perkins 2
 Mr Avasia's Quarryman (9st 2lbs.), Tower send 3
 Mr Galstaun's Solo Bridge (9st 2lbs.), Donoghue 4
 Won by one and a quarter lengths, a short head, one length Time.—1 min 13 4-5 secs

Macpherson Cup Distance 1½ miles.—
 Mr Gujadhur's Prague (8st 7lbs), Townsend }
 Mr Galstaun's Solo Bridge (8st 6lbs), Dobie } Dead Heat 1
 Mr Thaddeus' Aborigine (8st 11lbs), Donoghue 3
 Mr Douetill's Midenais (8st 7lbs.), J E L Harrison 4
 Dead heat, a short head, three lengths Time.—2 mins 33 2-5 secs

Prince of Wales' Plate Distance 1 mile.—
 Mr Ephraums' Orange William (10st 4 lbs), Morris 1
 Mr Eve's Plymouth Rock (8st 12lbs.), A C Walker 2
 Mr Leckie's Martin (7st 11lbs), Dobie 3
 Messrs Douetill and Hartley's Kilokoon (7st 5lbs), Parker 4
 Won by one and a half lengths, one length three-quarters of a length Time.—1 min 39 1-5 secs

Wellcley Plate Distance 1½ miles.—
 Mr Galstaun's Gaurishankar (9st 7lbs), A C Walker 1
 Mr Ephraums' Orange William (9st 7lbs.), Dobie 2
 Mr Avasia's Vale of York (9st 7lbs), Barnett 3
 Mr Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (9st 7lbs.), A T Harrison 4
 Won by one and three-quarter lengths, two and a half lengths, one and a half lengths Time.—2 mins 6 3-5 secs

December Plate Distance 7 furlongs.—
 Mr Ephraums' Orange William (9st 7lbs), Dobie 1
 Mr Avasia's Endorette (7st 12lbs), Barnett 2
 Mr Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (9st. 7lbs.), A C Walker 3
 Mr Thaddeus' Aborigine (9st 7lbs.), Marsh 4
 Won by three-quarters of a length; two lengths, a neck. Time.—1 min. 23 secs

The Metropolitan. Distance 6 furlongs.—
 Mr Eve's Restroom (9st. 2lbs.), A. C. Walker 1

Mr. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st. 11lbs.), Perkins	3	Won by one and a half lengths; a neck; one and a half lengths. Time—3 mins. 45 1-5 secs
Mr. Galstaun's Floral (8st.), Donoghue	3	
Mr. Parnick's Sweet Adare (8st. 5lbs.), Dobie	4	
Won by three-quarters of a length, one length, one and a quarter lengths. Time—1 min 13 secs		
Indian Grand National Distance about 3 miles (steeplechase)—	3	
Mr. Eve's Llanafried (11st 5lbs.), Barnes	1	
Mr. Gufadhur's Glean Lussac (9st 10lbs), Seastream	2	
Captain Hillard's Ordez (11st 12lbs), Owner	3	
Messrs Grogson and Ocock's Bachelor's Vanity (10st 12lbs), Bloss	4	
Won by twelve lengths, four lengths, half a length. Time—6 mins 1 sec		
Appear Plate Distance 6 furlongs.—		
Mr. Eve's Flaming Orb (9st 12lbs), A C Walker	1	
Mr. Garda's Chummy (7st 8lbs), Siely	2	
Mr. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st 5lbs), Marsh	3	
Mr. Toonus Ballina Breeze (8st 2lbs), Barrett	4	
Won by four lengths one and a half lengths, a short neck. Time—1 min 18 3-5 secs		
Mayfowl Cup Distance 1 mile—		
Mr. Harper's Ship's Biscuit (8st 7lbs), Dobie	1	
Mr. Eve's Dick Turpin (9st), G Smith	2	
Mr. Avasia's Endorotte (7st 12lbs), Barnett	3	
Mr. Frank's Red Cross Boy (7st 5lbs), A T Harrison	4	
Won by two lengths, two and a half lengths, one and a half lengths. Time—1 min 40 2-5 secs.		
Burdwan Cup Distance 1½ miles (hurdles)—		
Mr. Roscoe's Archie's Fancy (11st 8lbs), O Black	1	
Mr. Lindsay's Tycoon (10st 8lbs), Captain Pearson	2	
Captain Barker's St Bee (10st 8lbs), Captain Roberts	3	
Mr. Roy's Catling (10st 8lbs), Bloss	4	
Won by three-quarters of a length, half a length, six lengths. Time—3 mins 20 4-5 secs		
Grand Annual. Distance about 3 miles (hurdles).—		
Mr. Galstaun's Golden Square (10st.), Barnes	1	
Mr. Darcy Lindsay's Tycoon (11st 5lbs), Captain Pearson	2	
Mr. Roscoe's Archie's Fancy (11st. 7lbs), O. Black	3	
Mr. Garda's Sunnyside (10st. 4lbs), Seastream	4	
Merchants' Cup Distance 1½ miles.—		
Mr. Galstaun's Ox Trot (8st 1lb), A C Walker	1	
Mr. Mein Austin's Recalled (8st 8lbs), Parker	2	
Mrs. Pereira's Dalkester (8st 7lbs), Dobie	3	
Mr. Thaddeus' Hatchford (8st 4lbs) Marsh	4	
Won by three and a half lengths, three-quarters of a length, half a length. Time 2 mins 34 2-5 secs		
Eclipse Pony Cup Distance 7 furlongs.—		
Mr. Galstaun's Bidesia (10st 1lb), Dobie	1	
Mr. Garda's Lumination B (8st 1lb), Ritchie	2	
Mr. All's Fancy Fair (7st 8lbs), Stokes	3	
Mr. Donnell's Love Gift (8st 8lbs), J E L Harrison	4	
Won by a short head, half a length, one and a half lengths. Time.—1 min 31 secs		
Hillard Plate Distance 7 furlongs.—		
Mr. Eve's The Count (8st 10lbs), A C Walker	1	
Mr. Avasia's Fille d'Or (8st), Barnett	2	
Mr. Yoonus' Ballina Breeze (8st 4lbs), Barrett	3	
Mr. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st 8lbs), Marsh	4	
Won by one and three-quarter lengths, half a length, half a length. Time—1 min 27 2-5 secs		
Bombay.		
The Eclipse Stakes of India. Distance 1½ miles.—		
Mr. C N Wadia's Aquilega (8st 11lbs), R Jones	1	
Mr. Eve's Boscombe (8st 7lbs.), G Smith	2	
Mr. A M. Khairas's Elson Again (8st 11lbs), Burn	3	
Mr. H B Sorabjee's Swithin (9st 7lbs), Clarke	4	
Won by one and a half lengths, three lengths, half a length. Time—2 mins. 5 1-5 secs		
The Rajpala Gold Cup Distance 1 mile—		
Mr. A E Ephraums Orange William (10st 7lbs), Clarke	1	
Mr. Eve's Rostrum (8st 6lbs), A C Walker	2	
Mr. E H Gahagan's Owen Roe (8st 8lbs), McPherson	3	
Mr. J C Galstaun's Solo Bridge (7st. 12lbs), Donoghue	4	
Won by three-quarters of a length, three-quarters of a length, half a length. Time—3 mins. 53 2-5 secs.		

The Grand Western Handicap. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr A Hoyt's Bell Metal (8st 11lbs.), Bowley 1
Mr R H Gahagan's Owen Roe (8st 4lbs.), McPherson 2

Mr Eve's Rostrum (8st 3lbs.), G Smith 3
Mr A E Ephraums' Orange William (10st 12lbs.), Clarke 4

Won by a short head, a neck, a neck
Time—1 min 38 4 5 secs.

The Byculla Club Cup. Distance about 1 1/2 miles.—

H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Gay Ditty (7st 8lbs.), Clarke 1

Mr T M Thaddeus' Aborigine (10st 2lbs.), Donoghue 2

H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Marmon (7st 12lbs.), Sheldon 3

Mr W King's Love Glass (7st 4lbs. cd 7st 7lbs.), Aldridge 4

Won by one and three-quarter lengths, a short head, three-quarters of a length
Time—2 mins 29 2 5 secs

The Bombay City Plate Distance 1 1/2 miles.—

Mr A E Ephraums' Orange William (9st 7lbs.), Morris 1

Mr A Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st.), Bowley 2

H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Gay Ditty (7st.), Sheldon 3

Mr P B Avastia's Vale of York (9st 7lbs.), Townsend 4

Won by a head, two lengths, half a length
Time—2 mins 6 2 5 secs.

The Willington Plate Distance 1 1/2 miles.—

Mr T M Thaddeus' Aborigine (9st.), Donoghue 1

Mr R R S's Wasp (7st 9lbs.), F Huxley 2

Mr J C Galstaun's Floreal (7st 12lbs.), McPherson 3

Mr T M Thaddeus' Untol (8st 7lbs.), A C Walker 4

Won by three-quarters of a length, one length, a head Time—2 mins. 7 1 4 secs

The Innovation Plate Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—

Mr Eve's Flaming Orb (9st.), A C Walker 1

H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whispering (7st.), Clarke 2

Mr T M Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st.), Morris 3

Mr R. B Davison's Cintra (7st 13lbs.), Donoghue 4

Won by one and three-quarter lengths, two lengths one and a half lengths.
Time—1 min 14 3-5 sec.

The Mahabharata Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—

Mr T M Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st.), Donoghue 1

Mr P B Avastia's Quarryman (8st 8lbs.), Townsend 2

Mr R R S's Joy Girl (7st 9lbs.), E Jones 3

Mr Eve's Nicot (8st 2lbs.), A C Walker 4

Won by a short head, two lengths, one and a half lengths Time—1 min 15 2-3 sec.

The Flying Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—

Mr Eve's Suryakumari (8st 6lbs.), A C Walker 1

Mr R. H Gahagan's Whit Wock (7st. 4lbs.), Townsend 2

Mr R. B Davison's Cintra (7st. 12lbs.), Donoghue 3

Mr T Harrison's Kilrea (7st 6lbs.), Harrison 4

Won by a neck, three lengths, four lengths.
Time—1 min 15 1-5 sec.

The Mansfield Plate Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—

Mr R. H Gahagan's Owen Roe (9st 2 lbs.), McPherson 1

Mr T M Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st 3lbs.), Bowley 2

H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whispering (7st 8lbs.), Clarke 3

Mr P B Avastia's Quarryman (8st 9lbs.), Townsend 4

Won by three-quarters of a length, half a length, one length Time—1 min 18 4-5 sec

The Ascot Plate Distance 1 1/2 miles.—

Mr A Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st 11lb), Bowley 1

Mr W Kings Love Glass (7st 12lbs.), E Jones 2

Mr Eve's Schiehallion (8st 3lbs.), G Smith 3

Mr A M Khairas's Margaret Joyce (8st 4lbs.), Burn 4

Won by one length, half a length, two lengths Time—2 mins 7 1 5 sec

Victory Plate Distance 1 1/2 miles.—

Mr H B Sorabjee's Rackle (8st 8lbs.), Buckley 1

Mr Kelso's Harry Tate (8st 4lbs.), McPherson 2

Mr R R S's Rabbato (8st 8lbs.), F. Huxley 3

Mr Eve's Aldergrrove (7st 10lbs.), C. Hoyt. 4

Won by half a length; one and a half lengths, one and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 7 sec.

The Bombay Handicap. Distance 1 1/2 miles.—

Mr W King's Love Glass (7st. 6lbs.), Aldridge 1

Mr. A. M. Khairas's Eken Agast (8st 5lbs.), Burn	2	The Dealers' Plate. Distance 1 mile.—	
Mr. E. R. S. Greenfinch (8st.), F. Huxley	8	Mr. M. Goomkias' Mikado (8st 5lbs.), R. Jones	1
Mr. Eve's Rowardennan (8st. 5lbs.), Bowley	4	Mr. Heath's Krunshan (9st 5lbs.), McPherson	2
Won by a short head, one and a half lengths, one length Time—2 mins 6 4-5 secs		H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Kelvin Boy (8st 10lbs.), Clarke	3
The Newmarket Plate Distance 1 mile 1 furlong.—		Mr. Yussuff Haroon's Cession (8st. 7lbs.), Morris	4
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st 10lbs.), Bowley	1	Won by two lengths, two and a half lengths, four lengths. Time—1 min 49 2-5 secs	
Mr. Heath's Magical (7st 2lbs.), Partoo-singh	2	The Gaye Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—	
Mr. and Mrs. Wesche Dart's Belle Voya game II (8st 9lbs.), R. Jones	8	Mr. Eve's Rose Hill (9st 5lbs.), Lambert	1
Won by one and a quarter lengths, one and a quarter lengths, three and a half lengths Time—1 min 58 2-5 secs		H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Kelvin Boy (8st.), Donoghue	2
The Perth Plate Distance 1 mile —		Mr. T. M. Goomkias Zohal (8st 5lbs.), R. Jones	3
Mr. C. N. Wadia's Coleby (8st 3lbs.), Herbert	1	Mr. B. S. Captain's Lamington (7st 10lbs.), Townsend	4
Genl Nawab Obaidulla Khan's Miss Evans (7st 5lbs.), G. Smith	2	Won by three lengths, a neck, three-quarters of a length Time—2 mins 21 1-5 secs	
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (10st.), Bowley	3	The Gough Memorial Plate Distance 1 mile.—	
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Danzig (7st. 5lbs.), Clarke	4	Mr. T. M. Goomkias Stability (8st 1lb.), R. Jones	1
Won by one and a quarter lengths, three-quarters of a length, three-quarters of a length Time—1 min 38 2-5 secs		Mr. M. Ali Asker's Arab Knight (7st 10lbs.), Donoghue	2
The Speon Plate Distance 1 mile —		Mr. Ahmed Hazamy's Moyeed (8st 4lbs.), Townsend	3
Mr. H. B. Sorabjee's Swithin (9st 10lbs.), Easton	1	Mr. Eve's Khundil (9st 12lbs.), Bowley	4
Mr. W. King's Love Glass (7st 13lbs.) R. Jones	2	Won by two lengths, half a length, one and a quarter lengths Time—1 min 50 secs	
Mr. Kelso's Tarvie (8st 5lbs.), McPherson	3	The Tom le Meaurier Plate Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards —	
Mr. Eve's Rowardennan (8st 5lbs.), Bowley	4	Mr. Heath's Hatchel (8st 11lbs.), McPherson	1
Won by one and a quarter lengths a head, a head Time—1 min 39 3-5 secs		H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Waterloo (9st 9lbs.), Perkins	2
The Turf Club Cup Distance about 1½ miles.—		H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Forfeit (7st 5lbs.), Sheldon	3
Mr. Eve's Mandil (9st 5lbs.), A. C. Walker	1	S. S. Akkasabab Maharaj's Arthur (8st 8lbs.), Clarke	4
Mr. Eve's Khundil (9st. 6lbs.), Bowley	2	Won by a short head, three-quarters of a length, a neck Time—1 min 23 2-5 secs	
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Tiporary (8st. 4lbs.) Burn	8	The Sir Cowasjee Jehangir Plate Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—	
Mr. Eve's Apollo (8st. 8lbs.), R. Jones	4	S. S. Akkasabab Maharaj's Goub (7st 12lbs.), Clarke	1
Won by two lengths two and a half lengths, half a length Time—2 mins. 45 4-5 secs		Mr. Eve's Chieftan (8st 5lbs.), Lambert	2
The Bombay Derby Distance about 1½ miles.—		Mr. Heath's Hatchel (8st. 12lbs.), McPherson	3
Mr. M. Goomkias' Mikado (9st 1lb.), R. Jones	1	Mr. Ardeahir Curaojee's Bismark (7st. 10lbs.), Donoghue	4
Mr. Eve's Khundil (9st 7lbs.), Bowley	2	Won by one and a half lengths; one and a half lengths; two lengths. Time—1 min. 22 2-5 secs.	
Mr. Eve's Mandil (9st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker	3		
S. S. Akkasabab Maharaj's Goub (7st 5lbs.), Clarke	4		

Poons.

The Western India Stakes Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (7st 11lbs), Morris 1

Mr J C Galstaun's Gaurishankar (8st. 6lbs), Dobie 2

Mr R.R.S.'s Waap (7st. 6lbs), Clarke 3

Mr E. Gujadhur's Prague (8st. 8lbs) Ritchie 4

Won by three-quarters of a length, three lengths, four lengths Time—2 mins. 13 3-5 secs

The Aga Khan's Cup Distance 1½ miles —

Mr A Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st 2lbs), Bowley 1

Mr A E Ephraums' Orange William (9st 7lbs), Morris 2

Mr J C Galstaun's Gaurishankar (9st 7lbs), F Huxley 3

Mr A M. Khalras's Risen Again (8st. 7lbs), McPherson 4

Won by a short head, five lengths, two lengths Time—2 mins 85 secs

The Trial Plate Distance 1 mile.—

Mr Eve's Flaming Orb (9st 2lbs), A C Walker 1

Mr A Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st 2lbs), Bowley 2

Mr P B Avasia's Quarryman (8st 7lbs), Barnett 3

Mr R H Gahagan's Owen Roe (9st 2lbs), Ritchie 4

Won by a neck, a head, half a length Time—1 min 43 secs

The Poona Caesarowitch. Distance 2½ miles.—

Mr H M Mehta's Kent Eaglet (8st. 9lbs), Morris 1

Mr P B Avasia's Crab Apple (7st 10lbs), McQuade 2

Mr A M. Khalras's Risen Again (9st 4lbs), Burn 3

Mr Eve's Perfect Day (7st 8lbs), M. Hoyt. 4

Won by one length, a head; three lengths Time—3 mins 59 1-5 secs

The St. Ledger Plate Distance R. O and distance.—

Mr P. B. Avasia's Crab Apple (8st 12lbs), S Black 1

Mr Eve's Ganymede (7st. 11b), M. Hoyt. 2

Mr A. M. Khalras's Risen Again (7st 6lbs), Townsend 3

Mr R.R.S.'s Babakto (7st. 11b.), F Black. 4

Won by four lengths; half a length; eight lengths. Time—3 mins. 4 1-5 secs.

The Stand Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr A E Ephraums' Orange William (10st. 7lbs.), Morris 1

Mr R. H. Gahagan's Owen Roe (8st. 6lbs) Clarke 2

Mr J C Galstaun's Solo Bridge (7st 6lbs), Townsend 3

Mr R. R. S.'s Waap (7st 4lbs), Harrison 4

Won by half a length, dead heat, one and a half lengths Time—1 min. 48 secs.

The Aga Shamshudin Plate Distance 1 mile.—

Mr Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (8st 8lbs), Morris 1

Mr R.R.S.'s Waap (7st 6lbs), Clarke 2

Mr Eve's The Count (7st 6lbs), A O Walker 3

Mr Eve's Dick Turpin (8st 8lbs), Bowley 4

Won by one length, three-quarters of a length, a neck Time—1 min 45 2 5 secs

The Ganeshkhind Plate Distance 5 furlongs —

Mr B B Davison's Cintra (7st 5lbs), Townsend 1

Mr R H Gahagan's Owen Roe (9st. 4lbs), Bowley 2

Mr Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (7st 9lbs), McQuade 3

Mr R.R.S.'s Waap (7st.), Harrison 4

Won by half a length, two and a half lengths a head Time—1 min 13 4-5 secs

Three Year Old Stakes Distance 1½ miles —

Mr C N Wadia's Spatchcock (9st), Buckley 1

Mr N Begnahomed's Longcoat (8st. 11lbs), Morris 2

Mr R. H. Gahagan's Precious Lass (8st 11lbs), Clarke 3

Mr Eve's Calls (9st), Bowley 4

Won by one and a quarter lengths, a short head; three lengths Time—3 mins 10 2-5 secs.

he Orkerton Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr Kelso's Harry Tate (8st. 6lbs), McPherson 1

Mr J C Galstaun's Starshot (8st 8lbs), Morris 2

Mr R. H. Gahagan's Precious Lass (7st 10lbs), Ritchie 3

Mr. N A Kani's Ulster Lad (8st. 8lbs), S. J Mackings 4

Won by half a length, a neck, one and a half lengths Time—1 min. 30 3-5 secs

The Newmarket Plate Distance 6 furlongs—

Mr Eve's Nicety (7st. 8lbs), A C Walker 1

Mr R. R. S.'s Greenfinch (8st. 8lbs), Clarke 2

H. H. the Mahasab of Kolhapur's Whipping (7st. 8lbs), Sheldon 3

Mr T M. Thaddeus' Goldgulver (8st. 11b.), Bura 4

- Won by half a length; eight lengths; half a length. Time—1 min. 15 2-5 secs.
- The Poona Plate.** Distance about 5 furlongs—
- Mr. P. B. Avastia's Fille d'Or (set.), Barnett 1
- Mr. Eve's Surayakumari (set. 10 lbs.), Bowley 2
- Mr. F. M. Gardia's Bell's Life (7st 11b), M. Hoyt 3
- Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Precious Lass (7st 11lbs), Clarke 4
- Won by one length, three-quarters of a length; one length. Time—1 min 3 1-5 secs
- The Eclipse Plate.** Distance about 5 furlongs—
- Mr. F. M. Gardia's Chummy (7st 8lbs), Ritchie 1
- Mr. Frank's Very Little (7st. 6lbs.), Harrison 2
- Mr. Eve's Nioety (9st 4lbs.), A. C. Walker 3
- Mr. E. B. Davison's Cintra (9st), Townsend 4
- Won by one length, a short head, two lengths Time—1 min 6 3-5 secs
- The Poona Country Bred Derby** Distance 7 furlongs—
- Mr. A. M. Khairas's Joviality (9st), Burn 1
- Mr. F. N. Furdooji's Mystery (8st. 11lbs), Perkins 2
- H. H. the Maharaja of Dhar's Eame (8st 11lbs.), Donnelly 3
- H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Sugar Kilanti (8st 11lbs), Morris 4
- Won by one and a half lengths; five lengths, four lengths Time—1 min 33 2-5 secs
- The Poona Country Bred St Leger** Distance 1½ miles—
- Mr. F. N. Furdooji's Mystery (8st 11lbs), Harrison 1
- Mr. A. M. Khairas's Joviality (9st. 7lbs.), Burn 2
- H. H. the Maharaja of Dhar's Eame (8st 11lbs.), Clarke 3
- H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Sugar Kilanti (8st. 11lbs), Morris 4
- Won by ten lengths, two and a half lengths, four lengths Time—8 mins 17 4-5 secs
- The Governor's Cup** Distance E. C. and distance—
- Mr. Eve's Tarick (7st 6lbs.), Townsend. 1
- H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Nafa (7st. 11lbs), Sheldon 2
- H. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Baronet (7st.), McQuade 3
- Mr. Marks' Vank-ul-Mulk (7st. 8lbs.), R. J. Meekings 4
- Won by three lengths, four lengths; six lengths, Time—3 mins. 6 2-5 secs.

- The Turf Club Cup.** Distance 1½ miles.—
- Mr. Eve's Apollo (8st. 11lb.), Purtoosingh. 1
- H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpura's Tippecary (8st.), Burn 2
- H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Baronet (7st. 11lbs.), McQuade 3
- H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Nafa (8s 4lbs.), Perkins 4
- Won by a short head, half a length, a neck. Time—3 mins 2 4-5 secs
- The Poona Arab Derby** Distance 1½ miles—
- Mr. Faayad Sulleman's Tarick (7st 6lbs), Townsend 1
- H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Nafa (8st 11lbs), Perkins 2
- Mr. T. M. Goculdass's Sheboob (7st 11lbs), McPherson 3
- Mr. T. M. Goculdass Zohal (8st 12lbs), Audas 4
- Won by half a length, ten lengths two lengths Time—3 mins 53 2-5 secs
- Commemoration Plate** Distance 1½ miles—
- Mr. Eve's Mandil (9st. 9lbs), A. C. Walker 1
- Mr. Moosa Iara's Faithful (8st), Townsend 2
- Mr. Eve's Rose Hill (9st 11lbs), Bowley 3
- Dr. J. E. Bharrucha and Mr. G. T. Mawson's Bahadurjung (Set 10lbs), Easton 4
- Won by half a length, four lengths, one and a half lengths Time—8 mins 24 1-5 secs.
- The Arab Pony Derby** Distance 6 furlongs—
- Mr. S. R. A. Wahab's Moan (8st 6lbs), Townsend 1
- S. S. Akkasahab Maharaj's Hishan (7st 11lbs), Morris 2
- Mr. T. M. Goculdass's Safety (8st 10lbs), McPherson 3
- Mr. Heath's Mayiah (8st 6lbs), Burn 4
- Won by three-quarters of a length, a head, half a length Time—1 min 22 2-5 secs

Bangalore.

- Bangalore Cup** Distance about 1½ miles—
- Mr. J. S. Harper's Ship's Biscuit (8st 11lbs.), Barratt 1
- Mr. Eve's Silver Salat (9st), Ritchie 2
- Messrs. Donnell and Hartley's Kilcloon (8st 11lbs), Thompson 3
- Won by three lengths, two lengths. Time—3 mins 20 secs
- Maharaja of Mysore's Cup** Distance 1 mile—
- Mr. Eve's Happy Times (8st. 11lbs.), Ritchie 1
- Mr. A. B. Bradshaw's Lord Jim (7st.), Bona 2
- Mr. G. A. Marsh's The Gaffer (8st. 11lbs.), Huxley 3
- Mr. Rowso's Archie's Fancy (9st. 11lbs.), Flynn 4

Won by half a length, three-quarters of a length, half a length. Time—1 min 51 secs

Miller Cup Distance about 7 furlongs.—
Mr. Eves Happy Times (9st. 4lbs.), Ritchie 1
Mr C Vass Headstrong (7st 11lb.), Black 2
Mr M. Younes's Espousal (8st. 11lbs.), Barratt 3
Won by a short head, three lengths Time—1 min 37 5 secs

Uluor Cup Distance about 7 furlongs.—
Mr S Basheer Ali's Fancy Fair (8st 5lbs.), Ritchie 1
Mr J C Galstaun's Patrick (9st 11lbs.), Siley 2
Mr Deomar's Fairie Knight (10st. 7lbs.), Donnelly 3
Won by three-quarters of a length, three lengths Time—1 min 37 secs

Haji Sir Ismail Salt's Cup Distance about 6 furlongs —
Mr Jagannath Daa's Bluster (8st 9lbs), A D Walker 1
Mrs Conran Smith's Landlady (9st.), Donnelly 2
Messrs Soutar and Simpson's Duncraye (9st 6lbs), Siley 3
Maharaja of Mysore's True Grace(—), Bona 4
Won by two and a half lengths, two lengths, a neck Time—1 min 23 5 secs.

H H the Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup Distance about 1 mile —
Mr G A Marsh's Good Day (8st 5lbs), Huxley 1
Messrs Soutar and Simpson's Mount Arrarat (9st 7lbs), Siley 2
Mr Ivan Jones' New Orleans (8st 5lbs), J G Meekings 3
Mrs G Conran Smith's Landlady (8st 10lbs), Donnelly 4
Won by three-quarters of a length, one and a quarter lengths, a head Time — 1 min 44 5 secs

Ootacamund.

The Governor's Cup Distance 1½ miles.—
Mr Deomar's Fairie Knight (7st 5lbs.), Donnelly 1
Mr G A Marsh's The Gaffer (9st 11lbs.), Huxley 2
Raja of Venkatagiri's Orme d Or (7st 5lbs), Bona 3
Won by a short head, three-quarters of a length Time—2 mins. 14 4-5 secs.

The Madras Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr. Pogose's The O'Malley (8st. 2lbs.), J. G. Meekings 1

Mr. Roy's Outling (9st. 7lbs.), Barratt 2
Zemindar of Sivaganga's Low Force (7st.), Bona 3
Mr Karim Kasi's Lucky Lad (9st 6lbs.), S J Meekings 4
Won by one length, two and a half lengths. Time—1 min 17 2-5 secs.

The Terrace Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—
Maharaja of Mysore's Alexo (9st.), Thompson 1
Zemindar of Sivaganga's Low Force (9st. 2lbs.), Aldridge 2
Mr P Pogose's Sack the Lot (8st 2lbs), J G Meekings 3
Mr Harper's Tell Dennis (7st 9lbs.), Donnelly 4
Won by one length, a short head, a head Time—1 min 25 secs.

The Eclipse Cup Distance 4 furlongs.—
Mr G A Marsh's Carremar (10st 4lbs.), Huxley 1
Maharaja of Mysore's Wianburn (7st 7lbs.), S J Meekings 2
Zemindar of Sivaganga's Cornflower (7st. 11lbs), Aldridge 3
Won by three-quarters of a length, two and a half lengths. Time—1 min 19 secs.

The Ootacamund Cup Distance 7 furlongs.—
Mr Ahmed Haxamy's Zaitoon (9st 6lbs), Huxley 1
Mr H. B. Dunk's Orphan (7st 10lbs), Donnelly 2
Mr H Kadum's Mahir (9st 4lbs.), Thompson 3
Raja of Bobbin's Limerick (7st 2lbs), Bona 4
Won by four lengths, two and a half lengths, half a length Time—1 min 40 2-5 secs

The Poona Cup. Distance 5½ furlongs.—
Mr H R. Dunk's Aeroplane (8st 5lbs.), Donnelly 1
Mr H Kadum's Mahir (9st 5lbs.), Thompson 2
Mr G A Marsh's Khallan (8st 9lbs), Huxley 3
Mr Godse's Valliprasad (8st. 6lbs), S. J Meekings 4
Won by three-quarters of a length, a neck. Time—1 min 18 4-5 secs.

Karachi.

Karachi Handicap. Distance 1½ miles.—
Mrs. Osborne Carey's Limehouse Lights (7st. 7lbs.), Balmour 1
Mr. Woodward's Two Gates (8st. 10lbs.), Buckley 2
Mr Sharoff's Old Chris (9st. 2lbs.), Boston 3

Won by two and a half lengths, one length.
Time—2 mins. 51 secs.

Khairpur Cup. Distance B. C—

Captain Russell's Timotee (8st 12lbs.), Balfour 1

Captain McArthur's Perception (10st 12lbs.), Baskon 2

Captain McArthur's Legacy (7st), Hoyt 3

Won by four lengths, one and a half lengths.
Time—2 mins. 42 secs.

Baghdad Handicap. Distance 1 mile—

Mr Goorji Yacoub's Birtib (7st 10lbs.), Jones 1

Mr Abdul Karim Reza's Falada (8st 8lbs.), Balfour 2

Mr Khanna's Rangoon (7st 4lbs.), Osman 3

Mr Shamian's Hero (9st), Bahajan 4

Won by two and a half lengths, three lengths. Time—1 min 57 secs

Rawalpindi

Rawalpindi Gold Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs—

Major Exham's Grenock (7st 4lbs.), Balfour 1

Mr Woodward's Sandoola (9st 11lbs.), Buckley 2

Major Whitaker's Wally (8st 8lbs.), Alford 3

Captain Farrar and Mr Roberts' Pure Gem (10st. 12lbs.), Oallanan 4

Won by one and three-quarter lengths, two lengths, two and a half lengths.
Time—1 min 34 secs

Patrons' Cup. Distance about 1 mile—

Captain Carpenter's Rambler (8st. 6 lbs.), Alford 1

Major Glendinning's Melwood (10st 12 lbs.), Owner 2

Major Bowhay and Captain Plunkett's Homespun (10st), Harraway 3

Captain McArthur's Perception (10st 8lbs.), Balfour 4

Won by a head, one length, three-quarters of a length. Time—1 min 49 2-5 secs.

Northern India Stakes. Distance about 1½ miles—

Captain Barker's St. Bee (8st), Balfour 1

Colonel Stewart's Buff Mall (7st), Tymon 2

Mr Pigott's Pink (9st. 12lbs.), Captain Newill 3

Won by two lengths, one and a half lengths.
Time—2 mins. 42 3-5 secs

Arondian Chase. Distance 2½ miles (steep-chase).—

Captain Cox's Mr Jinks (10st. 8lbs.), Owner 1

Major Hunt's Beattie Danie (9st. 12lbs.), Mr. McCarthy 2

Mr Webber's Lure (11st 8lbs.), Owner 3

Won by one and a half lengths, twenty lengths. Time—3 mins. 4 3-5 secs.

Punjab Army Cup. Distance about 2½ miles (steep-chase)—

Mr Graham's Prim (12st 10lbs.), Mr. Leatham 1

Captain Watson's Epicurean (9st), Owner 2

Colonel Brooker's Jamadar (11st. 2lbs.), Captain Martin 3

Lt Ajaib Singh's Night Cap (10st 10lbs.), Mr McCarthy 4

Won by two lengths, two lengths, one and a quarter lengths. Time—5 mins. 13 2-5 secs.

Tradesmen's Cup. Distance about 6 furlongs—

Mr W King's Moccasin (7st), Buckley 1

Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (7st), Alford 2

Won by six lengths. Time—1 min 24 4-5 secs.

Kashmir Cup. Distance about 1 mile 1 furlong—

Major Miss's Loddinton (9st), Owner 1

Major Jackson's Senford (—), Captain Carpenter 2

Majors Bruce and Newton's Treddie (12st 4lbs.), Mr Jerrom 3

Captain Martin's Phalarian (9st), Edwards 4

Won by two lengths, half a length, one and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 1 sec.

Rawalpindi Stakes. Distance about 5 furlongs—

Captain Farrar's Polkinet (8st 10lbs), Edwards 1

Captain Cox's Hardware (8st 10lbs.), Meherjee 2

Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (8st 2lbs), Alford 3

Mrs. Sydney Smith's Little King (8st. 10lbs.), Bona 4

Won by one and a quarter lengths half a length one length. Time—1 min 5 secs

Northern Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—

Mrs. Stewart's Carlisle (8st 5lbs), Marland 1

Captain Eagles Riddigore (8st 9lbs), Major Guild 2

Mr Sulkoman's Sinner (9st 12lbs) Buckley 3

Mr Khanna's Rangoon (8st. 2lbs.), Hoyt 4

Won by a head, two lengths. Time—1 min 53 3-5 secs.

Secunderabad.

The Nizam's Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Major Khader Beg's Vanchere (7st. 8 lbs), Purtoodagh 1

Mr A B Bradshaw's Vianteringhee (8st. 6lbs.), Donnelly 2

Mr Lakshman Reddy's Floral Fete (8st. 5lbs.), Andam 3

Won by two lengths; a short head. Time—1 min 22 secs.

The Commander-in-Chief's Cup Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr Ali Asker's Fearless (9st 5lbs.), Andas 1

Mr Ali Asker's Black Rock (9st 8lbs.), Purtoosingh 2

Mr Rahimtoola Salt's Applause (9st 5lbs.), Donnelly 3

Won by a neck, two lengths. Time—1 min 33 secs

The Resident's Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr S A Kuppaswamy's Sugar Kikite (9st 12lbs.), Andas 1

Nawab Nadir Jung Bahadur's Estella (7st 13lbs.), Harrison 2

Mr A R Kesava Moodellar's Corundum (9st 11lb.), Purtoosingh 3

Won by one and a half lengths, a short head Time—1 min 7 secs.

The Wahab Cup Distance 7 furlongs.—

Major-General G Ponsonby's Orphan (9st 8lbs.), Donnelly 1

Mr Rajmahomed Vair's Lucknow (9st 7lbs.), Purtoosingh 2

Mr S R A Wahab's Sultan (9st.), Harrison 3

Won by a neck, half a length Time—1 min 42 2-5secs.

The Orr Cup Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr H R Dunk's Aeroplane (8st 6lbs.), Donnelly 1

Mr S R A Wahab's Mosan (9st. 10lbs.), Thompson 2

Messrs. S R A Wahab and H Ahmed's Mahdi (8st. 8lbs.), Andas 3

Won by three lengths, two lengths. Time—1 min 10 4-5 secs.

Quetta.

A G G's Cup Distance 1 mile.—

Lt-Colonel A B Beauman's Cyanite (10st 11lb.), Tymon 1

Mr E Griffiths' Easter Holiday (10st 9lbs.), Mr G Colchester 2

Captain J A Aislewood's Uphill (10st 12lbs.), Ferose Khan 3

Lt-Colonel A K Heyland's Crookhey Hall (10st 9lbs.), Harraway 4

Won by half a length half a length, three lengths Time—1 min 46 1-5 secs.

Quetta Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mrs. Osborne Carey's Limehouse Lights (11st.), Balfour 1

Major Jackson's Bensford (11st.), Harraway 2

Mr Tompman's O C. Honeymoon (9st.), Captain Bernard 3

Mr. Sumail's Fair Lad (7st. 8lbs.), Khuda Baksh 4

Won by one length, five lengths. Time—2 mins. 21 3-5 secs.

Kelat Cup Distance 1 mile.—

Mr K. Lindsay Smith's Arab Duke (9st.), Harraway 1

Captain M Cox's Hardware (11st. 12lbs.), Meherjee 2

Khan Bahadur Sardar Jamal Khan's Saraswati (7st. 12lbs.), Tymon 3

Lt-Colonel G Tate's Golden Sand (10st 12lbs.), W Jones 4

Won by half a length, half a length, six lengths. Time—1 min 57 1-5 secs.

Abdul Sattar's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Major W B White's Forest Lover (11st 12lbs.), W Jones 1

Captain B G MacArthur's Legacy (8st. 11lbs.), Harraway 2

Mr D W Bruce and Major C Newton-Davis' Toddy (7st 10lbs.), Tymon 3

Captain R G MacArthur's Perception (11st. 8lbs.), Meherjee 4

Won by five lengths, two lengths, one and a half lengths. Time—1 min 47 2-5 secs.

Wazir i Asam's Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Haji Bal Baran Khan's Gul Khandan (8st. 6lbs.), Khan Beg 1

H H the Khan of Kelat's Shams (9st. 10lbs.), Captain Bernard 2

Mir Mewa Khan's Kaptan (10st 8lbs.), Major Pim 3

Syed Mahomed Alam Shah's The Rose (10st 10lbs.), Ghulam Jan 4

Won by three lengths, a short head Time—1 min 24 4-5 secs

Kelat Plate Distance 1 mile.—

Mir Mewa Khan's Kaptan (11st.), Major Pim 1

Malik Mir Mahomed's Nerkhis (10st.), W. Jones 2

Haji Baran Khan's Gul Khandan (9st 12lbs.), Khan Beg 3

Nawab Morab Khan's Garj (9st 4lbs.), Abdul Raschid 4

Won by three and a half lengths, a neck, 1 min—2 mins. 1 1-5 secs

Desert Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—

Major Knott's Chungs (8st. 5 lbs.), Harraway 1

Messrs Hasanally and Contractor's Honey-suckle (9st. 8lbs.), Harraway 2

Sardar Haji Mahomed Khan's Andhor (7st 12lbs.), W Jones 3

Malik Jan Mahomed's Blue Beard (9st. 12lbs.), Mahomed Yusuf 4

Won by four and a half lengths; three lengths Time—3 mins. 0 1-5 secs.

Results.

Amble Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

- H. H. the Mir of Kasipur's Race Wind (7st 11lbs.), W Jones . . . 4
 Major Edwards' Karu (7st. 4lbs.), Baye . . . 2
 Messrs. Hasnally and Contractor's Honey-suckle (9st. 4lbs.), Balfour . . . 3
 Captain MacArthur's Mohel (8st 12lbs.), Haraway . . . 4
 Won by two lengths, three lengths. Time—1 min 55 2-5 secs.

Amble

- Funjab Cup Distance 1 mile 5 furlongs.—
 Nawab of Mamdot's O K (10st 8lbs), Captain Kemp . . . 1
 Miss Anderson's Queen Bees (10st 8lbs), Colonel Mathews . . . 2
 Miss Anderson's St Ethelberga (10st 8lbs), Edwards . . . 3
 Captain Carpentier's Ranger (9st 7lbs), Captain Bernard . . . 4
 Won by ten lengths, eight lengths Time—3 mins 27 secs

Leopardstown Cup Distance 1 mile —

- Lt-Colonel Stewart's Buff Mail (7st 10lbs), Alford . . . 1
 Mr. Ray's Jaunt (9st 12lbs), Edwards . . . 2
 Mr Woodward's Two Gates (9st 12lbs), Captain Bernard . . . 3
 Lt-Colonel Beauman's Cyanite (7st), Tyson . . . 4
 Won by one length, three-quarters of a length, three lengths Time—1 min 57 secs

Shahzadpur Cup Distance 6 furlongs —

- Captain MacArthur's Perception (10st 12lbs.), Edwards . . . 1
 Mr Boscoe's Romance (7st 12lbs), Baye . . . 2
 Captain MacArthur's Legacy (7st 8lbs), Babu Lal . . . 3
 Captain Carpentier's Rambler (8st 2lbs), Tymon . . . 4
 Won by a neck, one length, two lengths Time—1 min 21 1/2 secs

Kashmir Cup Distance 5 furlongs —

- Major Grant's Cockle Shell (8st 7lbs.), Edwards . . . 1
 Major Jackson's Semford (8st 12lbs), Tymon . . . 2
 Mr Bhargava's Lace (10st), Purtoosingh . . . 3
 Lt-Colonel Stewart's Storo (8st 12lbs), Alford . . . 4
 Won by one length, two and a half lengths Time—1 min. 10 secs

Amble Cup Distance 1 1/2 miles (hurdles)—

- Captain Ashwood's Uphill (11st 12lbs.), Tams . . . 1
 Seth Shub Chand's Sage (11st. 12lbs.), Edwards . . . 2

Lt-Colonel Stewart's Abbees (8st.), Captain Richards . . . 3

Won by half a length, one and a half lengths Time—Not taken

Aleppo Cup Distance 5 furlongs —

- Mr Dilewar Singh's Mudoob (7st 6lbs), Ghazita . . . 1
 Mr Shaw's Coronation (7st 8lbs), Tymon . . . 2
 Mr Rajmahomed Vazir's Lucknow (9st. 7lbs), Purtoosingh . . . 3
 Mr Madadin Gupta's Mount Pleasant (7st), Bona . . . 4
 Won by half a length, three lengths Time—54 secs

Mysore

H H the Maharaja of Mysore's Cup Distance 1 1/2 miles —

- Raja of Sivaganga's Low Force (7st 4lbs.), Black . . . 1
 Messrs Souter and Simpson's Fair Deal (7st 5lbs), Siely . . . 2
 H H the Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (8st 2lbs), Thompson . . . 3
 Mr G A. Mann's The Gaffer (8st 12lbs), Huxley . . . 4
 Won by three lengths, half a length, half a length Time—2 mins 13 1-5 secs

Hall Sir Ismail Salt's Cup Distance 5 furlongs.—

- Mr N A Karl's Lucky Lad (8st 6lbs), S. J. Meekings . . . 1
 Raja of Sivaganga's Low Force (8st), Akridge . . . 2
 Mr J S Nicholl's Nicaragua (9st. 6lbs), Huxley . . . 3
 Won by a head, one and a half lengths Time—1 min 52-5 secs

Sirdar Lakshmikantharaj Urs' Cup Distance 7 furlongs.—

- H H the Maharaja of Mysore's Max (8st 9lbs), Thompson . . . 1
 Mr J C Galstaun's Patrick (9st 12lbs), Flynn . . . 2
 Mr O H Northmore's Pamphylia (8st 4lbs.), A D Walker . . . 3
 Won by one and three-quarters lengths, three lengths. Time—1 min 30 secs

Rajkumar's Cup Distance 1 mile —

- Mr M Ali Asker's Fearless (8st. 6 lbs.), A. D. Walker . . . 1
 Raja of Sivaganga's Criadillo (10st 6lbs.), Akridge . . . 2
 Captain Bomvaraj Urs and Mr M Ali Asker's Black Rock (7st. 12lbs.), S J. Meekings . . . 3
 Won by one and a half lengths, half a length. Time—1 min. 47 secs.

H H the Yuvraja of Mysore's Cup.
Distance 1½ miles.—

- Mr A. Sastar's Lookhman (9st. 2½lb.), Barrett 1
Mr H Kadum's Mahir (8st. 9½lb.), Thompson 2
Mr M. A. H. Asker's Arab Knight (10st 2½lb.), S. J. Meekings 3
Won by three and a half lengths; half a length Time.—2 mins 31 secs.

Gwallor.

Scindia Cup Distance 1 mile —

- Mr Vernon's Some Scribe (8st 9½lb.), Harrison 1
Mr T. Goculdas' Catchup (9st.), Audas 2
Mr Basheerall's Black Peter (8st 8½lb.), C Hoyt 3
Mr A. Hoyt's Country Lad (9st 12½lb.), M Hoyt 4
Won by two lengths, two and a quarter lengths, four lengths Time.—1 min 41 2 5 secs

Surf Club Plate Distance 6 furlongs —

- Mr T. Goculdas' Catchup (8st 10½lb.), McPherson 1
Mr Vernon's Some Scribe (9st.), Thompson 2
Mr Eve's Cracknel (8st 6½lb.), Aldridge 3
Mr Dara Cowasjee's Zea (8st. 4½lb.), McQuade 4
Won by a head, a neck Time.—1 min 15 secs

Byoula Handicap Distance 1 mile —

- Mr Eve's Cracknel (8st 4½lb.), Aldridge 1
Mr Harrison's Night Watch (9st.), Audas 2
Mr Dara Cowasjee's Zea (7st 8½lb.), McQuade 3
Won by one and a half lengths, a neck Time.—1 min 42 1 5 secs
Catchup won this race, but was disqualified for crossing

Yuvraj Cup. Distance 1 mile —

- Mr Furdooji's Mystery (9st 13½lb.), Harrison 1
Mr A. Hoyt's Discarded (9st 1½lb.), M Hoyt 2
Mr Basheerall's Monsoon Jack (8st 8½lb.), C Hoyt 3
H H the Maharaja of Dhar's Devotion (9st.), McQuade 4
Won by a neck, two and a half lengths, two and a quarter lengths Time.—1 min. 44 secs

Ishradas Goculdas Cup Distance 7 furlongs —

- Mr T. Goculdas' Hazal (9st 4½lb.), Audas 1
Mr Eve's Some Scamp (8st 13½lb.), Bowley 2
Mr Rajmahomed Vazir's Lucknow (8st. 6½lb.), Purtoosingh 3
Mr Rajmahomed Vazir's Chanchoon (8st 4½lb.), J G Meekings 4
Won by one and a half lengths, four lengths. Time.—1 min. 44 secs

Kolhapur.

Maharaja Cup. Distance 1½ miles —

- Mr Andrade's Prince Hamed (7st. 3½lb.), Black 1
Genl Obaidulla Khan's Somali (8st. 5½lb.), Morris 2
Mr Kelso's Irrigate (8st 7½lb.), McPherson 3
Won by two and a quarter lengths; four lengths Time.—2 mins 11 4 5 secs

Shivaji Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

- Nawabzada Sayeed Azfar Khan's Lady Rita (9st. 12½lb.), Barnett 1
Mr A. B. Sethna's The Lily (8st. 4½lb.), Oomerkhan 2
S S Akkasabab Maharaj's Bathurst (8st 2½lb.), McQuade 3
Won by two lengths, a neck Time.—1 min 47 secs

Maharani Cup Distance 1½ miles —

- Mr H Kadum's Rajput (8st 6½lb.), S Black 1
H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Ramban (8st 12½lb.), Sheldon 2
Mr Abdulla Mana's Adwan (9st 4½lb.), Audas 3
Mr Ardeashir Cursetjee's Castro (9st 8½lb.), McPherson 4
Won by a head, half a length, one length Time.—2 mins 25 4 5 secs

Meerut.

Governor's Cup Distance about 2 miles (Steeplechase) —

- Mr Graham's Prim (12st. 10½lb.), Owner 1
Mr Dillon's The Baron (10st 12½lb.), Mr Mansel 2
Captain Cox's Mr Jinks (12st 3½lb.), Captain Garner 3
Lt Colonel Stewart's Traveller (12st 10½lb.), Captain Martin 4
Won by two lengths, two lengths Time.—4 mins 12 secs

Patiala Cup Distance 2 miles (Steeplechase).—

- Lt Colonel Sulton and Mr Leatham's Little Imp (10st 10½lb.), Mr Leatham 1
Captain Harman's Sheba (10st 10½lb.), Captain Newell 2
Mr A. M. McGrigor's Lady Daphne (10st 10½lb.) 3
Won by four lengths, distance Time.—4 mins 10 4 5 secs

Meerut Chase Distance about 2½ miles (Steeplechase) —

- Mr Graham's Prim (12st. 1½lb.), Callanan 1
Mr Dillon's The Baron (10st. 2½lb.), Captain Roberts 2
Mr Eustace Smith's Little Imp (9st. 4½lb.), Mr Leatham 3
Lt. Colonel Stewart's Traveller (11st. 12½lb.), Captain Martin 4

Won by five lengths; two lengths. Time— 8 mins. 23 5-6 secs.		Raja Bipal Singh's Sarfaraz (Set. 12lbs.), Buckley	
Meerut Military Cup Distance 1½ miles.— Major Hughes' Silpalong (Set. 12lbs.), Captain Newill	1	Mr. Kaabi Charan's Amphitryon (7st. 11lb.), McQuade	4
Major Jackson's Bensford (12st 11lb.), Captain Carpenter	2	Won by one and a half lengths, one and a half lengths Time—2 mins 11 2-5 secs.	
Captain Aislewood's Uphill (11st. 8lbs.), Captain Misa	3	Stewards' Plate. Distance 1 mile.— Mr Deane's Cider (7st 11lb.), Tymon	1
Captain Kairwan's Curragha (9st.), Major Guld	4	Mr Abdulla's Apple Blossom (9st 4lbs.), Thompson	2
Won by two lengths, two and a half lengths Time—2 mins 43 1-5 secs		Mr Woodward's The Knut (11st 4lbs.), Buckley	3
Service Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.— Major Jackson's Bensford (11st 12lbs.), Captain Carpenter	1	Mr Bhargava's Cachalong (7st. 9lbs.), Purtoosingh	4
Major Rennie's Repartee (10st 6lbs.), Major Misa	2	Won by three quarters of a length, half a length, one and a quarter lengths Time—1 min. 45 1 5 secs	
Major Ian Grant and Mr Grant's Cheeky Girl (9st 6lbs.), Mr Jerrom	3	Meerut Silver Vase Distance 6 furlongs.— Mr Mahomed Mahdi's Antonio (8st 4lbs.), Purtoosingh	1
Captain Kairwan's Curragha (9st.), Major Guld	4	Mr Woodward's First Impressions (9st 12lbs.), Buckley	2
Won by three-quarters of a length, four lengths, half a length Time—1 min. 16 1 5 secs		Mr Mata Din's Mount Pleasant (7st 7lbs.), Bona	
Kader Plate Distance R C and 100 yards.— Major Conder and Bowhay's Middleton (8st 12lbs.), Harraway	1	Mr Ram Barup's Ritchie (8st. 4lbs.), C Hoyt	4
Mr. Scott's Golden Memory (8st 12lbs.), Bely	2	Won by a neck, dead heat, one length Time—1 min 25 1 5 secs	
Major Bowhay and Captain Plunkett's May Fair (8st 11lbs.), McQuade	3	Tikra Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.— Sirdars Mahomed Akram Khan and Azam Khan a Red Count (8st 11lbs.), Jones	1
Won by a head, one length Time— 3 mins 10 1 5 secs		Mr Fawcett's Winkle (8st 11lbs.), Edwards	2
Civil Service Plate Distance 1 mile.— Raja Bipal Singh's Usuns (10st. 11lb.), Buckley	1	Mr Mahomed Mahdi's Antonio (7st 6lbs.), Purtoosingh	3
Captain Farrar and Mr Roberts' Pure Gen (11st.), Callanan	2	Sirdar Sant Singh Chhachhi's Signaller (8st 12lbs.), Harraway	4
Major Exham's Spring Music (8st 4lbs.), Captain Bernard	3	Won by half a length a neck Time— 1 min. 23 1-5 secs	
Mrs Grant's Little Boy (7st. 4lbs.), Mc- Quade	4	Madras Governor's Cup Distance 1½ miles.— Mr T. M. Ross' Wee Dote (8st. 10lbs.), Thompson	1
Won by a neck, two and a half lengths Time—1 min 45 4-5 secs		Mr D. A. Cama's Charlie William (8st. 10lbs.), Wragg	2
North Western Plate Distance 7 furlongs.— Mr Northmore's House of Commons (8st- 8lbs.), Marland	1	Mr M. Yoonus' Ulster Maid (7st.), H. Mc- Quade	3
Mr Woodward's Two Gates (9st 12lbs.), Buckley	2	Mr Dee's Snowdrift (8st 12lbs.), Harraway	4
Mr Deane's Sunline (7st 12lbs.), Jones	3	Won by a neck, a neck, one length. Time —2 mins 37 4-5 secs	
Mr Ogdell's Murrilla (7st. 8lbs.), Bona	4	Merchants' Cup Distance about 1 mile.— Mr and Mrs Wesche-Dart's Cheery Girl (8st 7lbs.), Wragg	1
Won by half a length, three-quarters of a length, a head Time—1 min 30 1-5 secs.		H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (7st 5lbs.), S. J. Meekings	2
Governor-General's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.— Mr. Orde's Cultivator (7st.), Purtoosingh	1	Mr P. C. Fernando's Grand Prix (7st. 10lbs.), Bely	3
Mrs. Wadia's The Knut (10st. 6lbs.), Ed- wards	2	Sirdar Lakshmikantharaj Urs' High Road (8st.), Donnelly	4
		Won by two and a quarter lengths, a head, one length. Time—1 min. 57 2-5 secs.	

Jepore Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—
H. M. Lord Willington's Warburton (7st 5lbs.), White 1
Sirdar Lakshmikantara Uru' High Road (9st 4lbs.), Donnelly 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (7st 13lbs.), S J Meekings 3
Mr T. M. Rose's Wee Dots (8st 5lbs.), Thompson 4
Won by a neck, one length, a short head Time—2 mins 10 4 5 secs

Pethachi Cup Distance 1½ miles —
Mr Yoonus' Bosworth (9st. 4lbs.), H McQuade 1
Mr Deomar's Fairie Knight (7st 12lbs.), Donnelly 2
Mr J O Robinson's Daffum (8st. 8lbs.), J G Meekings 3
Mr Brendon's Chatty Tales (7st 12lbs.), Clarke 4
Won by a neck, a neck, one length Time —2 mins 41 secs

Mysore Cup Distance 1 mile —
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shritaj (9st 4lbs.), Hewitt 1
H. H. the Raja of Bobbili's Applicate (7st. 10lbs.), Donnelly 2
Mr C N Wadia's The Knut (9st. 9lbs.), Wragg 3
Mr Vernon's Sugarcane (10st.), Thompson 4
Won by one length, a neck, two lengths Time—1 min 46 3 5 secs

Shivaganga Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr Humain's Black Top (9st 8lbs.), Babajan 1
Zemindar of Shivaganga's Criadillo (7st 4lbs.), White 2
H. H. the Raja of Bobbili's Applicate (8st 8lbs.), Donnelly 3
Mr Mahdi and Captain Baswaraj Urs' Black Rock (8st 8lbs.), H McQuade 4
Won by half a length, one length, two and a half lengths Time—1 min. 17 4 5 secs.

ady Willington Plate Distance 1½ miles.—
Mr Ahmed Hasany's Don't Care (8st. 5lbs.), Raymond 1
Mr Lokhandawallah's Mahtab (8st 5lbs.), Burgess 2
Mr Bomanji's Logic (8st 5lbs.), Harraway 3
Mr A. R. Dakeel's Napoleon (7st. 6lbs.), White 4
Won by one and a half lengths, two lengths, half a length Time—3 mins. 35 2 5 secs.

John Cup. Distance 1 mile 1 furlong.—
Mr F. Bomanji's Logic (7st. 13lbs.), Sely. 1
Major H. H. Harford's Shah (7st. 5lbs.), Wragg 2

Mr Dars Cowasjee's Quantity (7st. 5lbs.), J Day 3
Mr Lokhandawallah's Silver Cloud (7st. 13lbs.), Burgess 4
Won by two and a half lengths; one length, one length. Time—3 mins. 11 1 5 secs.

Deomar Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Ramban (8st. 9lbs.), Hewitt 1
Mr Lokhandawallah's Silver Cloud (8st. 12lbs.), Thompson 2
Sir Ismail Salt's Klotitor (8st 12lbs.), H McQuade 3
Mr Gulam Mahomed Jusub's Favil (8st. 5lbs.), Wragg 4
Won by four lengths, a head, one length. Time—1 min 54 5 5 secs.

Stewards Cup Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr J S Nicoll's Nioaragua (8st), S J Meekings 1
The Maharaja of Mysore's Affable (9st), Hewitt 2
Mr M. Azan's Luxmi (8st 12lbs.), J McQuade 3
Mr Pettit's Belle Syme (9st 8lbs.), Aldridge 4
Won by half a length, three-quarters of a length, three-quarters of a length Time —1 min 17 1 5 secs

Trades Cup Distance 1 mile —
Mr M. Ryan's Tom Up (8st 11lbs.), M Hoyt 1
Mr W S J Wilson's Slogan (9st 4lbs.), Bonaley 2
The Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (9st 8lbs.), Brown 3
Raja of Shivaganga's Low Force (9st), Calder 4
Won by one and a quarter lengths, two and a quarter lengths, a head Time—1 min 44 3 5 secs

Travancore Cup Distance 6 furlongs —
Mr A. Sattar's Scindia (8st 13lbs.), Foxard 1
The Maharaja of Mysore's Hill and Dale (8st 13lbs.), Hewitt 2
Mr Nugent Grant's Sunny Lady (9st 2lbs.), S J Meekings 3
Messrs Wilson and Dawson's Princess Jabby (7st 11lbs.), Bonaley 4
Won by one length, one length, half a length Time—1 min. 17 3 5 secs.

Bobbili Cup Distance 1 mile.—
Mr A. R. Dakeel's Black Ivory (8st. 12lbs.), J McQuade 1
Mr S R A Wahab's Sultan (7st 1lb.), S. J Meekings 2
Mr Woeche-Dart's Zohal (9st. 6lbs.), Andes 3
Mr Sattar's Lookman (9st 1lb.), Foxard 4

<p>Won by a neck; one and a quarter lengths; four-lengths. Time—1 min. 54 1-5 secs</p> <p>Hajee Sir Ismail Set's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—</p> <p>Mr. A. M. Khairat's Kandhinava (8st 6lbs.), Brown 1</p> <p>Mr. Eve's Head (7st 6lbs.), M Hoyt 2</p> <p>Mr. Weeche-Dart's Naliera (7st 8lbs.), Bullock 3</p> <p>The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Rami (8st 6lbs.), Aldridge 4</p> <p>Won by one length, one length, two lengths Time—1 min 56 4-5 secs</p> <p>Mysore Cup Distance 1 mile —</p> <p>The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shiria (10st 5lbs.), Aldridge 1</p> <p>Mr. Ali Asker's Black Book (7st 11lbs.), M Hoyt 2</p> <p>Raja of Sivaganga's Criadillo (8st 13lbs.), Bosley 3</p> <p>Raja of Bobbin's Applicate (8st), Bullock 4</p> <p>Won by one length, three-quarters of a length, half a length Time—1 min 46 2-5 secs</p>	
<p>Lucknow.</p> <p>Civil Service Cup Distance 5 furlongs—</p> <p>Mr. Donnell's Bachelor's Siren (10st 7 lbs.), J Harrison 1</p> <p>Captain Farrar and Mr. Robert's Pure Gem (7st. 13lbs), Edwards 2</p> <p>H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Little Spec (8st 13lbs), O'Brien 3</p> <p>Mr. Garda's Lumination B (8st 6lbs), M Hoyt 4</p> <p>Won by three quarters of a length, one length, half a length Time—1 min 17 secs</p> <p>Governor's Cup Distance 1 mile—</p> <p>Mr. Bashir Ali's Curator (8st 12lbs), Ritchie 1</p> <p>Mr. Ramshaw's Fiorella (8st 5lbs), M Hoyt 2</p> <p>Mrs. Hewson's Catling (9st 12lbs), Bloss 3</p> <p>Mrs. Willson's Still Better (7st 12lbs), Donoghue 4</p> <p>Won by a head, two lengths, three-quarters of a length Time—1 min 42 2-5 secs</p> <p>Harcourt Butler Cup Distance 6 furlongs—</p> <p>Captain Crawford's Stellite (9st 2lbs), Edwards 1</p> <p>Mr. Bashir Ali's Curator (8st 6lbs), Ritchie 2</p> <p>Mr. Kaali Charan's Brony (7st. 13lbs), Ralfour 3</p> <p>Mrs. Hewson's Catling (9st. 13lbs), Dobie 4</p> <p>Won by three-quarters of a length, one and a quarter lengths, one length Time—1 min. 16 1-5 secs.</p>	
<p>Stewards' Cup Distance 6 furlongs—</p> <p>Messrs. Mottabhooy and Rajmahomed Vastri's Old Chris (8st 7lbs.), Purtoosingh</p> <p>Mr. Jackson's Princess Fari (9st.), Thompson</p> <p>Mr. Main's Staples (9st. 10lbs), Cooper</p> <p>Mr. Pigott's Stellite (9st 8lbs), Edwards</p> <p>Won by a neck, half a length, half a length Time—1 min 17 3-5 secs</p> <p>Patiala Cup Distance 5 furlongs—</p> <p>Mr. Brendon's Storthing (8st 11lb), Edwards</p> <p>Mr. Ooningham's Hungary (8st 10lbs), Dobie</p> <p>Mr. B. N. Bhargava's Lace (9st 9lbs), Purtoosingh</p> <p>Mrs. Willson's Still Better (8st. 9lbs), J Flynn</p> <p>Won by two lengths, two and a half lengths, a neck Time—1 min 3 1-5 secs</p> <p>Points Cup Distance 7 furlongs—</p> <p>Major Kavanagh's Madam Sequin (9st 2lbs), Buckley 1</p> <p>Mr. Brendon's Storthing (9st 10lbs), Edwards 2</p> <p>Rakut of Balkunthapur's Dynamo (10st.), Dobie 3</p> <p>Mr. Northmore's Bachelor Girl (7st.), C Hoyt 4</p> <p>Won by three-quarters of a length, one length, three-quarters of a length Time—1 min 32 3-5 secs</p> <p>Army Cup Distance 7 furlongs—</p> <p>Mr. Roscoe's Baalmazol (10st 11lbs), Mr Webber 1</p> <p>Lt-Colonel Gill's Vliager (11st 12lbs), Owner 2</p> <p>Major Misa's Leddiston (10st 2lbs), Owner 3</p> <p>Major Chapman's Edgar's Jewel (9st 5lbs), Major Gullid 4</p> <p>Won by one and a half lengths, two lengths, half a length Time—1 min 31 secs</p> <p>Jehangirabad Cup Distance 5 furlongs—</p> <p>Mr. Donnell's Bachelor's Siren (9st 13lbs.) J Harrison 1</p> <p>Mr. Garda's Lumination B (8st. 5lbs), M Hoyt 2</p> <p>Rakut of Balkunthapur's Elsie B (9st. 13lbs.), Dobie 3</p> <p>Mr. Hobday's Mooi (7st 7lbs), Ritchie 3</p> <p>Won by three and a half lengths, three lengths, dead heat Time—1 min. 3 secs.</p> <p>Frag Narain Bhargava Cup. Distance 7 furlongs—</p> <p>Mr. B. N. Bhargava's Oeshalong (7st. 9lbs), Purtoosingh 1</p>	

Mr Skinner's Cultivator (7st 12lbs),
Meherjee

Mr Bashir Ali's Monsoon Jack (7st 5lbs)
H McQuade

Mr Abdulla's Apple Blossom (8st 9lbs)
Thompson

Won by one and a quarter lengths, three-
quarters of a length a head Time—
1 min 53 2 5 secs

ownes Cup Distance 7 furlongs—
(apt Plunkett and Major Bowhay's Home
span (7st 4lbs) M Hoyt

Raja Sripal Singh and Kaur Bajendra Singh s
Sarfaraz (10st 4lbs), J Harrison

Sirdar Sant Singh Chhach's Come On
(7st 5lbs) Balfour

Mr Kashi Charan's Amphitriton (—)

Won by one and a quarter lengths one and
a half lengths Time—1 min 30 2 5 secs

Man Grand Military Steeplechase Distance
2½ miles—
Captain Hilliard's Ordex (12st 8lbs)
Mr Walker

1st Colonel Sutton and Mr Leatham's Little
Imp (9st 7lbs) Capt Newill

Major Hunt's Razzle Dazzle (9st 10lbs)
Captain Creagh

Won by half a furlong four lengths
Time—5 mins 14 3 5 secs

acknow Grand National Distance 2½ miles
(Steeplechase)—
Major Lucas' Athenian (12st 8lbs) Cap
tain Newill

Mr Graham's Prima (11st 10lbs) Mr
Webber

Mr Coningham's Durban (10st 9lbs)
Bliss

Won by three quarters of a length five
lengths Time—6 mins 14 secs

ab Cup Distance 1½ miles—
Mr Jackson's Burra Slam (9st) Thomp
son

Malik Jan Mahomed's Bluebeard (9st 10lbs)
Alford

Mr Bhadeshwar Nath's Reform (7st 5lbs)
H McQuade

Mr Hughes Shemal (9st 2lbs) J Harri
son

Won by three lengths two lengths two
lengths Time—2 mins 26 3 5 secs

idh Arab Handicap Distance 7 furlongs—
Mr Suleiman's Sinner (8st 11 lbs) Buck
ley

Mr Kornhaw's Shemal (8st 8lbs) Ritchie

Mr Marchand's Signaller (8st), Balfour

Mr Bashir Ali's Second String (8st 7lbs),
Quinn

Won by a short neck, one and a quarter
lengths, one length Time—1 min 59 2-5
secs

Lahore.

Punjab Cup Distance round the course—
Major Vanrenen's Winston (10st) Meherjee 1
Captain Marshall's Theresa
(10st 4lbs) Captain Gamble }
Colonel Steel and Captain } Dead heat 2
Barnett's Radiograph (10st
3lbs) Colonel Steel

Captain Inglis Glen d Or (10st 11lbs),
Captain Broadfoot

Won by four lengths, dead heat half
length Time—3 mins 16 secs

North Western Cup Distance 1 mile—
Mr Woodward's Two Gates (9st 12lbs),
Captain Bernard

Major Hughes Slip Along (7st 8lbs), Mamev

Major Grant's Cockle Shell (9st 5lbs),
A D Walker

Captain Teague and Mr Fairlie's La Mienne
(8st 1lb) Edwards

Won by two lengths short head one length
Time—1 min 45 secs

Salero Produce Stakes Distance 7 furlongs—
Mr Reveley's Manners (8st 5lbs) Edwards 1
Major Bowman and Captain Plunkett's
Pomona (8st 13lbs)

Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (8st 7lbs)
Marland

Mr Roscoe's Romance (9st 7lbs) Captain
Bernard

Won by three-quarters of a length five
lengths eight lengths Time—1 min
51 4-5 secs

Governor's Cup Distance 1 mile—
Major White's Forest Lover (10st 6lbs),
Flynn

Captain MacArthur's Legacy (7st 7lbs)
Babu Lal

Mr Woodward's The Knut (11st 7lbs)
Captain Bernard

Captain MacArthur's Perception (10st 9lbs),
Edwards

Won by one and a half lengths, half a length,
one length Time—1 min 46 3 5 secs

Lahore Cesarewitch Distance round the
course—
Captain Newill's Worcester (9st
12lbs) Owner }
Lt Colonel Beaumont's Cyanite } Dead heat 1
(8st 1lb) Tyson

Sirdar Jewan Singh's Casket (8st 1lb), Bona

Lt Colonel Condar's Pomfret (9st 2 lbs)
Captain Bernard

Dead heat, half a length, half a length
Time—3 mins 8 1-5 secs

Breeders' Cup Distance 2½ miles—
Mr Shaw's Emerald (9st 10lbs), Captain
Newill

Malik Bahadur Khan's Arab Duke (9st 12lbs), J Flynn	2	Won by two lengths a short head, for lengths Time—8 mins 34 1-5 secs
Captain Austin's Evergreen Eve (9st 9lbs), Edwards	3	Service Chase Distance about 2 miles (steeplechase) —
Major Jackson's Toby (9st 9lbs) Owner	4	Captain Herman's Sheba (10st 12lbs) Captain Cragh
Won by two and a half lengths ten lengths, distance Time—5 mins 15 2-5 secs		Major McCudden's Rathave (11st 3lbs) Captain Milton
Kashmir Cup Distance 1 mile —		Mr Leatham's Little Imp (10st 3lbs) Major Miss
Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (8st 4lbs) Marland	1	Major Hunt's Razzie Dazzle (9st 13lbs) Captain Martin
Captain Case's Hardware (8st 6lbs) J Flynn	2	Won by one and a half lengths ten lengths, two lengths Time—4 mins 4 secs
Mrs Sydney Smith's Little King (7st 9lbs) Maharjee	3	Shalimar Cup—Distance 7 furlongs—
Captain Carpenter's Dispute (7st) Tymon	4	Lt Colonel Stewart's Buff Mail (8st) Marland
Mr Norbury's Summer Garb (7st) Massey		Mr Woodward's Two Gates (9st 3lbs) Buckley
Won by five lengths four lengths three lengths Time—1 min 46 secs		Captain Bernard's Pussfoot (9st 5lbs) Owner
Renala Cup Distance 6 furlongs —		Captain Crawford's Bridge (8st 8lbs) Alford
Mr Bevel's Manners (8st 10lbs) Edwards	1	Won by three lengths half a length Time 1 min 30 2-5 secs
Major Bowman and Captain Plunkett's Pomona (9st 8lbs) Capt Bernard	2	* Civil and Military Gazette Cup Distance about 2½ miles (steeplechase) —
Major Vanrenen's Loving Cup (8st 10lbs) Marland	3	Captain Barker and Mr Macintyre's Traveller (12st 12lbs) Capt Plunkett
General Raja Sir Hari Singh's Polgate (8st 13lbs) Alford	4	Lt Colonel Brooke's Jemadar (10st 12lbs) Owner
Won by half a length, five lengths one length Time—1 min 19 4-5 secs		Mr Wood's Dysart (9st) Captain Orley
Patiala Cup Distance 5 furlongs —		Captain Cox's Mr Jinks (11st 3lbs) Owner
Nawab of Mamdot's Crane (7st) Babu Lal	1	Won by one length two lengths Time—5 mins 14 secs
Major Vanrenen's Lady Avidity (9st 10lbs) Marland	2	Woodward Cup Distance 1 mile—
Messrs Blake and Nathan's Good Shot II (8st) Massey	3	Mr Marchand's Signaller (7st 10lbs) Jones
Sirdar Jiwan Singh's Adelaide (7st) Bona	4	Mr Sulleman's Jerwan (9st 12lbs) Buckley
Won by one and a half lengths one length one length Time—1 min 5 secs		Mrs Stewart's Carlisle (8st 3lbs) Marland
Mamdot Cup Distance round the course —		Major Edwards Karun (8st 5lbs) Saye
Malik Jan Mahomed's Bluebeard (10st 10lbs) Edwards	1	Won by one and a half lengths two lengths Time—1 min 56 secs
Mrs Knott's Chungis (7st 7lbs) Saye	2	
Mrs Stewart's Carlisle (7st 7lbs) Fownes	3	
Malik Bahadur Khan's Debi (7st 7lbs) Tymon	4	

ATHLETICS

All-India Olympic Games.—

Modified Marathon (10 miles)—M B Hinge

Bombay Time—57 mins 29 3-5 secs

Three Mile Race—Seyoy Paka Singh (United

Provinces) Time—10 mins 10 secs

One Mile Race—M B Venkataramanwamy

(Madras) Time—4 mins 46 3-5 secs

440 Yards—T K Pitt (Bengal) Time—51

3-5 secs.

220 Yards—J. S. Hafl (Bengal) Time—22

3-5 secs

Hurdles (120 Yards)—C K Lakshman

(Madras) Time—16 1-5 secs

100 Yards—T K Pitt (Bengal) Time—

10 2-5 secs

Long Jump—Sirdar Dalip Singh (Patiala)

Distance—31 feet 9½ inches

High Jump—J C Heahooto (Madras)

Height—5 feet 9½ inches

16lb Shot Put—A R Hawkes (Madras)

Distance—23 feet 3½ inches

RUGBY FOOTBALL

All-India Tournament, Bombay —		Calcutta	11 points	Calcutta	Nil.
Calcutta		Bombay	8 points.	Poona Gymkhana Tournament —	
Bombay		Calcutta Tournament —		Bombay Gymkhana	22 points.
Calcutta Tournament —		Welch Regiment	4 points.	King's Shropshire Light Infantry	Nil.

RACKETS

Northern India Championship Tournament, Rawalpindi.—		Birnie and Mr MacGusty (Charterhouse)	by 4 games to 1
Open Singles—Mr E St J Bernie beat Colonel Winslow by 3 games to nil		Bombay Gymkhana Tournament.—	
Open Doubles—Captain Marriott and Mr Bernie beat Major Routh and Captain Tonks by 4 games to 1		Open Singles—P M D Sanderson beat N B Macbeth by 3 games to 1	
Regimental Pairs—Captain Marriott and Mr Bernie (12th Cavalry) beat Captain J W Davidson and Captain Nadia (Probyn's Horse) by 3 games to 1		Open Doubles—Macbeth and Grant beat Sanderson and Bormsow by 4 games to 2	
School Pairs—Captain J W Davidson and Captain Marriott (Wellington) beat Mr		Mysore Tournament—	
		Open Singles—Said Ali Khan (Rawalpindi) beat Abdul Majid (Peshawar) by 3 games to nil	
		Open Doubles—Lingaraj Urs and Sadanavi beat Lakshman Singh and Manekji by 3 games to 1	

POLO.

All-India Championship Tournament, Calcutta		Viceroy's Staff Cup Tournament, Simla—	
Jodhpur	9 goals	Patiala "B"	9 goals
Cavalry School	5 goals	Indian Cavalry	2 goals
Prince of Wales' Commemoration Tournament, Delhi—		Subsidiary Tournament, Simla—	
Patiala Tigers	6 goals	K.S.O.B. Lancers	7 goals
11th Hussars	3 goals	Snowdon	6 goals
Radhamohan Tournament, Delhi—		Royal Dragoons' Cup Tournament, Lucknow—	
19th Lancers "B"	6 goals	Bhopal	7 goals
Viceroy's Staff	3 goals	Crimson Ramblers	6 goals
Inter-Regimental Tournament, Meerut—		Subsidiary Tournament, Lucknow—	
11th P.A.V.O. Cavalry	6 goals	15th Lancers "A"	4 goals
Central India Horse	1 goal	The Remnants	2 goals
Subalterns' Tournament, Meerut—		Country Life "Cup" Tournament, Lucknow—	
11th Hussars	11 goals	4th Hussars	9 goals
4th Hussars	3 goals	16th-6th Lancers "A"	8 goals
Autumn Tournament, Meerut—		Subsidiary Tournament, Lucknow—	
21st Brigade, R.F.A.	4 goals	16th-6th Lancers "B"	4 goals
11th Hussars "B"	1 goal	5th Fusiliers	2 goals
Subsidiary Tournament, Meerut—		Obaidullah Khan Cup Tournament, Bombay—	
6th Lancers "B"	4 goals	2nd Lancers	5 goals
6th Lancers "A"	Nil	Bombay Enthusiasts	2 goals
Indian Cavalry Tournament, Lahore—		Sir Pratap Singh Cup Tournament, Poona—	
Central India Horse	5 goals	Jodhpur State	10 goals
P.A.V.O. Cavalry	2 goals	2nd Lancers	3 goals
Berensford Cup Tournament, Simla—		Junior Tournament, Poona—	
Patiala "A"	9 goals	Governor of Bombay's Staff	6 goals
Snowdon	2 goals	2nd Lancers	3 goals
		Tradesmen's Cup Tournament, Rawalpindi—	
		P.A.V.O. Cavalry	10 goals
		18th K.E.O. Cavalry	5 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Rawalpindi—

1st Troops, R.H.A. 2 goals
11th Pack Battery 3 goals

Senior Tournament, Quetta—

Central India Horse 13 goals
Flotams 1 goal

Autumn Tournament, Quetta—

Snowdrivers 2 goals
Gunners 1 goal

Junior Tournament, Quetta—

Central India Horse "A" 5 goals
30th Lancers 4 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Quetta—

Staff College "A" 5 goals
Edias 3 goals

Cadet College Cup Tournament, Quetta—

21st Lancers 3 goals
Tintacks 2 goals

American Cup Tournament, Quetta—

Jodhpur State "A" 2 goals
Central India Horse (Machine Gun) 1 goal

Pyaggar Tournament, Naini Tal—

The Puritans 7 goals
The Crusaders 4 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Naini Tal—

The Gads 5 goals
The ICS 1 goal

Maharaja of Mysore's Cup Tournament, Bangalore—

Mysore Cavalry "A" 6 goals
20th Brigade, R.F.A. 3 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Bangalore—

2nd Sappers and Miners "A" 7 goals
Arkhan Bryans 4 goals

Junior Tournament, Bangalore—

Mysore Lancers "A" 2 goals
Mysore Lancers "B" 1 goal

Subsidiary Tournament, Bangalore—

Madras Sappers and Miners 12 goals
Wiltshire Regiment 3 goals

Captains' and Subalterns' Tournament, Secunderabad—

4th 7th Dragoon Guards 5 goals
3rd Cavalry 4 goals

Novices Tournament, Secunderabad—

4th-7th Dragoon Guards 3 goals
3rd Cavalry 1 goal

Coronation Cup Tournament, Pachmarhi—

Pogues 4 goals
Paternosters 3 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Pachmarhi—

Indore 5 goals
Scinde Horse 1 goal

Wallace Cup Tournament, Allahabad—

Allahabad Gymkhana 4 goals
71st Battery, R.F.A. 3 goals

Hyderabad Junior Tournament, Secunderabad—

Fatfeh Maldan Gymkhana "A" 6 goals
4th 7th Dragoon Guards Subalterns 2 goals

FOOTBALL

Durand Tournament, Simla—

1st Worcestershire Regiment 2 goals
2nd Essex Regiment *Nd*

Indian Football Association Shield Tournament, Calcutta—

Calcutta 2 goals
R.F.A. (Mhow) *Nd*

Calcutta Championship League—

Cameron Highlanders "A" First Division Champions

Cameron Highlanders "B" Second Division Champions

Rovers Tournament, Bombay—

Middlesex Regiment 2 goals
Royal Scots 1 goal

Harwood League, Bombay—

West Yorks Regiment "A" First Division Champions

West Yorks Regiment "B" Second Division Champions

Madras Gymkhana Tournament—

Ulster Rifles 1 goal
Green Howards *Nd*

Northern Command A S C B Tournament, Rawalpindi—

Lancashire Fusiliers 2 goals
"G" Divisional Signals 1 goal

Madras District Army Tournament, Bangalore—

Green Howards 2 goals
20th Brigade, R.F.A. 1 goal

Poona District British Troops Tournament, Poona—

2nd Middlesex Regiment 3 goals
11th Armoured Car Company *Nd*

Poona District Young Soldiers Tournament, Poona—

1st Royal Scots 2 goals
1st King's Shropshire Light Infantry *Nd*

Indian Territorial Tournament, Bangalore—
11th 3rd Madras Infantry 1 goal

12th 3rd Madras Infantry *Nd*

Cobb Army Y M C A Tournament, Bangalore—

45th Battery R.F.A. 3 goals
"C" Company Wiltshire Regiment *Nd*

All-India A.H. Tournament, Secunderabad—

Remnants 2 goals
Nizam's Regular Forces "A" *Nd*

All India Majed Tournament, Secunderabad—

Merry go-round "A" 2 goals
City High School "B" 1 goal

Abdul Gaffur Tournament, Secunderabad—

City College 1 goal
Afghan City Police *Nd*

Basadul Cup Tournament, Secunderabad—

St. Patrick's 1 goal
Wesleyan School "A" *Nd*

Kolkar Cup Tournament, Nagpur—

South Indians 2 goals
G.I.P. Railway *Nd*

CRICKET.

Quadrangular Tournament, Bombay —

Mahomedans beat the Hindus by 5 wickets

All-India Challenge Cup Tournament, Delhi—

B B and C I Railway (Bombay) beat the Rohtanara Club (Delhi) by 144 runs

All India Alwar Cup Tournament, Ajmer—

Indore beat Alwar State by an innings and 27 runs

Northern India Quadrangular Tournament

Lahore—

Mahomedans beat the Hindus by four wickets

Central Provinces Quadrangular Tournament

Nagpur—

Hindus beat the Parsis by 168 runs

Sind Pentangular Tournament Karachi—

Hindus beat the Parsis by six wickets

Kathiawar Quadrangular Tournament, Rajkot—

Halar team beat the Sorath team by 18 runs

Quadrangular Tournament Secunderabad—

Europeans beat the Parsis by 66 runs

Quadrangular Tournament Bangalore—

Bangalore Gymkhana beat Coorg and Mysore by 116 runs

Central India Cup Tournament, Gwalior—

Raja of Pahargarh's team beat the Gwalior Military Club by an innings and 91 runs

Gaikwar Cup Tournament, Baroda—

Baroda College beat the Bahaudin College (Junagadh) by eight wickets

Randle Cup Tournament, Baroda—

Prince Pratapsingh Raja's XI beat the Bank of Baroda (scratched)

Bahram-ud Dowlah Cup Tournament, Secunderabad—

11th Pioneers beat the 4th 7th Dragoon Guards by 69 runs

Hill Shield Tournament Rajkot—

Talukdari Glassia School (Wadhwan) beat the Bhavasinghi High School (Porbander) by 52 runs

Rahimtulla Cup Tournament, Bombay—

St Xavier's College beat the Elphinstone College by 143 runs

Nasik District Tournament, Nasik—

Police Training School beat the N W S Young Men's C C by 14 runs

GOLF

Indian Amateur Championship Calcutta —

G F D Forrester beat I J Anderson

Ladies Amateur Championship of India—

Mrs Evers beat Mrs Robertson

Nasik

Western India Championship and Challenge Shield—Collin beat Jeasop

Nasik Cup—Alexander

Military Cup—Captain Grant

Bombay Cup—Lynch Blosse

President's Cup—McLean

Handicap Cup—Spackman

Advan Cup—Sanderson

Handicap Foursomes—Collin and Sandeman

Silver Medal for Best Scratch Score—McLean

Peace Cup—Walker

Captain's Cup—Coleridge

Consolation Cup—Sansom

Ladies' Handicap Medal—Mrs Wanostrucht

Bombay Bangle—Mrs Butterworth beat Mrs Collin

Ladies' Foursomes—Mrs Collin and Mrs Butterworth beat Mrs Beaby and Miss Owen

Ladies' Silver Medal—Mrs. Butterworth

Mixed Pairs—Mrs Martin and Von Bock

Bombay

Golfers Cup—H E Robertson beat H E Cox

MacDonald Cup—J H Herd beat G C Thow

Bankers and Merchants Cup—Mackinnon Mackenzie and Co

St George's Medal—J Bullock

Poona

Gymkhana Championship Captain Prall beat Colonel McLeod

Governor's Prize—Colonel Palmer beat Captain Middleton

Lady Wilson's Prize—Mrs Ingalls beat Mrs Dexter Davison

W I T C Cup—Captain Prall

Leach and Weborny Cup—Captain A V D Jones

Senior Competition—Colonel W N McLeod

Junior Competition—Major Elliot

Dexter-Davison Cup—Indian Medical Service beat Police

Guilmarg.

Men's Amateur Championship of Northern India—Captain G N Martin beat D Johnstone

Ladies' Amateur Championship of Northern India—Mrs Fraser beat Mrs Robertson.

Srinagar Open Golf Cup—Captain Wilson beat General Charles Davis

Ootacamund

Southern India Men's Championship—R. B. Carriek beat S. G. Forbes

Southern India Ladies' Championship—Mrs Gannon beat Miss Hancock

Calcutta Cup—Mr White beat Mr Butler

Quetta

Staff College Cup—Major N. A. B. Baillie-Hamilton

Inter-Regimental Cup—Major Baillie-Hamilton and H. K. F. Wedderburn.

R. A. M. C. Cup—S. Ldr E. T. Leather

Mahabaleshwar

Governor's Cup—Wiles beat Hatch

Willingdon Salver—Mrs Cadell beat Mrs Kydd

Karachi

Merchants Cup—Karachi Port Trust

WRESTLING

Northern Command A. S. C. B. Championships—

Bantamweight—Sepoy Dya Ram beat Sepoy

Partab Singh

Lightweight—Sepoy Ramji Lal beat Sepoy

Bhoj Raj

Middleweight—Sepoy Bishen Singh beat Sepoy Babu Khan

Catchweight—Naik Ramji Lal beat Sepoy Mahomed Bux

YACHTING

R. B. Y. C. Regatta—

Gordon Bennett Cup—Mr E. McGregors ('Wendy')

Curzon Cup—Mr N. B. MacBeth's ('Puffin')
Vice-President's Cup—Colonel Gillespie's ('Sheila')

R. E. Officers Cup—Mrs Walcott's ('Turquoise')

Gordon Bennett-Lynstrake Cup—Mr C. N. Elch's ('Loon')

Bombay Town Cup—Mr J. McGregors ('Jenny Wren')

Captain Headlam's Cup—Mr F. Seymour-Williams ('Lestris')

Irene's Challenge Cup—Mr K. MacIver ('Valmai')

Wilmington Cup—H. M. S. 'Calros' Cutter

Lady Willingdon Salver—Mr I. L. Grant
'Isca'

Naimi Tal Y. C. Regatta—

Inter Club Races—Naimi Lal beat Bombay

LAWN TENNIS

Western India Championship Tournament, Bombay—

Men's Singles—C. Chundil beat R. A. Wagle

Men's Doubles—Rajaram Morari and R. A. Wagle beat J. A. D. Naoraji and H. I. Hoshi

Mixed Doubles—Miss S. R. D. Tata and J. A. D. Naoraji beat Mrs Row and R. A. Wagle

Ladies' Singles—Mrs McKenna beat Mrs Swinhoe

Bombay Presidency Hard Court Tournament—

Men's Singles—G. Perkins beat A. C. Pereira

Men's Doubles—R. S. Raja Iyer and N. B. Bhagvat beat N. F. Naoraji and A. R. Wadia

Mixed Doubles—Mrs Row and A. R. Wagle beat Mrs Clayton and Jeejeebhoy

Bengal Championship Tournament, Calcutta—

Men's Singles—G. Perkins beat S. Okamoto (Scratched)

Men's Doubles—Brooke Edward and Megata beat N. S. Iyer and G. M. Gregory

Mixed Doubles—Brooke Edward and Mrs Peacock beat S. Okamoto and Mrs. Graham

Ladies' Singles—Mrs Williams beat Mrs Graham

Southern India Amateur Championship Tournament, Madras—

Men's Singles—T. O. Singaravelu beat T. I. Balagopalam

Men's Doubles—C. Ramaswami and Venkataraman beat Nigel Jones and Elliot

Mixed Doubles—Mrs Gomperts and C. Ramaswami beat Mrs Burnett and Prasad

Ladies' Singles—Miss Kirkpatrick beat Miss Anson

Karachi Championship Tournament—

Men's Singles—R. D. England beat Hiranandani

Men's Doubles—Parrram and Bhojwani beat R. D. England and Hawkes

Mixed Doubles—Miss Beatty and Frost beat Mrs Stephens and Dickson

Ladies' Singles—Mrs Bailey

Simsa Championship Tournament—

Men's Singles—Jagat Mohan Lal beat Vikery

Men's Doubles—Jagat Mohan Lal and Bobbins beat Hartwell and Jukes

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Wright and Jagat Mohan Lal beat Mrs Norris and Captain Norris

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Mitchell beat Mrs. Walker
Army Championship Tournament, Peshawar—

Men's Singles—Captain L. Barclay beat Captain O'Callaghan

Kathiawar Championship Tournament, Rajkot—

Men's Doubles—Maganlal W. Vyas and Laxmishanker W. Vyas (Jamnagar) beat N. R. Green and Manlal (Jamnagar)

Dhulia Championship Tournament—

Men's Singles—M. S. Bhide beat Amrite

Men's Doubles—M. S. Bhide and Oak beat Farrel and Ramaswami

Quetta Open Tournament—

Men's Singles—Major Bernard beat Newton

Men's Doubles—Captain Ashton and White beat Major Bernard and Major Williams

Inter-Regimental Doubles—Major Bernard and Captain Barstow beat Colonel Wyatt and Captain Fenwick-Clennel

Mixed Doubles—Major Bernard and Mrs. Anderson beat Colonel Turner and Mrs. Bayley

Ladies' Doubles—Mrs. Anderson and Mrs. Furness beat Mrs. Myline and Mrs. Rainford Hannay

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Furness beat Mrs. Anderson

Blessington Open Handicap Tournament, Simla—

Men's Singles—Smith beat Rashid Ali Khan

Men's Doubles—Colonel Scott and Wing Commander Fowler beat Jagat Mohan Lal and Robbins

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Lumby and Major Stevenson beat Jagat Mohan Lal and Miss Freitas

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Lumby beat Mrs. Martin

Men's Doubles (Open)—Jagat Mohan Lal and Major Pott beat Captain Norris and Smith

All India Tournament, Bangalore—

Men's Singles—Rachappa beat Seetharam Iyengar

Men's Doubles—Rachappa and Seetharam Iyengar beat Captain Loganadam and Dr. Dominic

Mixed Doubles—Mr. and Mrs. Flanagan beat Mrs. Laver and Hias

Bangalore Open Tournament—

Men's Singles—Ramaswami beat Perkins.

Men's Doubles—Raja Iyer and Chandrasekhar beat Perkins and Ricketts

Mixed Doubles—Miss Austin and Kemble beat Mrs. Laver and Perkins

Ladies' Singles—Miss Jones beat Mrs. Ross

Open Hindu Tournament, Poona—

Men's Singles—Power beat Raja Iyer

Men's Doubles—Lele and Gadgil beat Raja Iyer and Subba Rao

Poona Gymkhana Open Tournament—

Men's Singles—A. C. Miller beat H. R. P. Hutchins

Men's Doubles—A. C. Miller and Chief of Miraj beat MacDonald and Robinson

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Dix Perkins and J. C. Ker beat Mrs. Clayton and Woodgate

Ladies' Doubles—Mrs. Monteath and Mrs. Power beat Mrs. Cahusac and Miss Lea Smith

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Clayton beat Mrs. Turner

F. Y. C. Open Tournament, Poona—

Men's Singles—Pereira beat Deodhar

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Critchley beat M. Karmarkar

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Brown and Jaxton beat Mrs. Thompson and Jeejeebhoy

Men's Doubles—Gore and Khare beat Jeejeebhoy and Chavan

Mount Abu Tournament—

Men's Singles—Rogers beat Colonel Twiss

Men's Doubles—Colonel O'Brien and Colonel Twiss beat Martin and Blood

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Cotterworth and Major McNab beat Miss Brook Taylor and Jhonston

Ladies' Doubles—Mrs. Homer and Mrs. Cotterworth beat Mrs. Lynch Bloese and Miss Brooke Taylor

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Lynch Bloese beat Miss Brooke Taylor

Junagad Tournament—

Men's Singles—B. B. Mehta beat A. M. Joshi

Men's Doubles—Y. J. Rozario and J. O. Dias beat A. J. Mankad and B. B. Chhaya

Under Tournament, Bombay—

Men's Doubles—Raja Iyer and Desai beat Perkins and Kohloff

South Club Tournament, Calcutta—

Men's Singles—S. Okamoto beat Robson

Delhi Local Tournament, Delhi—

Men's Handicap Singles—Cleophas beat Baro Pershad

Men's Handicap Doubles—Tara Chand and Har Chand beat Ripusudan Singh and Mitra

Mixed Handicap Doubles—Mr. and Mrs. Russell beat Wilkins and Miss McKenna

Men's Singles—Bishamber Dayal W. O. Hari Ram

Men's Doubles—Grindal and Wilkins beat Norris and Cleophas

HOCKEY

All-India Tournament Allahabad —		All India Banwari Lal Cup Tournament Lucknow —	
Allahabad Auxiliary Force	2 goals	Aligarh Muslim University	—
Queen's Regiment	1 goal	Lucknow University	—
Aga Khan Tournament Bombay—		Poona Aga Khan Tournament Poona—	
B B & C I Railway Ajmer	8 goals	Poona Rifles	4 goals
5th Bombay Brigade Royal Artillery	1 goal	Middlesex Regiment	2
Belgion Tournament Calcutta—		Saragarh Durbar Cup Tournament Nagpur —	
Calcutta	2 goals	Bilaspur Recreation Club	1 goal
Jamalpur Apprentices	1 goal	Rajpur Moslems	Nu
Madras Tournament Madras—		Narsingiri Tournament Secunderabad —	
Madras Cricket Club	2 goals	Coronation A team	1 goal
Bangalore Indians	1 goal	Qumar Club	Nu
All India Auxiliary Force Tournament Allahabad —		Futtee Maidan Tournament Secunderabad —	
B B & C I Railway	3 goals	Coronation	4 goals
G I P Railway	2	Salfabad Combined	Nu
Anderson Cup Tournament Rawalpindi—		Hyderabad Tournament Hyderabad —	
North Western Railway	4 goals	Nizam College A team	2 goal
Sherwood Foresters	2	Nizam College B team	Nu
A B C B Tournament Hawalpindi—		British Army Tournament Bangalore —	
2nd 15th Punjab	3 goals	Royal Engineers	2 goals
1st-16th Punjab	2	St Joseph's College A team	Nu
Mercantile and Trades Tournament Delhi —		Police Bileki Tournament Bangalore —	
Ajmer Loco Sports Club	5 goals	2nd Madras Sappers and Miners	1 goal
Delhi Nondescripts	1 goal	Bangalore Indians A team	Nu
Jamir Cup Tournament Delhi—		Territorials Tournament Bangalore —	
Railway Club Saharanpur	1 goal	11th Battalion 3rd Madras Regiment	2 goals
J C C Khalsa Club Patiala	Nu	12th Battalion 3rd Madras Regiment	1 goal
All India Sindia Cup Tournament Gwalior —		Madras District Tournament (British) Bangalore—	
Ajmer Loco Sports Club	3 goals	Green Howards	3 goals
Aligarh Muslim University	Nu	20th Bde R F A	Nu
All India Clarity Tournament Allahabad —		Madras District Tournament (Indian) Bangalore —	
Ajmer	2 goals	Battray's Sikhs	1 goal
Aligarh	Nu	Madras Sappers and Miners	Nu
(P. Police Tournament Allahabad —		Temple Cup Tournament Jamshedpur —	
Jubbulpore Police	2 goals	Bachelor's Athletic Club	4 goals
Amraoti Police	Nu	Electrical Sporting Club	2
Survey of India Cup Tournament Mussoorie —		Sassoon Cup Tournament Bauror —	
St George's College A team	8 goals	Infantry	1 goal
St George's College C team	2	Police Training Camp	Nu

BOXING

All India Civil and Military Tournament Delhi —

- Flyweight—Lee Cpl Neville (Worcesters) beat Pte White (Devons)
 Bantamweight—Lee Cpl Mitchell (Seaforths) beat Bombardier Fowler (R F A)
 Lightweight—Pte Warren (Devons) beat Pte Gorman (Seaforths)
 Welterweight—Trooper Hunt (11th Hussars) beat Pte Dunn (Devons)
 Middleweight—Pte Williams (Worcesters) beat Pte White (Devons)

Best Loser's Cup—Lee Cpl Horton (Worcesters)

United Provinces Championship Tournament—

- Open Welterweight—Lance-Corporal Sole (Queen's Royal Regiment) beat Jarrett (Queen's Royal Regiment)
 Boys Championship (5st to 6st)—Boy Samuel (St Joseph's) beat Boy Bowen (St Joseph's)
 Boys Championship (6½st to 7½st)—Boy

Briggs (St Joseph's) beat Boy Franklin (St Cecilia's)
Boys' Championship (71st to 84th) Bo Light (Queen's Royal Regiment) beat Bo Briggs (St Joseph's)

Northern Command A S C. B. Championship Tournament—

Officers' Featherweight—Lieut Taunton (58th Regiment) beat Lieut Stephens (52nd Light Infantry)
Officers' Lightweight—Lieut Stannus (Lancashire Fusiliers) beat Lieut Wall (K R R C.)
Officers' Welterweight—Lieut Long (1st/6th Gurkhas) beat Lieut Dean (D C M.)
Officers' Middweight—Lieut Harrison (R W F) beat Lieut Weatherall (58th Regiment)
Officers' Heavyweight—Lieut Osborne (K R R C.) beat Lieut Glenn (Lancashire Fusiliers)
Flyweight—Lieut Corporal Riley (58th Regiment) beat Badsma Galbraith (R W F)
Featherweight—Lieut Corporal Mitchell (4th) beat Fusilier Sansum (Royal Scots Fusiliers)
Bantamweight—Bombardier Fowler (1st M B R G A.) beat Fusilier Evans (R W F)
Lightweight—Fusilier Newell (Lancashire Fusiliers) beat Staff Sergt Lynn (I A S C.)
Welterweight—Bombardier Scott (24th Pde R F A.) beat Lieut Corporal Griffith (R W F)

Middweight—Fusilier Edwards (R W F) beat Lieut Corporal Bee (Foresters)
Light-heavyweight—Lieut Corporal Rawten (Seaforth's) beat Sergt Lloyd (37th Battery R F A.)
Heavyweight—Lieut Corporal Briggs (Seaforth's) beat Sergt Hunter (24th Pde R F A.)

Madras District (Military) Tournament—

Flyweight—Rifeman Rice (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Corporal Aldridge (Green Howards)
Featherweight—Pte Boissell (2nd Wiltshires) beat Corporal McKnight (Royal Ulster Rifles)
Bantamweight—Rifeman Carnduff (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Corporal Hodgson (Green Howards)
Lightweight—Rifeman Johnston (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Trumpeter Conner (5th/6th Dragoons)
Welterweight—Trumpeter Parrott (5th/6th Dragoons) beat Trumpeter Gentry (5th/6th Dragoons)
Middweight—Corporal Tribe (5th/6th Dragoons) beat Corporal Hale (5th/6th Dragoons)
Light Heavyweight—Rifeman MacMillan (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Sergt Griffiths (Green Howards)
Heavyweight—Sergt Barton (5th/6th Dragoons) beat Sergt Moore (Royal Engineers)

BOATING

Royal Connaught Boat Club Regatta Poona—
Service Fours (½ mile)—4th 2nd Pioneer beat M A M C by 2½ lengths Time—4 mins 42 secs
Tub Fours (½ mile)—Royal Engineers beat Army Signal School by 2½ lengths Time—3 mins 20½ secs
Senior Pairs (½ mile)—Oxford (W Dunlop and C S W Rayner) beat R A M C (R A Anderson and C H C Byrne) by ½ length Time—3 mins 42½ secs

Junior Sculls (½ mile)—C L Mackay beat C A Gray by 3 ft Time—Not taken

Mixed Double Sculls (½ mile)—Mrs McCleod and Colonel H Ross beat Major A S M and Mrs Winder by 1 length Time—1 min 56 secs

Merchants' and Bankers Regatta Madras—

Challenge 1000s—Messrs Benny and Co beat Messrs Parry and Co by 1½ length Time—3 mins 14 secs

MOTOR CYCLING

Bombay M C C Speed Trials—

Unlimited Solo (Bombay Speed Champion ship)—S A Palkhiwalla (Indian)
600 c c Solo—M W R Sell (Sunbeam)
350 c c Solo—W G Garriock (Dot Bradshaw)
600 c c Sidecars—M W R Sell (Sunbeam)

Unlimited Sidecars—A Wozencroft (Harley Davidson)

Note—S A Palkhiwalla's 1206 c c Indian beat all known records for this country by covering the half mile course, from a flying start at an average speed of 76.92 miles per hour

RIFLE SHOOTING

S I R A Meeting—

S I R A Championship (British)—Sergeant Pattison, North Staffordshire Regiment
Bangalore Cup—G I P Railway Battalion (A F I)
N C O's Cup—1st Battalion M & S M Ry Regiment (A F I)
Cater Prize—Kolar Gold Field Battalion (A F I)

S I R A Championship (Indian)—Lieut Naik Simon 1st 3rd Madras Regiment
Cubbon Cup—Mysore Landais

Indian Officers Cup—2nd Q V O Madras Sappers and Miners
Indian N O O's Cup—2nd/1st Madras Pioneer

European Schools Challenge Shield—
Lawrence Royal Military School, Benawar, beat Lawrence School, Ghora Gali

The Press.

The newspaper Press in India is an essentially English institution and was introduced soon after the task of organising the administration was seriously taken in hand by the English in Bengal. In 1773 was passed the Regulating Act creating the Governor-Generalship and the Supreme Court in Bengal and within seven years at the end of the same decade, the first newspaper was started in Calcutta by an Englishman in January 1780. Exactly a century and a third has elapsed since, not a very long period certainly, a period almost measured by the life of a single news paper, *The Times*, which came into existence only five years later in 1785, but then the period of British supremacy is not much longer having commenced at Plassey, only twenty three years earlier Bombay followed Calcutta closely, and Madras did not lag much behind. In 1789 the first Bombay newspaper appeared, *The Bombay Herald*, followed next year by *The Bombay Courier*, a paper now represented by *The Times of India* with which it was amalgamated in 1861. In Bombay the advent of the press may be said to have followed the British occupation of the island much later than was the case in Calcutta. In Calcutta the English were on sufferance before Plassey, but in Bombay they were absolute masters after 1666, and it is somewhat strange that no Englishman should have thought of starting a newspaper during all those hundred and twenty-five years before the actual advent of *The Herald*.

The first newspaper was called *The Bengal Gazette* which is better known from the name of its founder as *Hicky's Gazette* or *Journal*. Hicky like most pioneers had to suffer for his enterprising spirit, though the fault was entirely his own, as he made his paper a medium of publishing gross scandal, and he and his journal disappeared from public view in 1782. Several journals rapidly followed Hicky's, though they did not fortunately copy its bad example. *The Indian Gazette* had a career of over half a century, when in 1833 it was merged into the *Bengal Harbinger*, which came into existence only a little later, and both are now represented by *The Indian Daily News* with which they were amalgamated in 1866. No fewer than five papers followed in as many years, the *Bengal Gazette* of 1780 and one of those, *The Calcutta Gazette*, started in February 1784, under the avowed patronage of Government, flourishes still as the official gazette of the Bengal Government.

In 1821 a syndicate of European merchants and officials commenced the publication of *John Bull in the East*, a daily paper which was intended to reflect Tory opinion in India and set an example to the Press generally in the matter of moderation and restraint. The name of this journal was altered to *The Englishman* by the famous Stockholder in 1836.

From its commencement the press was jealously watched by the authorities, who put serious restraints upon its independence and pursued a policy of discouragement and

rigorous control. Government objected to news of apparently the most trivial character affecting its servants. From 1791 to 1799 several editors were deported to Europe without trial and on short notice, whilst several more were censured and had to apologise. At the commencement of the rule of Wellesley Government promulgated stringent rules for the public press and instituted an official censor to whom everything was to be submitted before publication, the penalty for offending against these rules to be immediate deportation. These regulations continued in force till the time of the Marquis of Hastings who in 1818 abolished the censorship and substituted milder rules.

This change proved beneficial to the status of the press, for henceforward self-respecting and able men began slowly but steadily to join the ranks of journalism, which had till then been considered a low profession. Slick Buckingham, one of the ablest and best known of Anglo-Indian journalists of those days availed himself of this comparative freedom to criticise the authorities, and under the short administration of Adam, a civilian who temporarily occupied Hastings place, he was deported under rules specially passed. But Lord Amherst and still more Lord William Bentinck were persons of broad and liberal views, and under them the press was left practically free, though there existed certain regulations which were not enforced, though Lord Clare who was Governor of Bombay from 1831 to 1835 once strongly but in vain urged the latter to enforce them. Metcalfe who succeeded for a brief period Bentinck, removed even those regulations, and brought about what is called the emancipation of the press in India in 1835, which was the beginning of a new era in the history of the Indian press. Among papers that came into being, was the *Bombay Times* which was started towards the close of 1838 by the leading merchants of Bombay, and which in 1861 changed its name to the *Times of India*. *The Bombay Gazette* founded in 1791 ceased publication in 1914.

The liberal spirit in which Lord Hastings had begun to deal with the press led not only to the improvement in the tone and status of the Anglo-Indian press, but also to the rise of the Native or Indian Press. The first news paper in any Indian language was the *Samachar Durpan* started by the famous Serampore Missionaries Ward, Carey and Marshman in 1818 in Bengali, and it received encouragement from Hastings who allowed it to circulate through the post office at one-fourth the usual rates. This was followed in 1822 by a purely native paper in Bombay called the *Bombay Samachar* which still exists, and thus was laid the foundation of the Native Indian Press which at the present day is by far the largest part of the press in India, numbering over 650 papers.

From 1835 to the Mutiny the press spread to other cities like Delhi, Agra, Gwalior, and even Lahore, whereas formerly it was chiefly confined to the Presidency towns, Darsing

the Mutiny his freedom had to be temporarily controlled by the Gagging Act which Canning passed in June 1857 on account of the license of a very few papers, and owing still more to the fears of its circulating intelligence which might be prejudicial to public interests. The Act was passed only for a year at the end of which the press was once more free.

On India passing to the Crown in 1858, an era of prosperity and progress opened for the whole country in which the press participated. There were 19 Anglo-Indian papers at the beginning of this period in 1858 and 25 Native papers and the circulation of all was very small. The number of the former did not show a great rise in the next generation but the rise in

influence and also circulation was satisfactory. Famous journalists like Robert Kalich, James Maclean and Harrie Mookerji flourished in this generation. The *Civil and Military Gazette* was originally published in Simla as a weekly paper, the first issue being dated June 1872. Prior to and in the days of the Mutiny the most famous paper in Northern India was the *Mofussil*, originally published at Meerut, but afterwards at Agra and then at Ambala. After a lively existence for a few years in Simla the *Civil and Military Gazette* acquired and incorporated the *Mofussil*, and in 1876 the office of the paper was transferred from Simla to Lahore, and the *Gazette* began to be published daily.

INDIAN PRESS LAW

Before 1835 all printing of books and papers was subject to licence by the Governor-General in Council, and the licences were issued or refused at the discretion of Government. Act XI of 1835 repealed the old Regulations and merely required registration of the printer and made a few minor requirements. That Act was replaced in 1867 by the present Press and Registration of Books Act, and, except for an Act which was in force for one year during the Mutiny, there was no further legislation directly affecting the Press until 1878 when the Vernacular Press Act was passed. That Act was repealed during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon in 1882. From that date until 1907 Government made no attempt to interfere directly with the liberty of the Press, the growth of sedition being dealt with in other ways by the passing in 1898 of section 124A of the Penal Code in its present form, which had been originally enacted in 1870, and by the introduction into the Penal Code of section 153A and into the Criminal Procedure Code of section 108. There were a certain number of prosecutions under those sections up to 1907, but the dissemination of sedition through the Press continued. In 1908 the Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed which dealt with papers inciting to murder or to acts of violence. This Act failed to have the desired effect.

The Indian Press Act, 1910, was a measure of wider scope, the main object of which was to ensure that the Indian press generally should be kept within the limits of legitimate discussion.

The Act deals, not only with incitements to murder and acts of violence, but also with other specified classes of published matter, including any words or signs tending to seduce soldiers or sailors from their allegiance or duty, to bring into hatred or contempt the British Government, any Native Prince, or any section of His Majesty's subjects in India, or to intimidate public servants or private individuals.

The different sections of the Act have in view (i) control over presses and means of publication, (ii) control over publishers of newspapers, (iii) control over the importation into British India and the transmission by the post of objectionable matter, (iv) the suppression of seditious or objectionable newspapers, books, or other documents wherever found.

Repeal of Press Legislation.—By the autumn of 1917 the Government of India had begun to consider the desirability of modifying at least one section of the Press Act to which great exception had been taken on account of the wide powers that it gave. Finally, after more than once consulting Local Governments, a Committee was appointed in February 1921 after a debate in the Legislative Assembly, to examine the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867, and the Indian Press Act, 1910, and report what modifications were required in the existing law. That Committee made an unanimous report in July 1921, recommending:—

(1) The Press Act should be repealed.
(2) The Newspaper Incitements to Offences Act should be repealed.

(3) The Press and Registration of Books Act and the Post Office Act should be amended where necessary to meet the conclusion noted below. (a) The name of the editor should be inscribed on every issue of a newspaper and the editor should be subject to the same liabilities as the printer and publisher, as regards criminal and civil responsibilities. (b) any person registering under the Press and Registration of Books Act should be a major as defined by the Indian Majority Act, (c) local Governments should retain the power of confiscating openly seditious leaflets, subject to the owner of the press or any other person aggrieved being able to protest before a court and challenge the seizure of such document, in which case the local Government ordering the confiscation should be called upon to prove the seditious character of the documents. The powers conferred by Sections 13 to 15 of the Press Act should be retained. Customs and Postal officers being empowered to seize seditious literature within the meaning of Section 124A of the I P O subject to review on the part of the local Government and challenge by any persons interested in the courts, (e) any person challenging the orders of Government should do so in the local High Court, (f) the term of imprisonment prescribed in Sections 13, 14 and 15 of the Press and Registration of Books Act should be reduced to six months, (g) the provisions of Section 16 of the Press Act should be reproduced in the Press and Registration of Books Act.

Effect was given to these recommendations during the year 1923.

Press Association of India.—At the end of 1915 this Association was formed in Bombay. According to the articles of constitution "Its objects shall be to protect the press of the country by all lawful means from arbitrary laws and their administration, from all attempts of the Legislature to encroach on its liberty or of the executive authorities

to interfere with the free exercise of their calling by journalists and press proprietors, and for all other purposes of mutual help and protection which may be deemed advisable from time to time." Members pay a minimum subscription of Rs. 10 annually. The affairs of the Association are managed by a Council.

Number of Printing Presses at Work, and Number of Newspapers, Periodicals, and Books Published.

Provinces.	Printing Presses	Newspapers	Periodi- cals	Books.		
				In English or other European Languages.	In Indian Languages (Vernacular and Classical) or in more than one Language.	
Madras	954	804	665	634	2,349	
Bombay	697	211	765	167	1,510	
Bengal ..	829	144	241	581	2,342	
United Provinces	618	114	248	174	2,285	
Punjab	292	112	158	158	1,789	
Burma	243	66	109	16	196	
Bihar and Orissa	146	35	34	93	761	
Central Provinces and Berar	132	58	4	21	171	
Assam	38	15	7	1	43	
North-West Frontier Province	26	1	2			
Ajmer-Merwara	16	4	3	6	52	
Coorg	2					
Delhi	90	33	16	15	867	
Total, 1921-22	4,082	1,094	2 252	1,866	11,807	
Totals	1920-21	3,795	1 017	2 207	1,690	10,106
	1919-20	3,371	941	2,152	2,019	9,162
	1918-19	3,146	883	2,049	2,092	9,687
	1917-16	3 155	838	1,927	1,916	10,772
	1916-17	3,101	805	1 900	1,219	11,140
	1915-16	3,327	857	2,927	1,541	10,653
	1914-15	3,102	847	2,982	1,602	11,477
	1913-14	3,020	827	2,846	1,477	10,712
1912-13	2,823	673	2,795	1,602	9,651	

Newspapers and News Agencies registered under the Press Rules and arranged alphabetically according to Station where they are published and situated.

NOTE.—News Agencies are distinguished by an asterisk

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Agra	{ Agra Akbbar Jain Path Pradarshak Sanskhyab Karak	
	{ Gujarati Punch Political Bhomiyo	Sundays. Thursdays.
Ahmedabad	{ Praja Bandhu Navajivan Young India	Saturdays.
Ajmer	Navin Bajsthan	
Akola, Berar	Praja Paksha	Saturdays.
Akyab	Arakan News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Aligarh	Aligarh Institute Gazette	Wednesdays.
	{ Abhyudaya Associated Press Bhavikhya	
Allahabad	{ Hindustan Review Democrat Leader	On first of every month. Daily except Mondays
	{ Navayug Pioneer Renter & Telegram Company Ltd	Daily
Allahabad Katra	Stri Dharam Shikshak	Monthly
Amraoti	{ Bharat Udaya	Wednesdays
	{ Daily Vakil Akali to Pardesi	Daily
Amritsar	{ Punjab Press Bureau Gurumukhi Daily Khalsa	.
	{ Gurumukhi Daily Pardesi Khalsa Dard	Daily
Anrohs	Ittihad	Saturdays
Asansol	Ratnakar	Sundays.
Bagalkot	Navina Bharat	
Bagarhat	Jagaran	Sundays
Bangalore	{ Daily Post Kamru-ul-Akhbar Truth	Daily Mondays and Thursdays. Mondays and Thursdays
Bariel	Bariel Hitaish	Sundays.

Sections.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Baroda	{ Jagriti Shree Sayaji Vijaya	Weekly Thursdays.
Bassein, Burma	Bassein News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Beawar . . .	Vyaparik Daily Report	..
Belgaum	{ Belgaum Samachar Chaitanya	Mondays.
Benares City .	{ Awasi Khalk Bharat Jiwan Hindi Kesari Kashi Temperance Samachar Mahamandal Magazine Trishul	Every Wednesday Sundays. Wednesdays. Monthly Monthly
Bhavnagar	{ Daily Market Report Jain Jaindham	Saturdays. Tuesdays.
Bijapur . . .	Karnatak Valbhav	Saturdays.
Bombay	{ Advocate of India Akhbar-i Islam Akhbar-i Soudagar Associated Press * Balaram Sporting News Bharat Bombay Chronicle Bombay Samachar Breul Co's Market Report Catholic Examiner Commercial Sporting News Dnyana Prakash Evening News of India Gujarati Hindusthan and Akhbar-i Soda- gar Indian Daily Mail Indian Industries and Power Indian Social Reformer Jam-e-Jamshed . Kaiser-i Hind Khilafat Daily . Khilafat Bulletin .. . Lakshmi Sporting News Lokmanya Mauj Mudra Rangar .. . Muslim Herald .. . Nava Kai .. .	Daily. Daily Daily, except on Sundays. Daily Daily Saturdays Daily Saturdays. Daily On the 15th of each month Saturdays Daily, except Saturday Saturdays. Daily, except Tuesday Wednesdays. Sundays. Daily Daily, except Monday

stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Bombay—cont'd	Nyayadarshak	
	Nusrat
	O Amigo do Gomo	Fridays.
	O Anglo-Lusitano ..	Saturdays.
	East Gofar, Parsi and Praja Mitra	Daily
	Railway Times	Fridays.
	Reuter's Indian Journal	Daily
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Ltd	
	Rashmikh
	Saifee Racing Chronicle	
	Sanj Vartaman	Daily, except Sundays
	Satya Mitra	Daily and Weekly
	Shri Venkateshwar Samachar	Fridays.
Bowringpet	Sports Bulletin	. . .
	Times of India	Daily †
	Times of India Illustrated Weekly	Sundays
Budaon .	Voice of India	Daily
	Kolar Gold Fields News	Tuesdays.
	Akhbar Zulqarnain	6th, 18th, 30th and 31st of every month.
Calcutta	A Vox do Povo	Saturdays.
	Advocate	Daily
	Alkhamal	
	Amrita Bazar Patrika	Daily
	Ananda Bazar Patrika	
	Asrijadid	
	Associated Press *	
	Bangabasi	Wednesdays.
	Basumatl	Daily
	Bengalee	Daily, except Sundays.
Calcutta	Bhagavan Gandhi	
	Bharata Mitra	Thursdays.
	Bureau-de-World's News	
	Business World	Monthly
	Calcutta Samachar	Daily
	Capital	Thursdays.
	Catholic Herald of India	Tuesdays.
	Collegian	Bi-monthly
	Commerce	
	Dowjadd	

† With The Times of India there are published every Wednesday, a Supplement of Indian Motoring and every Friday, an Indian Engineering Supplement.

Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to Press.
Calcutta - <i>contd</i>	Empire (Calcutta Evening News)	Daily, except Sundays.
	Englishman	Daily
	Forward	Daily
	Guardian	Fridays.
	Hindu Patriot	Daily, except Saturdays.
	Hindusthan	
	Hitebadi	Wednesdays.
	Indian and Eastern Engineer	14th of each month.
	Indian Daily News	Daily, except Sundays.
	Indian Engineering	Thursdays.
	Indian Express	Once a month
	Indian Mirror	Daily
	Indian News Agency	
	Indian Planters' Gazette	Saturdays.
	Industry	Monthly
	Inqilab-i Zamana	
	Liberty	
	Market Intelligence	Daily
	Musselman	Thursdays.
	Navayug	
	Nayak	Daily
	Prakash	
	Railways	15th and last day of every month
	Rayat Bhandu	
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited	
	Sanjibani	Wednesdays.
	Samay	Wednesdays.
	Sanyavadi	
	Servant	Daily
	statesman	
	Swatantra	Daily
	Swarnaj	
	Telegraph	
	United Press Syndicate *	
	Vishwamitra	Daily
	Vyapar	
	Young Men of India	Monthly
	World Peace	
	Samana	
Calicut	Kerala Sanchari	Wednesdays.
	Malabar Journal	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Manorama	
	Vithavadi	
	West Coast Reformer	Daily
	West Coast Spectator	Sundays and Thursdays.
		Wednesdays and Saturdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press
Cawnpore	Asad Cawnpore Journal	Wednesdays. Daily
	Daily Vartaman Hindi Daily and Weekly Paper	
	Hurriat Prabha	Monthly
	Pratap Prabha	Saturdays.
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited Kamans	25th day of every month.
Chandernagore	Probartak	31 monthly
Chindwara	Lokmitra	
Chinsurah	Education Gazette	Tuesdays
Chittagong	Jyoti	Wednesdays
Cochin	Cochin Argus Cochin News Agency	Saturdays.
	Malabar Herald	Saturdays.
Cochin Mattancherry	Malabar Islam	
Cocanada ..	Ravi	Thursdays
	Ceylon Catholic Messenger Ceylon Daily News	Tuesdays and Fridays. Daily
	Ceylonese Ceylon Independent	Daily Daily
	Ceylon Morning Leader Ceylon Observer	Daily Daily
	Dinakara Prakasa	Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays
Colombo ..	Dinamina Dravida Mitran	Daily, except Sundays. Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Gnanartha Pradipaya Islam Mitthiran	Mondays and Thursdays Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Lakmina People	Daily except Sunday Daily
	Sarasavi Sandarasa Times of Ceylon	Tuesdays and Fridays Daily
	Nihar	Mondays.
Coutal ..	Utkal Deepika	.. Fridays.
Cuttack .	Indian Sunday Journal	.. Monthly
Dacca	Dacca Gazette Dacca Prakash	.. Mondays Sundays.
	Herald	.. Daily.

Stations	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Darjeeling	Darjeeling Visitor and Advertiser	Mondays.
	Alaman Arjun	
	Asa Associated Press	
	Daily Congress Daily Ralyat	Daily
	General News Agency and Book Depot.	Daily
	General News Bhimaran ..	Daily
	Hindustan	
	Indian News Agency	Weekly
	Maheswari (Hindi)	
Delhi	Mail Trading Morning Post	Monthly Daily, except Sundays
	National News Agency Quam	Weekly
	Sabha Taj	
	Tamadun Vijaya	Monthly Saturdays
	Weekly Hindi Paper Weekly Moballig	
	Dharwarrit Karnatakavritta and Dhananlaya	Wednesdays. Tuesdays
Dhruwa	Karm Veer	
	Raja Hanna . .	Daily
	Vijaya . .	
Dhule	Khandesh Valbhav .	Fridays.
Dibrugarh ..	Times of Assam .	Fridays.
Gaya ..	Bihar Advocate and Kayastha Messenger	Sundays.
Gorakhpur	Swadesh .	
Guntur .	Deshabhimani	Daily.
Howrah ..	Biva Duta	Daily
Hyderabad, Deccan	Musheer-i Deccan . .	Daily
	Sahita-i-Buzana	Daily
	Uman Gazette	Daily
	Bharatvasi Hindu .. .	Daily
Hyderabad, Sind .	Musafir Sind Journal . . .	Saturdays. Wednesdays.
	Sind Mail Sindvasi .	Daily. Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Jaffna	Ceylon Patriot and Weekly Advertiser Jaffna Catholic Guardian Sithia Veda Pathukavalan Vannivilan Jaffna Native Opinion	Tuesdays. Saturday Mornings Fortnightly Fortnightly
Jaffna (Vannarponnai)	Hindu Organ	Wednesdays
Jalgaon (Khandesh)	Pragatik	
Jhansi	Free India Sahas	
Jubbulpore	India Sunday School Journal Karmaveer Taj	Third Thursday of every month
	Alwahid Bharat	
	Daily Gazette New Times	Daily Daily
Karachi	Parsi Sanzar Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited. Rozana Bazar	Saturdays ...
	Sind Observer .. Sind Sudhar ..	Daily. Wednesdays and Saturdays, Saturdays.
Kanpur, Dehra Dun	Masahir-i-Jadid	Monthly
Karnal Kudi	Dhara Vyala Ootran	
Khulna ..	Khulna Basal ..	Saturdays.
Kolhapur City	Vidyavilas	Fridays.
Kottayam	Kerala Varazhi Malayala Manorama Naxrani Deepika ..	Tuesdays and Fridays Wednesdays and Saturdays, Tuesdays.
Kumta	Kanara News Kanara Leader	
	Akal Akhbar-i-Am Associated Press * Bande Mataram Civil and Military Gazette Congress Publicity Bureau	Daily. Daily (Sundays excepted).
Lahore	Daily Milap Daily Updeshak Daily Urdu Itifag Daily Zamindar Desh	Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Lahore—contd	Haq	Fridays.
	Kesari	
	Liberal ..	Sundays
	Muslim Outlook	Daily
	Paigham-i-Billah Fath	Sundays and Wednesdays.
	Pratap Rajput Gazette	1st, 8th 16th and 24th of every month.
	Router's Telegram Company, Limited Scientific World Siyasat	
	Sudarsan Tribune	Daily, except Sundays.
	N W Railway Union Gazette Watan	Weekly Thursdays.
	Khairkhah	Saturdays.
Larkana	Larkana Gazette	Fridays.
	Advocate Anand	Wednesdays and Saturdays Thursdays.
	Daily Hamdam Hindusthani	Daily
Lucknow ..	Indian Daily Telegraph Indian Witness	Daily Wednesdays
	Kaukab-i-Hind Lucknow Times	Wednesdays.
	Muslim Gazette Oudh Akhbar	Tuesdays. Daily, except Sundays.
	Al-Masnun Andhra Patrika	On the first of every month Tuesdays.
	Anglo-Indian Associated Press	Thursdays.
	Azadhind Catholic Leader	
	Daily Express Desabaktan	Daily, except Saturdays. Daily
	Hindu Indian Railway Journal	Daily 15th of every month.
	Jarida-i-Rongar	Saturdays.
	Justice Law Times	Daily Saturdays.
Madras ..	Madras Mail	Daily.
	Madras Times	Daily

Station.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Madras—contd	Muhammadian Mukhbir-i-Deccan	Mondays and Thursdays Wednesdays
	Nyayadipta New India	Daily
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Ltd.	.
	Sharnahul Akhbar	Mondays
	Swadesa Mitran Swarajya	Daily
Madura	South Indian Mail	Mondays.
Mandalay	Upper Burma Gazette	Daily
Margao (Goa)	A Terra Nodias Ultramar	Wednesdays and Saturdays, Mondays, Mondays and Fridays.
Mattancheri ..	Chakravarthi	Saturdays.
Meerut	Roznama	Quam
Mhow	Satyarth Patrika	Thursdays
Mirpurkhas	Mirpurkhas Gazette	Wednesdays.
Mirpur City	Khichri Samachar	Saturdays.
Moulmein	Moulmein Advertiser	Daily
Mount Road, Madras	Hindu	Daily, except Sundays.
Mumoorie	Mumoorie Times	Thursdays.
Muttra	Jain Gazette	Mondays
Muvattupusha	Kerala Dheepika	Saturdays
Mymensingh	Charu Minir	Tuesdays.
Nagercoil	Travancore Times	Tuesdays.
Nagpur	Deaha-Sewak Hitavada Maharashtra Marwadi	Mondays. Tuesdays.
	Pranavir Samaj Sewak Sankalpa	Daily
	Sankalpa Mahal Young Patriot	Fridays Sundays
	Naini Tal Gazette	Wednesdays.
Naini Tal .		
Nova Goa .	Diario de Noite Heraldo	Daily Daily, except Mondays;
	O'Debate O'Heraldo	Mondays. Daily, except Sundays and holidays.
	South of India Observer and Nil- giri News. Nilgiri Times	Daily issue except Sundays.
Ootacamund		.

Stations.	Time in full.	Day of going to Press
Oral .	Utseh	Thursdays
Pandharpur	Pandhari Mitra	Sundays.
Panjin, Gos ..	O'Orente	Saturdays.
Parur .	Uttara Tharaka	Saturdays
Patna	{ Behar Herald Express Searchlight	Saturdays Daily Saturdays
Pen	Kolaba Samachar	7 days
Peshawar ..	Peshawar Daily News	Daily
Poona .. .	{ Deccan Herald Dnyana Prakash Kosari	Daily Daily, except Mondays Tuesdays
	{ Loksaengraha Maharatta Motee Sporting News War Cry	Daily Sundays. Sundays
Poona City	{ Satyagrahee Servant of India	Weekly
Quadian (via Batala)	{ Alfaisal Alhakam Alfaroq Nur Review of Religions (in English) Do (in Urdu)	Bi-Weekly Weekly Weekly Fortnightly Monthly Monthly
Quetta ..	{ Baluchistan Gazette Baluchistan Herald Daily Bulletin Quetta News War Bulletin	Wednesdays and Saturdays Daily Daily
Quilon .	{ Desabhimani Malayali	Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Kathiawar Opinion	
Rajkot .	Kathiawar Times	Wednesdays and Sundays
Rampur (Kathiawar)	Saurashtra	
	{ Associated Press * Burma Sunday Times Chinese Daily News Free Burma	
Rangoon	{ New Burma New Light of Burma Rangoon Daily News Rangoon Evening Post	
	{ Rangoon Gazette Rangoon Times Rangoon Mail The Sun	Daily, except Mondays Daily, except Sundays Saturdays
Ratnagiri .	{ Bakool Satya Bhodhak	Saturdays. Sundays.

Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press.
Rawalpindi	{ Frontier Bulletin Shanti ..	
Samastipur	Vigilant	
Satara ..	Shubha Suchaka	Fridays.
Satara City ..	Prakash	.. Wednesdays.
Secunderabad ..	{ Hyderabad Bulletin Notice Sheet	.. Daily. .. Daily.
Shahjahanpur	Sarpunch	.. Daily
Sholapur	{ Kalpataru Navajug	.. Sundays. .. Tuesdays
Sholapur Samachar		
Silchar ..	Surma	Sundays
Simla ..	{ Associated Press * Indian News Agency * Indian War Cry Renter's Telegram Company, Limited *	27th of each month.
Sukkur ..	Sindhi	Saturdays.
	{ Deshi Mitra Deshodaya Gujrat Mitra and Gujarat Darpan	Thursdays. Tuesdays Saturdays.
	{ Jain Mitra Navayuga Weekly Peoples' Business Gifts	Wednesdays Monthly
Surat	{ Praja Pokar Samachar Sat-sug Surat Akhbar	Wednesdays. Sundays
Sylhet	Paridarsaka	Wednesdays
Tinnevely	Kalpeka	Monthly
Trichur	Lokaprakasam	Mondays.
Tiruvalla	{ Kerala Khabalam Kerala Taraka	Wednesdays
	Bharata Kosari	Bi-Weekly
Trivandrum	{ Trivandrum Daily News. Western Star	Daily Tuesdays, Thursdays and Satur- days.
Visagapatam ..	Andhra Advocate	Fridays
Wai	{ Modavritta Vrittasar	Mondays. Mondays.
Wardha	Rajasthan Kosari
Yeotmal ..	Lokamat	..

Banking.

An event of great importance in the history of Indian banking was the formation on the 27th January 1921 of the Imperial Bank of India by amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.

The idea of a Central Banking establishment for British India was mooted as early as 1886, and was the subject of a minute by Mr James Wilson, when Finance Member, in 1869. Again, in 1867 Mr Dickson, the well-known Secretary of the Bank of Bengal, submitted detailed proposals for an amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks. On various later occasions the matter was brought forward without result and it was discussed by the Chamberlain Commission on Indian Finance and Currency in 1918. The present scheme which has come to fruition was however the result of a *reprochement* on the part of the Banks themselves as a result of the experience gained during the war and the realisation of the desirability of strengthening and extending the Banking system in India.

The Presidency Banks—The history of the Presidency Banks in their relationship with Government falls into three well defined stages. Prior to 1842 the Presidency Banks had the right of note issue, but were directly controlled by Government and the scope of their business was restricted by their charters. The second period was from 1842 to 1876. In 1842 the Banks were deprived of the right of note issue, though by their agreements of that year they were authorised to transact the paper currency business as agents of Government. As compensation for the loss of their right of issue, they were given the use of the Government balances and the management of the treasury work at the Presidency towns and at their branches. The old statutory limitations on their business were at the same time greatly relaxed, though the Government's power of control remained unchanged. In 1866 the agreements were revised and the paper currency business was removed from their control and placed under the direct management of Government. The third period dates from the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 by which nearly all the most important limitations of the earlier period were reimposed. Put very briefly, the principal restrictions imposed by this Act prohibited the Banks from conducting foreign exchange business, from borrowing or receiving deposits payable out of India, and from lending for a longer period than six months, or upon mortgage or on the security of immovable property or upon promissory notes bearing less than two independent names or upon goods, unless the goods of the title to them were deposited with the Bank as security. At the same time Government abandoned direct interference in the management, ceasing to appoint official directors and disposing of their shares in the Banks. The Banks no longer enjoyed the full use of the Government balances. Reserve Treasuries were constituted at the Presidency towns into which the surplus revenues were drawn and the balances left at the disposal of the Banks were strictly limited.

This system continued with only minor modifications until 1920. During the war, however, the policy was deliberately adopted of reducing the amount of the balances held in the Reserve Treasuries and leaving much larger balances with the Headquarters of the Presidency Banks in order to assist the money market.

The Imperial Bank—Under the Imperial Bank of India Act (XLVII of 1920), the control of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Board of Governors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and such other places as the Central Board, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council may determine. The Central Board of Governors consists of—

- (a) Managing Governors not exceeding two in number, appointed by the Governor-General in Council on recommendation by the Central Board,
- (b) the Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards,
- (c) the Controller of the Currency, or other officer nominated by the Governor-General in Council, and
- (d) not more than four non-officials, nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

Representatives of any new Local Boards, which may be constituted, may be added at the discretion of the Central Board.

The Controller of the Currency and the Secretaries of the Local Boards are entitled to attend the meetings of the Central Board but not to vote under the agreement with Government. The Governor-General in Council is entitled to issue instructions to the Bank in respect of any matter which in his opinion vitally affects his financial policy or the safety of the Government balances, and if the Controller of the Currency or such other officer of Government as may be nominated by the Governor-General in Council to be a Governor of the Central Board shall give notice in writing to the Managing Governors that he considers that any action proposed to be taken by the Bank will be detrimental to the Government as affecting the matters aforesaid, such action shall not be taken without the approval in writing of the Governor-General in Council. Under the Imperial Bank of India Act provision was made for the increase of the capital of the Bank. The capital of the three Presidency Banks consisted of 8½ crores of rupees in shares of Rs. 500 each, fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised was 7½ crores in shares of Rs. 500 each, of which Rs. 125 has been called up, making the present capital of the Bank Rs. 11½ crores, of which Rs. 5,62,50,000 has been paid up. The reserve fund of the Bank is Rs. 4,57,50,000 and the balance sheet of 30th June 1924 showed the Government Balances at Rs. 23,08,22,008. Other Deposits at Rs. 76,62,44,807 and Cash Rs. 31,96,37,666 with a percentage of cash to liabilities of 25.105.

Class of Business—The Imperial Bank of India Act follows the Presidency Banks Act of 1878 in defining absolutely the class of business in which the Bank may engage, though the older limitations are modified in some minor points. It permits for the first time the constitution of a London Office and the borrowing of money in England for the purpose of the Bank's business upon the security of assets of the Bank, but not the opening of cash credits, keeping cash accounts or receiving deposits in London except from former customers of the Presidency Banks. The Act provides for an agreement between the Bank and the Secretary of State, and this agreement, which was signed on the 27th January 1921 and is for a period of ten years determinable thereafter by either party with one year's notice, provides, *inter alia*, for the following important matters—

- (1) All the general banking business of the Government of India is to be carried out by the Imperial Bank

- (2) The Bank will hold all the Treasury Balances at Headquarters and at its branches. This involves the abolition of the Reserve Treasury system.
- (3) Within five years the Bank undertakes to open 100 new branches of which the Government of India may determine the location of one in four. The branches and agencies of the three Presidency Banks prior to the date of amalgamation numbered 60, including the Colombo branch of the Bank of Madras. The Bank of Bengal had no branches prior to the proposal to transfer Government business to the Bank in 1861-62 but no less than 18 branches were established before 1868.
- (4) The management of the Public Debt will continue to be conducted by the Bank for specified remuneration

THE DIRECTORATE.

Managing Governors

{ Sir Noroot Warren K O I E
N M M u r a y Esq

Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards.

CALCUTTA—

Sir Willoughby Carey, Kt M L O
Raja Kesheo Ouse Law, C I E, M L O
D S. McClure, Esq

President.
Vice-President.
Secretary

BOMBAY—

Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, Bart, K C S I
F O. Annesley Esq
B. Lindsay, Esq

President.
Vice-President
Secretary

MADRAS—

Sir James Simpson, Kt
T M. Ross, Esq
W Lamb, Esq

President
Vice-President
(Offs.) Secretary

Controller of Currency

A V V Aiyar, Esq, B A, O I E (Offg)

Nominated by Government.

The Hon'ble Sir Maneekji B. Dadabhoi K O I E, Nagpore
The Hon'ble Sir Dinsha E. Wacha, Kt, J P, Bombay
The Hon'ble Sir B. M. Annamalai Chettiar, Kt, Madras
Rai Sir Onkar Mull Jatia Bahadur, Kt, O B E, Calcutta

MANAGER IN LONDON
Sir Sidney Sitwell, Kt.

BRANCHES

LOCAL HEAD OFFICES

Calcutta.

Bombay

Madras.

Burra Bazar, Calcutta.
Olive Street, Calcutta
Park Street, Calcutta.
Byculla, Bombay
Mandvi, Bombay
Sandhurst Road, Bombay
Mount Road Madras
Abbottabad
Agra.
Ahmedabad
Ahmedabad City
Ahmednagar
Ajmer
Akola.
Akyab
Allahabad.
Alleppey
Amboyna.
Amballa Cant. (Sub-Agency)

Amritsari
Amritsar
Bangalore
Bareilly
Bassain.
Bellary
Benares
Berhampore (Ganjam)
Biswada
Bhilai (Sub-Agency)
Bhind (Sub-Agency)
Bhopal
Breach.
Calcut.
Cawnpore
Chandpur
Chittagong.
Coonoor.
Cochin.
Coimbatore.
Colombo.

LONDON OFFICE.

No. 5, Whitlington Avenue,
E. C. 2.

Oodalore.	Kanali.	Peshawar.
Ondaspah.	Kandi.	Peshawar City (Sub-Agency)
Ootlock.	Khandwa	Poona.
Pacca.	Kumbakonam	Poona City
Pachoum.	Lahore	Quetta.
Pachoum.	Larkana.	Rajahmundry
Pachoum.	Locknow	Rajkot.
Pachoum.	Ludhiana	Rangoon.
Pachoum.	Lyallpur.	Rangpur.
Pachoum.	Madura.	Rawalpindi
Pachoum.	Mandalay	Saharanpur
Pachoum.	Mangalore	Salem.
Pachoum.	Masulipatam	Sargodha
Pachoum.	Meerut.	Secunderabad.
Pachoum.	Moradabad	Serajunge
Pachoum.	Moulmein	Shivpuri (Sub-Agency)
Pachoum.	Multan	Sholapur
Pachoum.	Murree.	Slakot.
Pachoum.	Mussorie.	Simla.
Pachoum.	Muttra	Srinagar (Kashmir)
Pachoum.	Musuffarpur	Sukkur
Pachoum.	Mymensingh	Surat.
Pachoum.	Nadid.	Tellicherry
Pachoum.	Nagpur	Tinnevely
Pachoum.	Naini Tal	Trichinopoly
Pachoum.	Nadial	Trivandrum
Pachoum.	Narsingunge	Tuticorin.
Pachoum.	Nasik.	Ujjain
Pachoum.	Nagapatam	Vellore
Pachoum.	Nellore	Virangam
Pachoum.	Nowshera	Vizagapatam
Pachoum.	Ootacamund	Vizianagram
Pachoum.	Parbhani (Sub-Agency)	Yectmal
Pachoum.	Patna	

In Schedule 1 Part 1 of the Act, the various descriptions of business which the Bank may transact are laid down and in Part 2 it is expressly provided that the Bank shall not transact any kind of banking business other than that sanctioned in Part 1.

Briefly stated the main classes of business sanctioned are —

- (1) Advancing money upon the security of —
 - (a) Stocks, &c., in which a trustee is authorised by Act to invest trust monies
 - (b) Securities issued by State aided Railways notified by the Governor-General in Council
 - (c) Debentures, or other securities issued under Act by, or on behalf of, a District Board
 - (d) Goods, or documents of title thereto deposited with or assigned to the Bank
 - (e) Accepted Bills of Exchange or Promises
 - (f) Fully paid shares and debentures of Companies with limited liability or immovable property or documents of title relating thereto as collateral security where the original security is one of those specified in a, b, c, d and, if authorised by the Central Board, in e
 - (g) With the sanction of the Local Government, advancing money to Courts of Wards upon security of estates in their charge
 - (h) Drawing, accepting, discounting, buying and selling bills of exchange and other negotiable securities payable in India and Ceylon and subject to the directions of the Governor-General in Council the discounting, buying and selling of bills of exchange payable outside India for and from or to such Banks as may be approved
 - (i) Investing the Bank's funds in the securities referred to in (1) a, b, c.

(5) Making Bank Post Bills and Letters of Credit payable in India and Ceylon

(6) Buying and selling gold and silver

(7) Receiving deposits

(8) Receiving securities for safe custody

(9) Selling such properties as may come into the Bank's possession in satisfaction of claims

(10) Transacting agency business on commission

(11) Acting as Administrator for winding up estates

(12) Drawing bills of exchange and granting letters of credit payable out of India for the use of principles in connection with (11) and also for private constituents for bona fide personal needs

(13) Buying for the purpose of meeting such bills, &c., bills of exchange payable out of India at any amount not exceeding six months

(14) Borrowing money in India

(15) Borrowing money in England upon security of assets of the Bank but not otherwise

The principal restrictions placed on the business of the Bank in Part 2 are as follows —

(1) It shall not make any loan or advance —

(a) For a longer period than six months

(b) upon the security of stock or shares of the Bank

(c) save in the case of estates specified in Part 1 (Courts of Wards) upon mortgage or security of immovable property or documents of title thereof

(2) The amount which may be advanced to any individual or partnership is limited

(3) Discounts cannot be made or advances on personal security given unless such discounts or advances carry with them the several responsibilities of at least two persons or firms unconnected with each other in general partnership

The Balance Sheet of the Bank as at 30th June 1924 was as follows —

LIABILITIES	Rs	a	p	ASSETS	Rs	a	p
Subscribed Capital	11,25,00,000	0	0	Government Securities	10,53,60,832	15	11
Capital Paid up	5,62,50,000	0	0	Other Authorized Securities under the Act	1,22,04,887	14	0
Reserve	4,57,50,000	0	0	Loans	21,83,72,111	1	9
Public Deposits	22,08,22,098	12	4	Cash Credits	43,00,70,651	8	8
Other Deposits	76,62,41,907	6	0	Inland Bills discounted and purchased	5,60,08,066	0	8
Loans against Securities per contra				Foreign Bills discounted and purchased	1,03,635	1	11
Loans from the Government of India under Section 20 of the Paper Currency Act against Inland Bills discounted and purchased per contra				Bullion	2,56,58,025	4	8
Contingent Liabilities				Dead Stock			
Sundries	60,83,504	3	8	Liability of Constituents for Contingent Liabilities per contra			
				Sundries	53,68,523	12	11
				Balances with other Banks	1,59,76,747	14	9
				Cash	87,56,13,008	15	1
					21,95,87,406	6	11
Rupees	1,09,51,50,410	6	0	Rupees	1,09,51,50,410	6	1

The above Balance Sheet includes —

Deposits in London £ 1 513,771-16-4, Advances, in London £ 434 176-5 8, Cash and Balances at other Banks in London £ 1,132,920-0 11

Government Deposits

The following statement shows the Government deposits with each Bank at various periods during the last 40 years or so —

In Lakhs of rupees

—	Bank of Bengal	Bank of Bombay	Bank of Madras	Total	—	Bank of Bengal	Bank of Bombay	Bank of Madras	Total
30 June 1881	230	61	53	344	1913	247	167	68	482
1886	329	82	39	450	1914	290	197	93	580
1891	332	97	58	487	1915	263	187	102	552
1896	225	88	57	370	1916	386	263	115	714
1901	187	90	63	340	1917	1338	716	209	2263
1906	186	93	46	325	1918	664	549	213	1426
1911	198	129	77	404	1919	346	298	142	786
1912	210	155	75	440	1920	801	663	170	1634
					26 January 1921	364	206	138	708

IMPERIAL BANK

30th June 1921	2,120
" 1922	1,672
" 1923	1,256
" 1924	2,208

Government Benefits:

The proportions which Government deposits have borne from time to time to the total Capital Reserve and deposit of the three Banks are shown below —

In Lakhs of Rupees.

	1 Capital	2 Reserve	3 Government deposits.	4 Other deposits.	Proportion of Government deposits to 1, 2 & 4
31st December					
1891 ..	250	97	297	1412	13.7 per cent
1896 ..	250	158	299	1892	14.2 "
1901 ..	260	218	340	1463	14.2 "
1906 ..	260	279	307	2745	8.3 "
1907 ..	260	294	335	2811	8.8 "
1908 ..	260	209	325	2661	8.4 "
1909 ..	260	318	307	3265	7.4 "
1910 ..	260	331	389	3234	9.7 "
1911 ..	260	240	438	3419	9.6 "
1912 ..	275	261	426	3578	9.0 "
1913 ..	275	270	587	3644	11.8 "
1914 ..	275	286	561	4002	10.5 "
1915 ..	275	259	487	3860	9.5 "
1916 ..	275	258	520	4470	9.0 "
1917 ..	275	263	771	6771	9.2 "
1918 ..	275	240	864	5097	12.9 "
1919 ..	275	255	772	7226	8.8 "
1920 ..	275	275	901	7725	9.6 "
30th June (Imperial Bank)					
1921 ..	547	371	2220	7016	21.8 "
1922 ..	562	411	1672	6336	18.6 "
1923 ..	562	435	1266	7047	18.5 "
1924 ..	562	457	2208	7062	20.2 "

Recent Progress

The following statements show the progress made by the three Banks prior to their amalgamation into the Imperial Bank —

In Lakhs of Rupees

BANK OF BENGAL.

	Capital.	Reserve	Govt depo sits.	Other depo sits	Cash	Invest- ments	Dividend for year
31st December							10 per cent.
1895	200	68	184	677	422	182	11
1900	200	103	156	582	243	186	12
1905	200	140	167	1204	396	181	12
1906	200	150	160	1505	528	149	12
1907	200	157	187	1573	480	279	12
1908	200	165	178	1575	507	349	13
1909	200	170	168	1760	615	411	14
1910	200	175	198	1809	514	388	14
1911	200	180	270	1677	729	521	14
1912	200	185	271	1711	653	510	14
1913	200	191	301	1884	940	819	14
1914	200	200	287	2160	1159	821	15
1915	200	*204	265	1978	785	798	16
1916	200	*213	271	2145	772	68	16
1917	200	222	448	2044	1482	778	17
1918	200	1189	584	2322	894	779	17
1919	200	2200	405	2392	997	864	17
1920	200	2210	434	3398	1221	910	19½

* Includes Rs. 63 lakhs as a reserve for depreciation of investments.

1	87	11	11	11
2	85	11	11	11

BANK OF BOMBAY

—	Capital	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash	Investments.	Dividend for year
1895	100	51	76	358	228	105	11 per cent
1900	100	70	87	432	129	89	11
1905	100	87	92	676	259	158	12
1906	100	92	101	832	354	177	12
1907	100	98	112	821	324	164	12
1908	100	101	94	832	377	149	12
1909	100	102	120	1035	415	183	12
1910	100	105	152	1053	436	149	14
1911	100	108	107	1104	468	206	14
1912	100	108	117	1124	315	210	14
1913	100	108	900	1015	47	222	14
1914	100	110	183	1081	646	202	15
1915	100	100	136	1079	423	276	15
1916	100	90	142	1367	667	312	15
1917	100	92	235	2817	1596	744	17
1918	100	101	177	1740	542	853	18
1919	100	110	262	2756	928	115	19
1920	100	120	349	2748	876	298	22

BANK OF MADRAS

—	Capital	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash	Investments.	Dividend for year
1895	50	16	45	278	144	45	10 per cent
1900	50	22	35	260	82	67	8
1905	50	30	41	344	140	71	10
1906	50	32	54	355	151	81	10
1907	50	36	35	416	162	84	10
1908	50	40	52	447	158	84	11
1909	50	44	49	500	141	79	12
1910	50	48	72	567	184	85	12
1911	50	52	59	625	165	104	12
1912	75	70	75	743	196	113	12
1913	75	73	86	805	219	117	12
1914	75	76	91	761	207	134	12
1915	75	66	86	803	256	184	12
1916	75	55	104	960	286	161	12
1917	75	50	87	1020	496	94	12
1918	75	50	102	954	271	139	12
1919	75	45	104	1215	436	175	12
1920	75	45	118	1579	506	211	12

IMPERIAL BANK

30th June

Year	Capital	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash	Investments.	Dividend for year
1921	547	371	22,20	70 16	34 54	16,52	16 per cent.
1922	562	411	16 72	63,56	33 95	900	16
1923	582	435	13 56	70 47	29 13	925	16
1924	582	467	22 08	76 62	21,95	11 75	16

THE EXCHANGE BANKS.

The Banks carrying on Exchange business in India are merely branch agencies of Banks having their head offices in London, on the Continent, or in the Far East and the United States. Originally their business was confined almost exclusively to the financing of the external trade of India, but in recent years most of them, while continuing to finance this part of India's trade, have also taken an active part in the financing of the internal portion also at the places where their branches are situated. At one time the Banks carried on their operations in India almost entirely with money borrowed elsewhere, principally in London—the home offices of the Banks attracting deposits for use in India by offering rates of interest much higher than the English Banks were able to quote. Within recent years however it has been discovered that it is possible to attract deposits in India on quite as favourable terms as can be done in London and a very large proportion of the financing done by the Exchange Banks is now carried through by means of money actually borrowed in India. No information is available as to how far each Bank has secured deposits in India, but the following statement published by the Director-General of Statistics in India shows how rapidly such deposits have grown in the aggregate within recent years.

TOTAL DEPOSITS OF ALL EXCHANGE BANKS
SECURED IN INDIA.

In Lakhs of Rupees

1895	1080
1900	1050
1905	1704
1910	2479
1911	2816
1912	2953
1913	3108
1914	3014
1915	3354
1916	3803
1917	5387
1918	6185
1919	7435
1920	7480
1921	7519
1922	7388

Exchange Banks' Investments.

Turning now to the question of the investment of the Banks' resources, so far as it concerns India, this to a great extent consists of the purchase of bills drawn against imports and exports to and from India.

The financing of the import trade originated and is carried through however for the most part by Branches outside India, the Indian Branches' share in the business consisting principally in collecting the amount of the bills at maturity and in furnishing their other branches with information as to the means and standing of the drawees of the bills, and it is as regards the export business that the Indian Branches are more immediately concerned. The Exchange Banks have practically a monopoly of the export finance in India and in view of the dimensions of the trade which has to be dealt with the Banks would under ordinary circumstances require to utilise a very large proportion of their resources in carrying through the business. They are able however by a system of rediscount in London to limit the employment of their own resources to a comparatively small figure in relation to the business they actually put through. No definite information can be secured as to the extent to which rediscounting in London is carried on but the following figures appearing in the balance sheets dated 31st December 1922 of the undernoted Banks will give some idea of this:

LIABILITY ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE RED-
COUNTED AND STILL CURRENT

Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China.	8,523,000
Eastern Bank, Ltd.	487,000
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	5,100,000
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.	2,461,000
National Bank of India, Ltd.	3,073,000
P & O Banking Corporation, Ltd.	12,054,000
	<u>31,517,000</u>

The above figures do not of course relate to re-discounts of Indian bills alone, as the Banks operate in other parts of the world also, but it may safely be inferred that bills drawn in India form a very large proportion of the whole.

The bills against exports are largely drawn at three months' sight and may either be "clean" or be accompanied by the documents relating to the goods in respect of which they are drawn. Most of them are drawn on well known firms at home or against credits opened by Banks or financial houses in England and bearing as they do an Exchange Bank endorsement they are readily taken up by the discount houses and Banks in London. Any bills purchased in India are sent home by the first possible mail so that presuming they are rediscounted as soon as they reach London the Exchange Banks are able to secure the return of their money in about 16 or 17 days instead of having to wait for three months which would be the case if they were unable to rediscount. It must not be assumed however that all bills are rediscounted as soon as they reach London as at times it suits the Banks to hold up the bills in anticipation of a fall in the London discount rate while on occasions also the Banks prefer to hold the bills on their own account as an investment until maturity.

The Banks place themselves in funds in India for the purpose of purchasing export bills in a variety of ways of which the following are the principal—

- (1) Proceeds of import bills as they mature.
- (2) Sale of drafts and telegraphic transfers payable in London and elsewhere out of India.
- (3) Purchase of Council Bills and Telegraphic Transfers payable in India from the Secretary of State.
- (4) Imports of bar gold and silver bullion.
- (5) Imports of sovereigns from London, Egypt or Australia.

The remaining business transacted by the Banks in India is of the usual nature and need not be given in detail.

An interesting event in Indian Banking history is the recent entry in the Banking field here of one of the English "Big Five". This has been brought about by the acquisition of the business of Cox & Co., by Lloyds Bank.

The following is a statement of the position of the various Exchange Banks carrying on business in India as at 31st December 1928 —

In Thousands of Rs.

Name	Capital	Reserve.	Deposits.	Cash and Investments.
Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China, Ltd	3000	3900	41589	19058
Comptoir National D'Escompte de Paris	10000	2897	165095	20308
Eastern Bank Ltd.	1000	330	4942	4165
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corpn	2322	7845	58520	22095
Imperial Bank of Persia	650	390	4165	4618
International Banking Corpn	1000	2100	13083	3632
Lloyds Bank Ltd.	14372	10000	340168	132333
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd	1050	1250	12831	8216
National Bank of India, Ltd	2000	2700	31254	17152
Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd	10000	7450	50808	26546
Sumitomo Bank, Ltd	5000	1750	34406	15552
Bank of Taiwan, Ltd	5250	1338	25273	11657
P & O Banking Corpn., Ltd.	2594	125	9491	4755
Netherlands Trading Society	6665	3553	30877	13679
Banco Nacional Ultramarino	5333	7555	64988	40219

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

Previous to 1906 there were few Banks of this description operating in India, and such as were then in existence were of comparatively small importance and had their business confined to a very restricted area. The rapid development of this class of Bank, which has been so marked a feature in Banking within recent years, really had its origin in Bombay and set in with the establishment of the Bank of India and the Indian Specie Bank in 1906. After that time there was a perfect stream of new formations, and although many of the new Companies confined themselves to legitimate banking business, on the other hand a very large number engaged in other businesses in addition and can hardly be properly classed as Banks.

These Banks made very great strides during the first few years of their existence, but it was generally suspected in well informed circles that the business of many of the Banks was of a very speculative and unsafe character and it was a matter of no great surprise to many people when it became known that some of the Banks were in difficulties.

The first important failure to take place was that of the People's Bank of India and the loss of confidence caused by the failure of that Bank resulted in a very large number of other failures, the principal being that of the Indian Specie Bank.

Since those events of ten years ago, confidence has been largely restored. But in April 1928 the Alliance Bank of Simla suspended payment and is now in voluntary liquidation. The effect of the failure of this old established Bank might have been disastrous but for the prompt action of the Imperial Bank which dealt with the situation in close association with the Government of India. The Imperial Bank undertook to pay the depositors of the Alliance Bank 50 per cent. of the amounts due to them. A panic was averted and a critical period was passed through with little difficulty.

During 1928 the Tata Industrial Bank, which was established in 1918, was merged in the Central Bank of India.

The following shows the position of the better known existing Banks as it appears in the latest available Balance Sheets —

In Lakhs of Rupees

Name	Capital	Reserve	Deposits	Cash and Investments
Allahabad Bank, Ltd., affiliated to P & O Banking Corporation, Ltd	35	35	849	316
Bank of Baroda, Ltd	29	19	520	298
Bank of India Ltd	100	74	989	380
The Bank of Morvi Ltd	55		14	4
Bank of Mysore, Ltd	20	11	143	66
Central Bank of India, Ltd	108	100	1559	1064
Karachi Bank Ltd	2	1	31	15
Oudh & Commercial Bank, Ltd.	5	2	5	1
Punjab National Bank, Ltd	20	18	601	188
Union Bank of India, Ltd.	59		66	40

Growth of Joint Stock Banks.

The following figures appearing in the Report of the Director-General of Statistics show the growth of the Capital, Reserve and Deposits of the principal Joint Stock Banks registered in India —

In Lakhs of rupees.					Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits
Capital	Reserve.	Deposits		1907	229	63	1800
1870	9	1	13	1908	239	69	1926
1875	14	2	27	1909	266	87	2040
1880	18	3	63	1910	275	100	2564
1885	18	5	94	1911	285	136	2529
1890	33	17	270	1912	291	134	2725
1905	63	31	566	1913	231	142	2359
1900	82	45	807	1914	251	141	1710
1904	123	56	1155	1915	281	156	1737
				1916	287	172	2471
				1917	302	162	3117
				1918	436	165	4060
				1919	539	324	5009
				1920	637	254	7114
				1921	928	300	7689
				1922	802	261	6163

LONDON OFFICES, AGENTS OR CORRESPONDENTS OF BANKS AND
FIRMS (DOING BANKING BUSINESS) IN INDIA

Name of Bank.	London Office—Agents or Correspondents.	Address.
Imperial Bank of India	London Office	5, Whitlington Avenue, E C 3
<i>Other Banks & Kindred Firms</i>		
Alibabad Bank	National Provincial Bank	15, Bishopsgate, E C 2
Bank of Morvi	Ditto	15, Bishopsgate, E C 2.
Central Bank of India	Midland Bank	5, Threadneedle Street, E C 2.
Grindlay & Co	London Office	54, Parliament Street.
Karnal Industrial Bank	Barclays Bank	168, Fenchurch Street, E C 3
King's Branch (Calcutta)	Lloyds Bank	71, Lombard Street, E C 3
" (Bombay)		8
Punjab National Bank	Midland Bank	5, Threadneedle Street, E C 2
Sinia Banking & Industrial Co	Grindlay & Co	54, Parliament Street.
Thomas Cook & Son	London Office	Ludgate Circus, E C 4
Union Bank of India	Westminster Bank	Bartholomew Lane, E C 2
<i>Exchange Banks</i>		
Banco Nacional Ultramarino	London Office	9, Bishopsgate, E C 2
Bank of Taiwan	Ditto	25, Old Broad Street, E C 2
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	Ditto	38, Bishopsgate, E C 2.
Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris	Ditto	3-13, King William St., E C 3
Cox's Branch (Lloyds Bank)	Ditto	71, Lombard Street, E C 3
Eastern Bank	Ditto	4, Crosby Sq., E C 3
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	Ditto	9, Grace Church St., E C 3
Imperial Bank of Persia	Ditto	25, Abchurch Lane, E C 4
International Banking Corporation	Ditto	80, Bishopsgate, E C 2
Lloyds Bank	Ditto	71, Lombard Street, E C 3
Mercantile Bank of India	Ditto	15, Grace Church St., E C 3
National Bank of India	Ditto	20, Bishopsgate, E C 2.
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij	National Provincial Bank	15, Bishopsgate, E C 2.
Nederlandsche Indische Handelsbank	London Representative	27, Old Broad Street, E C 2
P & O. Banking Corporation	London Office	152, Leadenhall St., E C 3
Sanikawa Bank	Ditto	87, Bishopsgate, E C 2.
Yokohama Specie Bank	Ditto	7, Bishopsgate, E C 2.

INDIAN PRIVATE BANKERS AND SHROFFS.

Indian private Bankers and Shroffs flourished in India long before Joint Stock Banks were ever thought of, and it seems likely that they will continue to thrive for some very considerable time to come. The use of the word "Shroff" is usually associated with a person who charges usurious rates of interest to impecunious people, but this is hardly fair to the people known as "shroffs" in banking circles, as there is no doubt that the latter are of very real service to the business community and of very great assistance to Banks in India. Under present conditions the Banks in India can never hope to be able to get into sufficiently close touch with the affairs of the vast trading community in India to enable them to grant accommodation to more than a few of these traders direct, and it is in his capacity as middleman that the shroff proves of such great service. In this capacity also he brings a very considerable volume of business within the scope of the Presidency Banks Act, and enables the Presidency Banks to give accommodation which, without his assistance, the Banks would not be permitted to give. The shroff's position as an intermediary between the trading community and the Banks usually arises in something after the following manner. A shopkeeper in the bazaar, with limited means of his own, finds that, after using all his own money, he still requires say Rs 25,000 to stock his shop suitably. He thereupon approaches the shroff, and the latter after very careful inquiries as to the shopkeeper's position grants the accommodation, if he is satisfied that the business is safe. The business, as a rule, is arranged through a hoondee broker, and in the case referred to the latter may probably approach about ten shroffs and secure accommodation from them to the extent of Rs. 2,500 each. A hoondee usually drawn at a currency of about 2 months is almost invariably taken by the shroffs in respect of such advances.

A stage is reached however when the demands on the shroffs are greater than they are able to meet out of their own money, and it is at this

point that the assistance of the Banks is called into requisition. The shroffs do this by taking a number of the bills they already hold to the Banks for discount under their endorsement, and the Banks accept such bills freely to an extent determined in each case by the standing of the shroff and the strength of the drawer. The extent to which any one shroff may grant accommodation in the bazaar is therefore dependent on two factors, viz., (1) the limit which he himself may think it advisable to place on his transactions, and (2) the extent to which the Banks are prepared to discount bills bearing his endorsement. The shroffs keep in very close touch with all the traders to whom they grant accommodation, and past experience has shown that the class of business above referred to is one of the safest the Banks can engage in.

The rates charged by the shroffs are usually based on the rates at which they in turn can discount the bills with the Banks and necessarily vary according to the standing of the borrower and with the season of the year. Generally speaking, however, a charge of two annas per cent. per mensem above the Bank's rate of discount, or $1\frac{1}{2}\%$, is a fair average rate charged in Bombay to a first class borrower. Rates in Calcutta and Madras are on a slightly higher scale due in a great measure to the fact that the competition among the shroffs for business is not so keen in these places as it is in Bombay.

The shroffs who engage in the class of business above described are principally Marwaries and Multanis having their Head Offices for the most part in Bikanir and Shikarpur, respectively, the business elsewhere than at the Head Offices being carried on by "Moonimis" who have very wide powers.

It is not known to what extent native bankers and shroffs receive deposits and engage in exchange business throughout India, but there is no doubt that this is done to a very considerable extent.

THE BANK RATE

Formerly each Presidency Bank fixed its own Bank Rate, and the rates were not uniform. Now the Imperial Bank fixes the rate for the whole of India. The rate fixed represents the rate charged by the Banks on demand loans against Government securities only and advances on other securities or discounts are granted as

a rule at a slightly higher rate. Ordinarily such advances or discounts are granted at from one-half to one per cent. over the official rate, but this does not always apply and in the monsoon months, when the Bank rate is sometimes nominal, it often happens that such accommodation is granted at the official rate or even less.

The following statement shows the average Bank Rate since the Imperial Bank was constituted—

Year	1st Half-year	2nd Half-year	Yearly average.
1921	6 088	5 108	5 578
1922	7 132	4 510	5 821
1923	7 419	4 5	5 989
1924	8 06		

BANKERS' CLEARING HOUSES.

The principal Clearing Houses in India are those of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, Colombo and Karachi, and of these the first two are by far the most important. The members at these places consist of the Imperial Bank, most of the Exchange Banks and English Banking Agency firms, and a few of the better known of the local Joint Stock Banks. No Bank is entitled to claim to be a member as of right and any application for admission to a Clearing must be proposed and seconded by two members and be subject thereafter to ballot by the existing members.

The duties of settling Bank are undertaken by the Imperial Bank at each of the places mentioned and a representative of each member attends at the office of that Bank on each business day at the time fixed to deliver all cheques he may have negotiated on other members

and to receive in exchange all cheques drawn on him negotiated by the latter. After all the cheques have been received and delivered the representative of each Bank advises the settling Bank of the difference between his total receipts and deliveries and the settling Bank thereafter strikes a final balance to satisfy itself that the totals of the debtor balance agrees with the total of the creditor balance. The debtor Banks thereafter arrange to pay the amounts due by them to the settling Bank during the course of the day and the latter in turn arranges to pay on receipt of those amount the balances due to the creditor Banks. In practice however all the members keep Bank accounts with the settling Bank so that the final balances are settled by cheques and book entries thus doing away with the necessity to cash in any form.

The figures for the Clearing Houses in India above referred to are given below —

Total amount of Cheques Cleared Annually
In lakhs of Rupees

—	Calcutta.	Bombay	Madras.	Rangoon.	Colombo	Karachi.	Total.
1901 .	Not available	6511	1338	Not available	.	178	8027
1902 .		7013	1295			268	8576
1903 ..		8762	1464			340	10566
1904 .		9492	1536	.	.	365	11393
1905 .		10927	1560		.	324	12811
1906 .		10912	1583		.	400	12895
1907 .	22444	12645	1548			530	37167
1908 .	21281	12585	1754			643	36253
1909 .	19776	14375	1945			702	36901
1910 .	22238	16652	2117	4765		755	46527
1911 .	25763	17605	2083	5599	.	762	51612
1912 ..	28931	20831	1152	6043		1159	58016
1913 .	39133	21890	2340	6198		1219	61780
1914 .	28031	17696	2127	4969	.	1315	54158
1915 .	32266	18462	1887	4069	.	1562	58036
1916 .	48017	24051	2495	4853	.	1508	80919
1917 ..	47193	33655	2339	4966		2023	90181
1918 .	74297	53362	2528	6627		2429	129643
1919 .	90241	76250	3004	8837		3296	180566
1920 .	153383	126353	7500	10779		3120	301140
1921 .	91672	89785	3847	11875		3579	200791
1922 .	94426	86683	4270	12330	9681	3224	210422
1923 ..	89148	75015	4722	11094	11940	4064	179663

TABLE OF WAGES, INCOME, &c

Showing the amount for one or more days at the rates of 1 to 16 Rupees per Month of 31 Days

Day	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	0 0 60	1 00	1 60	2 00	2 60	3 10	3 70	4 10	4 70	5 10	5 80	6 20	6 90	7 30	7 90	8 30
2	0 1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 00	7 00	8 00	9 00	10 00	11 00	12 00	13 00	14 00	15 00	16 00
3	0 2 00	3 10	4 20	5 30	6 40	7 50	9 00	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	15 00	16 10	17 20	18 30
4	0 3 00	4 10	5 20	6 30	7 40	8 50	10 00	11 10	12 20	13 30	14 40	15 50	16 00	17 10	18 20	19 30
5	0 4 00	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	11 00	12 10	13 20	14 30	15 40	16 50	17 00	18 10	19 20	20 30
6	0 5 00	6 10	7 20	8 30	9 40	10 50	12 00	13 10	14 20	15 30	16 40	17 50	18 00	19 10	20 20	21 30
7	0 6 00	7 10	8 20	9 30	10 40	11 50	13 00	14 10	15 20	16 30	17 40	18 50	19 00	20 10	21 20	22 30
8	0 7 00	8 10	9 20	10 30	11 40	12 50	14 00	15 10	16 20	17 30	18 40	19 50	20 00	21 10	22 20	23 30
9	0 8 00	9 10	10 20	11 30	12 40	13 50	15 00	16 10	17 20	18 30	19 40	20 50	21 00	22 10	23 20	24 30
10	0 9 00	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	16 00	17 10	18 20	19 30	20 40	21 50	22 00	23 10	24 20	25 30
11	0 10 00	11 10	12 20	13 30	14 40	15 50	17 00	18 10	19 20	20 30	21 40	22 50	23 00	24 10	25 20	26 30
12	0 11 00	12 10	13 20	14 30	15 40	16 50	18 00	19 10	20 20	21 30	22 40	23 50	24 00	25 10	26 20	27 30
13	0 12 00	13 10	14 20	15 30	16 40	17 50	19 00	20 10	21 20	22 30	23 40	24 50	25 00	26 10	27 20	28 30
14	0 13 00	14 10	15 20	16 30	17 40	18 50	20 00	21 10	22 20	23 30	24 40	25 50	26 00	27 10	28 20	29 30
15	0 14 00	15 10	16 20	17 30	18 40	19 50	21 00	22 10	23 20	24 30	25 40	26 50	27 00	28 10	29 20	30 30
16	0 15 00	16 10	17 20	18 30	19 40	20 50	22 00	23 10	24 20	25 30	26 40	27 50	28 00	29 10	30 20	31 30
17	0 16 00	17 10	18 20	19 30	20 40	21 50	23 00	24 10	25 20	26 30	27 40	28 50	29 00	30 10	31 20	32 30
18	0 17 00	18 10	19 20	20 30	21 40	22 50	24 00	25 10	26 20	27 30	28 40	29 50	30 00	31 10	32 20	33 30
19	0 18 00	19 10	20 20	21 30	22 40	23 50	25 00	26 10	27 20	28 30	29 40	30 50	31 00	32 10	33 20	34 30
20	0 19 00	20 10	21 20	22 30	23 40	24 50	26 00	27 10	28 20	29 30	30 40	31 50	32 00	33 10	34 20	35 30
21	0 20 00	21 10	22 20	23 30	24 40	25 50	27 00	28 10	29 20	30 30	31 40	32 50	33 00	34 10	35 20	36 30
22	0 21 00	22 10	23 20	24 30	25 40	26 50	28 00	29 10	30 20	31 30	32 40	33 50	34 00	35 10	36 20	37 30
23	0 22 00	23 10	24 20	25 30	26 40	27 50	29 00	30 10	31 20	32 30	33 40	34 50	35 00	36 10	37 20	38 30
24	0 23 00	24 10	25 20	26 30	27 40	28 50	30 00	31 10	32 20	33 30	34 40	35 50	36 00	37 10	38 20	39 30
25	0 24 00	25 10	26 20	27 30	28 40	29 50	31 00	32 10	33 20	34 30	35 40	36 50	37 00	38 10	39 20	40 30
26	0 25 00	26 10	27 20	28 30	29 40	30 50	32 00	33 10	34 20	35 30	36 40	37 50	38 00	39 10	40 20	41 30
27	0 26 00	27 10	28 20	29 30	30 40	31 50	33 00	34 10	35 20	36 30	37 40	38 50	39 00	40 10	41 20	42 30
28	0 27 00	28 10	29 20	30 30	31 40	32 50	34 00	35 10	36 20	37 30	38 40	39 50	40 00	41 10	42 20	43 30
29	0 28 00	29 10	30 20	31 30	32 40	33 50	35 00	36 10	37 20	38 30	39 40	40 50	41 00	42 10	43 20	44 30
30	0 29 00	30 10	31 20	32 30	33 40	34 50	36 00	37 10	38 20	39 30	40 40	41 50	42 00	43 10	44 20	45 30
31	0 30 00	31 10	32 20	33 30	34 40	35 50	37 00	38 10	39 20	40 30	41 40	42 50	43 00	44 10	45 20	46 30

Life Insurance.

There are no publications from which a complete statistical survey of the various branches of insurance work in India can be obtained, but the official "Report on the working of Life Assurance Companies doing business in British India," published by the Government of India, (1924), gives much information in regard to the Life Assurance Companies subject to the provisions of the Indian Life Assurance Companies Act, 1912.

The oldest of the Indian Companies were established in Madras about 90 years ago. Bombay has none older than the Bombay Mutual, the Oriental and the Bombay Widows' Pension Fund which were established about 50 years ago. Life Assurance seems not to have been started in Bengal until much later, and it was not until 1906 that many Companies were established either in that Presidency or elsewhere in India. The year 1919 was marked by the formation of several new companies, more particularly in Bombay.

In his introductory note to the official publication already mentioned, Mr. H. G. W. Melkic, Actuary to the Government of India, dealing with the year 1922-23, says —

The total amount of paid-up capital of the Indian companies was increased slightly during the year and is now nearly 58½ lakhs, 18 lakhs of which has already been expended in preliminary and organization expenses and 6½ lakhs of the balance has been earmarked to meet deficits disclosed at the time of the actuarial valuations of assets and liabilities.

The total sums assured remaining in force at the end of the year 1923 under ordinary life assurance policies issued by Indian companies is 40 crores. The new sums assured during the year were over 5½ crores. This new business is larger than in any previous year and is nearly more than three times as large as in 1916.

The average rate of annual premium payable under the policies issued by Indian companies is nearly 5½ per cent of the sum assured. The corresponding rate deduced from the returns to the British Board of Trade is lower, the difference being partly due to the fact that endowment assurances constitute a larger proportion of the policies issued by Indian than by British companies.

Expenses.—Although the expense ratio of the companies as a whole shows a slight improvement yet there are unfortunately many companies which still conduct their business on ruinously extravagant lines. This is mainly the case with companies established after 1905 at the time of the Swadeshi boom.

The expense ratios of each different company show that although a few of the old companies have undesirably high expense ratios and a few of those established since 1905 have commendably small ratios yet it is mainly amongst the latter that the undesirable high rates are noticeable. Of the companies established in the past 20 years more than half are spending over 45 per cent of their premium income. In this connection it may be pointed out that in the Industrial Assurance Companies Bill

which was introduced in the British House of Lords in 1921, it was laid down that if the expenditure exceeded 20 per cent in the case of ordinary assurance and 40 per cent in the case of industrial assurance business, the excess should be met by the directors failing which the company had to be wound up. Although this provision was not adopted when the Bill was finally passed into law in September 1923, I should receive the most serious consideration of extravagantly managed companies especially as fresh legislation dealing with insurance companies is to be undertaken in this country at an early date.

Actuarial Examinations.—It will be of interest to those who are desirous of qualifying as Actuaries to learn that the Institute of Actuaries, London, has for the last few years opened centres in Bombay and Calcutta for holding its annual examinations. The examinations are usually held in April each year. Candidates who wish to sit for the examinations are required to give notice in writing to the Assistant Secretary of the Institute, Staple Inn Hall, Holborn, W. C. 1, at least two months before the date of examination specifying the particular Examination for which they desire to enter and the centre at which they propose to present themselves.

Actuarial Valuations.—Of the 52 existing Indian companies 37 have submitted the result of actuarial valuation of their assets and liabilities. The majority have undergone valuation more than once, and altogether 81 valuation reports have been submitted by the companies now existing. In the case of 26 companies the result of the latest valuations disclosed a surplus. In 4 cases the deficit was covered by the paid up capital, thus proving solvency but precluding the payment of either bonus or dividend. In the remaining 7 cases it became necessary either to call up more capital or alter the policy contracts. Thus only 11 companies out of a total of 52 have not undergone any actuarial valuation. Four of these transact business which is not readily susceptible of actuarial valuation and the remaining 11 have not yet reached the stage of having a valuation.

Provident Insurance Societies.—Although several of the Indian Life Assurance companies formerly in existence may deservedly have had very undesirable reputations, it must be remembered that a great deal of discredit has been brought on the better class of such companies owing to the existence of a large number of Provident Societies whose unsound methods have been dealt with in previous issues of these returns. The essential difference between a Life Assurance Company and a Provident Insurance Society is that the company is subject to the Life Act and not to the Provident Insurance Societies Act, if, under insurances payable at the death of survivorship of any one life, it undertakes either to pay sums which in the aggregate exceed Rs 500 or to receive premiums which in the aggregate exceed Rs 25 in any one year where the period for which the premiums are payable is unlimited or which exceed Rs 250 altogether where such period is limited. If

as may happen in the case of a dividing society, the sum assured payable at death is not fixed but may in certain contingencies exceed Rs. 500, the society is subject to the Life Act. The fact of either the sum assured or the premiums exceeding those limits under any other form of insurance than life insurance does not make the Society subject to the Life Act.

Eighteen years ago there were about 1,300 societies in existence in India of the Provident Insurance Society type. Now 31 only remain, 7 of which are proprietary and the rest mutual. The total paid up capital of the proprietary societies is only about Rs 36,000. The latest accounts received from the societies indicate that their total annual income is about 2 lakhs and their total funds amount to little over 4 lakhs. Thirteen of these societies either do

ordinary life insurance business, or work on the dividing plan with a minimum guarantee, one is a widow's fund and another transacts sickness insurance business. These 13 societies could with advantage undergo actuarial valuation. The remaining 18 societies either work on the dividing plan without any minimum guarantee, or on the death call system, and are consequently not susceptible of actuarial valuation. They, however, are mostly in a moribund state. Nine of the Provident Insurance Societies transact other classes of business, mostly marriage insurance, in addition to life business.

Indian Life Assurance Companies—The following list shows the Indian companies in existence in the several provinces of India arranged according to the year in which they were founded.

The names of Mutual companies are printed in Capitals

Year when established.	Madras Presidency	Bombay Presidency	Bengal Presidency	Punjab	United Provinces, Assam, Ajmer-Merwara and Central Provinces
1833	MADRAS WIDOWS				
1847				CHRISTIAN MUTUAL (Started in the U P)	.
1849	TINNEVELLY				
1871		BOMBAY MUTUAL.			
1874		Oriental.			.
1876		BOMBAY WIDOWS			.
1884	INDIAN CHRISTIAN				...
1885		GOAN MUTUAL.			.
1888	MANGALORE	B. B. AND C. I. ZOBON			.
1889		BOMBAY ZOBON			.
1891		GUJARAT ZOROASTRIAN	HINDU MUTUAL (Started in Simla)		..
1892	..	Indian Life			.
1893		.		PUNJAB MUTUAL	RECHARITES (U P)
1894		SIND HINDU		

Year when established	Madras Presidency	Bombay Presidency	Bengal Presidency	Punjab	United Provinces, Assam, Ajmer-Merwara and Central Provinces
1896		Empire of India	.	Bharat	
1901	.			SHILA MUTUAL	
1906	United India		National Indian, National Hindusthan Co-operative	Co-operative	
1907					
1908		Bombay Life	India Equitable	Hindusthan Death Benefit	General (Ajmer)
1910	ALL INDIA & BURMA		Bengal Mercantile		
1911	SOUTH INDIA WESLEYAN		.		Arya (Assam)
1912		Asian Commercial	Unique		
1913	Mysore Life	Industrial and Prudential, Western India, East and West.	Light of Asia		
1914				British India.	
1916	.	Zenith			
1917		Britannia			
1918					
1919		New India, New Era, Crescent	Himalaya		
1920			Bengal Insurance and Real Property		
1921		Indian Lion			Nagpure Pioneer (C P)
1924		Rising Star		Laxmi	

Post Office Insurance Fund—This was instituted by the Government of India for the benefit of the postal employees in 1883 but gradually admission to this Fund has been thrown open to almost all classes of Government servants who are employed on civil duties. On the 31st March 1923 there were 39,988 policies in force assuring a total sum of Rs 6,82,23,639 including bonus additions. The life assurance fund on that date amounted to Rs 2,00,07,561. The limit of assurance permissible under the rules of the Fund, which was previously Rs 4,000, has been raised to Rs 10,000.

British, Colonial and Foreign Companies—There are at present 23 British, Colonial and Foreign Life Offices which have a place of business in India. Of these 17 are constituted in Britain, 2 in Canada, 1 in Australia, 1 in the Straits Settlements and 2 in Shanghai. Nearly

all are partially exempt from the operation of the Indian Life Assurance Companies Act of 1912 on the ground that, when it came into force, they were carrying on business in the United Kingdom in conformity with the provisions of the British Assurance Companies Act of 1909.

The principal effects of the exemptions allowed to these British, Colonial and Foreign companies are that they are freed from the necessity either of making a deposit with the Controller of Currency or of making separate statements respecting their Indian business. Those granted exemptions are allowed to submit their accounts in the form prescribed by the British Assurance Companies Act of 1909. The Indian Life Act has to a great extent been enacted on the lines of the British Act.

The following table gives the list of non-Indian Companies transacting life business in India

Name of Company.	Year when established.	Head Office.	Other class of Insurance business done. F = Fire, M = Marine. C = Capital redemption. S = Sickness and Accident G = Fidelity Guarantee and Burglary, etc.					Percentage of Life Assurance premium income in the United Kingdom to total life assurance premium income.
Constituted in the United Kingdom	1 Alliance	1824 London	F	M	C	S	G	93.8
	2 Atlas	1808 London	F		C	S	G	78.2
	3 Commercial Union	1861 London	F	M	C	S	G	77.8
	4. Gresham	1848 London			C			25.3
	5. Law Union and Rock	1806 London	F		C	S	G	100
	6 Liverpool and London and Globe	1836 Liverpool	F	M	C	S	G	96.4
	7 London Assurance Corporation	1780 London	F	M	C	S	G	85.5
	8 North British and Mercantile	1823 Edinburgh	F		C			88.1
	9 Northern	1836 Aberdeen	F		C	S	G	98.2
	10 Norwich Union	1797 Norwich			C			57.0
	11 Phoenix	1782 London	F	M	C	S	G	81.8
	12. Royal	1845 Liverpool	F	M	C	S	G	84.8
	13 Royal Exchange	1780 London	F	M	C	S	G	91.7
	14 Royal London Auxiliary*	1910 London	F		C	S	G	.
	15 Scottish Union and National	1824 Edinburgh	F	M	C	S	G	87.4
	16 Standard	1825 Edinburgh			C			57.9
	17 Yorkshire	1824 York	F	M	C	S	G	89.9
Not constituted in the U.K.	18. Manufacturers	1887 Canada						5
	19 Sun of Canada	1865 Canada	.		C	S		14.8
	20 National Mutual of Australasia.	1869 Australia						
	21. Great Eastern	1909 Singapore						NU
	22. China	1896 Shanghai	F					NU
	23 Shanghai	1905 Shanghai						NU
	24 New York†	1845 United States of America.						6

* This Company has, with effect from June 1922, merged in the Royal London Mutual Insurance Society

† The Indian life insurance business of these companies is transferred to the Sun Life of Canada.

The Railways.

The history of Indian Railways very closely reflects the financial vicissitudes of the country. Not for some time after the establishment of Railways in England was their construction in India contemplated, and then to test their applicability to Eastern conditions three experimental lines were sanctioned in 1845. These were from Calcutta to Ranikhet (120 miles), the East Indian Railway; Bombay to Kalyan (35 miles), Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and Madras to Arkonam (89 miles), Madras Railway. Indian Railway building on a serious scale dates from Lord Dalhousie's great minute of 1853, wherein, after dwelling upon the great social, political and commercial advantages of connecting the chief cities by rail, he suggested a great scheme of trunk lines linking the Presidencies with each other and the inland regions with the principal ports. This reasoning commended itself to the Directors of the East India Company, and it was powerfully reinforced when, during the Mutiny, the barriers imposed on free communication were severely felt. As there was no private capital in India available for railway construction, English Companies, the interest on whose capital was guaranteed by the State, were formed for the purpose. By the end of 1859 contracts had been entered into with eight companies for the construction of 5,000 miles of line involving a guaranteed capital of 152 millions. These companies were (1) The East Indian, (2) the Great Indian Peninsula, (3) the Madras, (4) the Bombay, Baroda and Central India, (5) the Eastern Bengal, (6) the Indian Branch, now the Oudh and Rohilkund State Railway, (7) the Sind Punjab and Delhi now merged in the North Western State Railway, (8) the Great Southern of India now the South Indian Railway. The scheme laid the foundations of the Indian Railway system as it exists to-day.

Early Disappointments

The main principle in the formation of these companies was a Government guarantee on their capital, for this was the only condition on which investors would come forward. This guarantee was five per cent coupled with the free grant of all the land required, in return the companies were required to share the surplus profits with the Government, after the guaranteed interest had been met; the interest charges were calculated at 22½ to the rupee, the Railways were to be sold to Government on fixed terms at the close of twenty-five years and the Government were to exercise close control over expenditure and working. The early results were disappointing. Whilst the Railways greatly increased the efficiency of the administration, the mobility of the troops, the trade of the country, and the movement of the population, they failed to make profits sufficient to meet the guaranteed interest. Some critics attributed this to the unnecessarily high standard of construction adopted and to the engineers' ignorance of local conditions, the result was that by 1859 the deficit on the Railway budget was Rs 166½ lakhs. Seeking for some more economical method of construction, the Government

secured sanction to the building of lines direct State Agency, and funds were allotted for the purpose, the metre gauge being adopted for cheapness. Funds soon lapsed and the money available had to be diverted to converting the Sind and Punjab lines from metre to broad-gauge for strategic reasons. Government had therefore again to resort to a system of guarantee, and the Indian Midland (1852-85), since absorbed by the Great Indian Peninsula, the Bengal Nagpur (1858-8) the Southern Maratha (1882), and the Assam Bengal (1891) were constructed under guarantees, but on easier terms than the first companies. Their total length was over 4,000 miles.

Famine and Frontiers.

In 1879, embarrassed by famine and by the fall of the exchange value of the rupee, Government again endeavoured to enlist unaided private enterprise. Four companies were promoted—the Nilgiri, the Delhi-Umballa, Kalka, the Bengal Central, and the Bengal North-Western. The first became bankrupt; the second and third received guarantees; and the Tirhut Railway had to be leased to the fourth. A step of even greater importance was taken when Native States were invited to undertake construction of their own territories, and the Nizam's Government guaranteed the interest on 330 miles of line in the State of Hyderabad. This was the first of the large system of Native State Railways. In the first period up to 1874 255 miles were opened, of which all save 45 were on the broad gauge, during the next ten years there were opened 4,239, making the total 8,494 (on the broad gauge 6,562, 11 metre 1,865, and narrow 67). Then came a period of financial ease. It was broken by the fall in exchange and the costly lines built on the frontier. The Panjdeh incident, which brought Great Britain and Russia to the verge of war, necessitated the connection of our outposts at Quetta and Chaman with the main trunk lines. The sections through the desolate Harnai and Bolan Passes were enormous costly, it is said that they might have been ballasted with rupees, the long tunnel under the Khojak Pass added largely to this necessity, but unprofitable, outlay.

Rebate Terms Established.

This induced the fourth period—the system of rebates. Instead of a gold subsidy, companies were offered a rebate on the gross earnings of the traffic interchanged with the mail line so that the dividend might rise to 40 per cent but the rebate was limited to 20 per cent of the gross earnings. Under these conditions, there were promoted the Ahmedabad Prantel, the South Behar, and the Southern Punjab, although only in the case of the first were the terms strictly adhered to. The Bar Light Railway, on the two feet six inches gauge, entered the field without any guarantee, with rolling stock designed to illustrate its carrying power of this gauge. The rebate terms being found unattractive in view of the competition of 4 per cent. trustee stock they were revised in 1896 to provide for a

absolute guarantee of 3 per cent with a share of surplus profits, or rebate up to the full extent of the main line's net earnings in supplement of their own net earnings, the total being limited to 3½ per cent. on the capital outlay. Under these terms, a considerable number of feeder line companies was promoted, though in none were the conditions arbitrarily exacted. As these terms did not at first attain their purpose, they were further revised, and in lieu was substituted an increase in the rate of guarantee from 3 to 3½ per cent. and of rebate from 3½ to 5 per cent with equal division of surplus profits over 5 per cent in both cases. At last the requirements of the market were met, and there was for a time good a mild boom in feeder railway construction and the stock of all the sound companies promoted at a substantial premium. Conditions changed after the war and the Acworth Committee so far from approving of this system, considered that the aim of the Government should be to reduce by amalgamation the number of existing companies and that it should only be in cases where the State cannot or will not provide adequate funds that private enterprise in this direction should be encouraged.

The existing Branch Line Companies have ceased for some time to raise additional capital for capital requirements. They have either obtained overdrafts from various Banks for this purpose at heavy rates of interest or issued debentures at special rates of interest (usually about 7 per cent) or in several cases asked for money to be advanced to them by the Railway Board. So far, therefore, from reducing the amount that the Government of India have to raise in the open market, they are at present increasing that amount. It is proposed, therefore, to come to some arrangement with local authorities so that the construction of lines which are desired more on account of the administrative advantages which they are likely to confer or for the development of a particular area, can be arranged.

Railway Profits Commence

Meantime a much more important change was in progress. The gradual economic development of the country vastly increased the traffic, both passenger and goods. The falling in of the original contracts allowed Government to renew them on more favourable terms. The development of irrigation in the Punjab and Sind transformed the North-Western State Railway. Owing to the burden of maintaining the unprofitable Frontier lines, this was the Cinderella Railway in India—the scapegoat of the critics who protested against the unwisdom of constructing railways from borrowed capital. But with the completion of the Obanah and Jhelum Canals, the North-Western became one of the great grain lines of the world, choked with traffic at certain seasons of the year and making a large profit for the State. In 1900 the railways for the first time showed a small gain to the State. In succeeding years the net receipts grew rapidly. In the four years ended 1907-08 they averaged close upon 23 millions a year. In the following year there was a relapse. Bad harvests in India, accompanied by the monetary panic caused by the American financial crisis, led to a great falling off in receipts just

when working expenses were rising, owing to the general increase in prices. Instead of a profit, there was a deficit of \$1,340,000 in the railway accounts for 1908-09. But in the following year there was a reversion to a profit, and the net Railway gain has steadily increased. For the year ended March 1919 this gain amounted to \$10,573,000. Although in a country like India, where the finances are mainly dependent upon the character of the monsoon, the railway revenue must fluctuate, there was no reason to anticipate a further deficit, but the net railway gain decreased to \$2,767,000 in 1920-21 and there was an actual loss of £4,182,000 in 1921-22. As a result of the steps taken by the Railway Board, however, on the report of the Acworth Committee in 1921, this loss was changed into a gain of £813,000 in 1922-23 and this was further increased to a gain of £4,278,000 in 1923-24. Provided that the present railway policy is not influenced too much by political considerations the net railway gain should continue to improve.

Contracts Revised

One factor which helped to improve the financial position was the revision of the original contracts under which the guaranteed lines were constructed. The five per cent. dividend, guaranteed at 22½ per rupee and the half-yearly settlements made these companies a drain on the State at a time when their stock was at a high premium. The first contract to fall in was the East Indian, the great line connecting Calcutta with Delhi and the Northern provinces. When the contract lapsed, the Government exercised their right of purchasing the line, paying the purchase-money in the form of terminable annuities, derived from revenue, carrying with them a sinking fund for the redemption of capital. The railway thus became a State line, but it was released to the Company which actually works it. Under these new conditions the East Indian Company brought to the State in the ten years ended 1909 after meeting all charges, including the payments on account of the terminable annuity by means of which the purchase of the line was made, and interest on all capital outlay subsequent to the date of purchase, a clear profit of nearly ten millions. At the end of seventy-four years from 1880, when the annuity expired, the Government will come into receipt of a clear yearly income of upwards of £2,700,000, equivalent to the creation of a capital of sixty to seventy millions sterling. No other railway shows results quite equal to the East Indian, because, in addition to serving a rich country by an easy line, it possesses its own collieries and enjoys cheap coal. But with allowance for these factors, all the other guaranteed companies which have been acquired under similar conditions as their contracts expired, have proportionately swelled the revenue and assets of the State. It is difficult to estimate the amount which must be added to the capital debt of the Indian railways in order to counterbalance the loss during the period when the revenue did not meet the interest charges. According to one estimate it should be £50 millions. But even if that figure be taken Government have a magnificent asset in their railway property.

Improving Open Lines.

These changes induced a corresponding change in Indian Railway policy. Up to 1900 the great work had been the provision of trunk lines. But with the completion of the Nagda-Muttra line, providing an alternative broad gauge route from Bombay to Delhi through Eastern Rajputana, the trunk system was virtually complete. A direct broad gauge route from Bombay to Sind is needed, but chiefly for strategic purposes. The poor commercial prospects of the line and the opposition of the Rao of Duttch to any through line in his territories, keep this scheme in the background. There does not exist any through rail connection between India and Burma, although several routes have been surveyed. The mountainous character of the region to be traversed, and the easy means of communication with Burma by sea, rob this scheme of any living importance. Further Survey work was undertaken between 1914 and 1920, the three routes to be surveyed being the coast route, the Manipal route, and the Hukong valley route. The metre gauge systems of Northern and Southern India must also be connected and Karachi given direct broad-gauge connection with Delhi, a project that is now under investigation. But these works are subordinate to the necessity for bringing the open lines up to their traffic requirements and providing them with feeders. The sudden increase in the trade of India found the main lines totally unprepared. Costly works were necessary to double lines, improve the equipment, provide new and better yards and terminal facilities and to increase the rolling stock. Consequently the demands on the open lines have altogether overshadowed the provision of new lines. Even then the railway budget was found totally inadequate for the purpose, and a small Committee sat in London, under the chairmanship of Lord Inchoape, to consider ways and means. This Committee found that the amount which could be remuneratively spent on railway construction in India was limited only by the capacity of the money market. They fixed the annual allotment at £12,000,000 a year. Even this reduced sum cannot always be provided.

Government Control.

As the original contracts carried a definite Government guarantee of interest, it was necessary for Government to exercise strong supervision and control over the expenditure during construction, and over management and expenditure after the lines were open for traffic. For these purposes a staff of Consulting Engineers was formed, and a whole system of checks and counterchecks established, leading up to the Railway Branch of the Public Works Department of the Government of India. As traffic developed the Indian Railways outgrew this dry nursing, and when the original contracts expired, and the interests of Government and the Companies synchronised, it became not only vexatious but unnecessary. Accordingly in 1901-02 Mr Thomas Robertson was deputed by the Secretary of State to examine the whole question of the organisation and working of the Indian Railways, and he recommended that

the existing system should be replaced by a Railway Board, consisting of a Chairman and two members with a Secretary. The Board was formally constituted in March 1901. The Board is outside, but subordinate to the Government of India in which it is represented by the Department of Commerce and Industry. It prepares the railway programme, expenditure and considers the greater questions of policy and economy affecting all the lines. Its administrative duties include the construction of new lines by State agency, the carrying out of new works on open lines, the improvement of railway management with regard both to economy and public convenience, the arrangements for through traffic, the settlement of disputes between lines, the control and promotion of the staff on State lines, and the general supervision over the working and expenditure of the Companies' lines. Two minor changes have taken place since the constitution of the Railway Board. In 1908, to meet the complaint that the Board was subjected to excessive control by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the power of the Chairman were increased and he was given the status of a Secretary to Government with the right of independent access to the Viceroy. He usually sits in the Imperial Legislative Council as the representative of the Railway interest. In 1912 in consequence of complaints of the excessive interference of the Board with the Companies, an informal mission was undertaken by Lord Inchoape to reconcile differences. Various changes were introduced during the years 1912-1920 such as the modification of the rule that the President and members of the Railway Board should all be men of large experience in the working of railways due to the importance of financial and commercial considerations in connection with the control of Indian Railway policy. This decision was however, revised in 1920 and an additional appointment of Financial Adviser to the Railway Board created instead. The question of the most suitable organisation was further fully examined by the Acworth Committee in 1921 and a revised organisation which is described later was introduced from 1st April 1924.

Management.

The Railways managed by Companies have Boards of Directors in London. They are represented in India by an Agent, who has under him either a departmental organisation with a Traffic Manager, Chief Engineer, Locomotive and Carriage and Wagon Superintendent, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor or a divisional organisation with a Chief Operating Superintendent, Chief Traffic Manager, Chief Engineer, Chief Mechanical Engineer, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor. The state Railways are similarly organised.

Clearing House.

Proposals have several times been made for the establishment of a Clearing House but the distances are too great. The work which would ordinarily be done by the Clearing House is done by the Audit Office of each Railway.

The Railway Conference.

In order to facilitate the adjustment of domestic questions, the Railway Conference was instituted in 1878. This Conference was

consolidated into a permanent body in 1903 under the title of the Indian Railway Conference Association. It is under the direct control of the railways, it elects a President from amongst the members, and it has done much useful work.

The Indian Gauges.

The standard gauge for India is five feet six inches. When construction was started the broad gauge school was strong, and it was thought advisable to have a broad gauge in order to resist the influence of cyclones. But in 1870, when the State system was adopted it was decided to find a more economical gauge, for the open lines had cost £17,000 a mile. After much deliberation, the metre gauge of 3 feet 8½ inches was adopted, because at that time the idea of adopting the metric system for India was in the air. The original intention was to make the metre gauge lines provisional, they were to be converted into broad gauge as soon as the traffic justified it, consequently

they were built very light. But the traffic expanded with surprising rapidity, and it was found cheaper to improve the carrying power of the metre gauge lines than to convert them to the broad gauge. So, except in the Indus Valley, where the strategic situation demanded an unbroken gauge, the metre gauge lines were improved and they became a permanent feature in the railway system. Now there is a great metre gauge system north of the Ganges connected with the Rajputana lines and Kathia war. Another System in Southern India embracing the Southern Maratha and the South India Systems. These are not yet connected, but the necessary link from Khardwa by way of the Nizam's Hyderabad Godavari Railway, cannot be long delayed. All the Burma lines are on the metre gauge. Since the opening of the Barail line, illustrating the capacity of the two feet six inch gauge, there has been developed a tendency to construct feeders on this rather than on the metre gauge.

The following statement brings out the more important features of the operation of Indian railways during the year 1923-24 together with similar information for the year 1922-23—

Mileage open on the 31st March—

	1922-23	1923-24
1 Single line	34,453 07	34,510 15
2 Double line or more	3,164 84	3,228 87
3 Total route mileage	37,617 91	38,038 52
4 Total track mileage	50,219 74	50,934 88

Capital and Revenue Earnings and Expenditure—

5 Total capital at charge including ferries and suspense on open line	Rs	6,97,46,07,000	7,17,98,02,000
6 Gross earnings	"	1,05,65,19,000	1,07,79,66,000
7 Gross earnings per train mile	"	6 59	6 78
8 Working expenses	"	72,99,49,000	68,44,77,000
9 Working expenses per train mile	"	4 82	4 81
10 Net earnings	"	32,65,70,000	39,34,89,000
11 Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings	"	69 09	63 50
12 Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay	"	4 68	5 48

Equipment—

13 Locomotives	9,740	9,988
14 Passenger carriages	*19,663	*20,068
15 Other passenger vehicles	*5,082	*5,177
16 Goods stock	†209,134	†214,011

Passenger Traffic—

17 Number of passengers carried	572,621,400	599,029,800
18 Passenger miles	18,928,706,000	19,448,523,000
19 Average journey	Miles 33 5	32 6
20 Earnings from passengers carried	Rs 37,59,22,000	38,07,15,000
21 Average rate charged per passenger per mile	Pies 3 78	3 75
22 Total coaching earnings	Rs 43,82,67,000	44,05,26,000

Goods Traffic—

23 Number of tons carried	93,845,000	98,210,000
24 Net ton miles	18,373,696,000	18,940,768,000
25 Average haul	196 8	192 8
26 Earnings from tonnage carried	Rs 58,02,32,000	60,28,94,000
27 Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile	Pies 6 05	6 18
28 Total goods earnings	Rs 58,30,04,000	60,63,69,000

Number of employees

749,680 727,083

At the close of the year 1923-24 the total capital invested in railways was Rs 7,17,98,02,000 represented by a property which in terms of route mileage amounted to 38,038 miles of railway. This property brought in to the owners a return of 5 48 per cent on the

* Excluding departmental vehicles

† Excluding Railway service wagons.

capital at charge. Similar figures for the railways owned by the State are —

	Rs
Total capital at charge	6,83,84,24,000
Total route mileage	27,078
Return on capital outlay	5.23

After providing for interest, annuity and other similar charges the working of the State owned railways resulted in a net gain of Rs. 6,41,26,000 as compared with a net gain of Rs. 12,099,000 in the previous year. This result was largely due to reductions in working expenses, the percentage on gross earnings having dropped from 69.09 per cent. to 63.5 per cent.

Railway Board Reorganised.—The machinery by which the Government of India controls the railways of the country has been frequently under review in the past. The basis of the system which was superseded in April 1924 was evolved in 1904 as a result of the investigations of Mr Robertson and the Railway Board was established in the following year. Some of the difficulties involved in the constitution of a controlling authority for the railways of India may be realised from a study of the 'Notes on the Relation of the Government to Railways in India' printed as an appendix to the Railway Administration report for 1922-23. These notes bring out the great diversity of conditions prevailing which involve the Railway Department in the exercise of the functions of —

- (a) the directly controlling authority of the three State worked systems aggregating 9,028 miles,
- (b) the representative of the predominant owning partner in systems aggregating 22,949 miles,
- (c) the guarantor of many of the smaller companies, and
- (d) the statutory authority over all railways in India.

Moreover in all questions relating to railways of extra municipal tramways in which Provincial Governments are concerned, the Railway Department is called upon to watch the interests of the Central Government and is frequently asked to advise the Local Governments. Its duties do not end there. The future development of railways depends largely on the Government of India and the Railway Department is therefore called upon to plan out schemes of development, to investigate and survey new lines and to arrange for financing their construction. The statement of the varied responsibilities of the Government of India in regard to railways might be extended almost indefinitely. It will perhaps be sufficient to mention only the complications that may and do arise owing to the very considerable railway mileage in Indian States. In the exercise of all these functions the Railway Department is a Department of the Government of India, its policy must be in accord with the policy of the Government as a whole and every decision must be made with that consideration in mind. The evolution of a satisfactory authority for the administration of these varied functions has proved extremely difficult and the question was one of those referred to the

Railway Committee (1920-21) presided over by Sir William Anworth who expressed the unanimous opinion that material changes were necessary in the constitution of the Railway Board. Amongst their recommendations they advised the early appointment of a Chief Commissioner of Railways whose first duty should be to prepare a definite scheme for the reorganisation of the Railway Department and Mr. C. D. M. Hindley formerly Agent of the East Indian Railway and Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust was appointed Chief Commissioner on November 1st, 1922.

The principal constitutional change involved in this appointment is that the Chief Commissioner who takes the place of the President of the Railway Board is solely responsible—under the Government of India—for arriving at decisions on technical matters and for advising the Government of India on matters of railway policy and is not, as was the President, subject to be out voted and over-ruled by his colleagues on the Board. The detailed re-organisation of the Railway Board in accordance with the Chief Commissioner's proposals required careful consideration but one of the most important of his recommendations namely the appointment of a Financial Commissioner was considered of particular urgency and the Secretary of State's sanction was therefore obtained to the appointment of Mr. G. G. Sim, C.I.E., I.C.S., who joined the Board on April 1st 1924. While in the person of the Chief Engineer the Railway Board has always had available the technical advice of a senior Civil Engineer in Mechanical Engineering questions it has had to depend on outside assistance. The disadvantages of this arrangement have become increasingly evident and it was therefore decided with effect from November 1st, 1922 to create the new appointment of Chief Mechanical Engineer with the Railway Board.

In the new organisation adopted from the 1st of April 1924, the Board consists of a Chief Commissioner, a Financial Commissioner and two Members, one of whom deals more particularly with traffic and establishment questions while the other deals with technical questions relating to civil and mechanical engineering.

Under the members are four Directors for

- (1) Traffic.
- (2) Mechanical Engineering
- (3) Civil Engineering
- (4) Establishment

These Directors are executive officers and heads of branches and have the power to decide questions which do not affect the policy of the Board.

Working under the Directors are Deputy Directors of Traffic, Stores, Projects, Way and Works and Establishment and an Assistant Director, Technical in charge of the Drawing Branch. In addition a Deputy Director in charge of statistics has been appointed.

The Deputy Directors are immediately in charge of branches dealing with definite phases of the working. The Traffic Branch deals with both the operating and commercial sides of traffic working, the Stores Branch deals mainly with the calling for tenders and placing of orders for all classes of rolling stock and generally with the supply of stores and materials. In

will not be deemed to have accrued for purposes of division until such deduction has been made good. From the contribution so fixed will be deducted the loss in working, and the interest on capital expenditure on strategic lines.

(3) Any surplus profits that exist after payment of these charges shall be available for the railway administration to be utilised in

(a) forming reserves for

(i) equalising dividends, that is to say, for securing the payment of the percentage contribution to the general revenues in lean years,

(ii) depreciation,

(iii) writing down and writing off capital,

(b) the improvement of services rendered to the public.

(c) the reduction of rates.

(4) The railway administration shall be entitled, subject to such conditions as may be prescribed by the Government of India, to borrow temporarily from capital or from the reserves for the purpose of meeting expenditure for which there is no provision or insufficient provision in the revenue budget subject to the obligation to make repayment of borrowings out of the revenue budgets of subsequent years.

(5) In accordance with present practice the figures of gross receipts and expenditure of railways will be included in the Budget Statement. The proposed expenditure will, as at present, be placed before the Legislative Assembly in the form of a demand for grants and on a separate day or days among the days allotted for the discussion of the demands for grants. The Member in charge of the Railways will make a general statement on railway accounts and working. Any reductions in the demand for grants for railways resulting from the votes of the Legislative Assembly will not ensure to general revenues, i.e., will not have the effect of increasing the fixed contribution for the year.

(6) The Railway Department will place the estimate of railway expenditure before the Central Advisory Council on some date prior to the date for the discussion of the demand for grants for railways."

When introducing this resolution the Hon'ble Member for Commerce stated that it had been represented to him that there was a general feeling in the House that before the House was asked to commit itself to those proposals it should be allowed to refer them to a committee of the House. He further stated that he had no objection to this course provided that the committee met rapidly. This was agreed to and members were appointed.

The committee met twice and considered the resolution but was not able within the time allowed to satisfy itself fully as to the effect of the proposals in the resolution on the control of the Assembly over railway finance and policy and as to the amount and form of contribution to be paid by the railways to general revenues. In the circumstances, the committee recommended that the consideration of the resolution be adjourned till the autumn session to allow the committee further time for examination. Government raised no objection to this proposal and it was agreed to by the Assembly.

The resolution was further examined by the Standing Finance Committee in September and as a result of the views expressed by the committee and in the Assembly certain modifications were introduced. The final resolution agreed to by the Assembly on September 30th, 1924 and accepted by Government differed from the original resolution in that the yearly contribution had been placed at 1 per cent. instead of 5/6th per cent on the capital at charge and if the surplus remaining after this payment to General Revenue should exceed 3 crores, only 1/3rd of the excess over 3 crores were to be transferred to the Railway Reserve and the remaining 2/3rd was to accrue to General Revenue. At the same time a Standing Finance Committee for Railways was to be constituted to examine the estimate of railways expenditure and the demand for grants the programme revenue expenditure being shown under a depreciation fund. This committee was to consist of one nominated official member of the Legislative Assembly as Chairman and 11 members elected by the Legislative Assembly from that body. This would be in addition to the Central Advisory Council which will include the Members of the Standing Finance Committee and certain other official and non-official members from the Legislative Assembly and Council of State. These arrangements were to be subject to periodic revision but to be provisionally tried for at least 8 years. They would, however, only hold good as long as the E I Railway and the G I P Railway and existing State Managed Railways remain under State management and if any contract for the transfer of any of the above to Company management was concluded against the advice of the Assembly, the Assembly would be at liberty to terminate the arrangements in this resolution.

The Assembly in an addendum recommended that the railway services and the Railway Board should be rapidly Indianised and that the stores for the State Managed Railways should be purchased through the organisation of the Indian Stores Department.

Re-organisation problems.—The growing complexity of railway administration in India and the evolution of new methods of controlling traffic have given a stimulus to the efforts of various railways to revise their organisations. The general direction in which this re-organisation is being considered is that of consolidation into one department of the operating or transportation work of the railway, including the provision of power. The advisability of adopting the divisional system in place of the present rather highly centralised departmental system has also been receiving attention and was adopted on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway during 1923-25. This entailed—

(a) the separation of the commercial and operative duties of the Traffic Department,

(b) the separation of the mechanical and running duties of the Locomotive Department,

(c) the fusion of the operative duties of the Traffic Department with the running duties of the Locomotive Department.

Under the new organisation there is now—

(1) a Chief Transportation Superintendent in charge of all operating functions,

(2) a Chief Traffic Manager in charge of the commercial side of the railway,

(3) a Chief Mechanical Engineer in charge of the design and construction of engines and of all repairs and renewals of engines carried out in the central workshops

This organisation is more or less similar to the divisional organisation found on most American Railways with the exception that the Engineering Department still works on a departmental basis

A somewhat similar organisation was introduced on the North-Western Railway from 1st October 1924, except that it follows rather the organisation in force on the South Africa Railways where the railways are divided into a number of areas or divisions each under one chief officer and all reporting to the General Manager who is assisted by a number of principal officers in charge of definite phases of the working. The question of introducing a similar organisation on the East Indian, Oodh and Rohilkhand, and Eastern Bengal Railways is under consideration

Revision of Railway statistics.—A Committee consisting of one officer from the Traffic Department and one from the Audit Department of the North Western Railway was appointed in October 1922 to suggest alterations in the existing administrative statistics furnished by railways to the Railway Board and to bring them into line with present up-to-date practice. For many years after the first railways were opened, such statistics as were produced were primarily directed towards showing the return on capital invested, although some commodity statistics were also prepared to some extent for trade purposes. It was only when comparisons between different railway systems came to be a matter of interest that statistics of actual working were found to be necessary and even then the tabulation and examination of these figures were directed primarily towards ascertaining the ultimate cost of transportation as a marketable commodity. The introduction of scientific methods of railway working in recent years, however, has shown that properly prepared statistics form a most valuable portion of the machinery whereby the railway management is able to improve efficiency in the details of working and effect economies in working costs.

The existing statistics are based on the report of a Committee which sat in 1880 to revise the form of the statistics. Considerable changes have been introduced since then, and certain individual railway administrations have made considerable progress in the introduction of modern railway statistics, but the Acworth Committee which sat in 1921 criticised the figures prepared and used for the purposes of the Railway Board as being out of date and not in conformity with present-day practice.

The main changes recommended by the Committee of 1922 and accepted by the Railway Board are—

(1) The introduction of monthly statistics in addition to the yearly statistics at present furnished to the Railway Board

(2) The classification of railways under three classes for statistical purposes.

The former change will ensure the supply of up-to-date information of the working of railways to the Railway Board and will enable railways to compare their own working with that of other railways month by month as is done in England and America. The second change will relieve the smaller railways of the necessity for compiling the detailed statistics which larger railways have to prepare.

Revised Statistics were introduced from 1st October 1923 on all railways and already their value has been proved as not only on railways able to compare their results with those obtained by other railways but the Railway Board is in possession of up-to-date figures of working of all railways. Stating from April 1924 the complete monthly statistics of all class I Railways have been published on the lines of the monthly statements issued by the Ministry of Transport for English Railways and on sale to the public.

The outlay during the year 1923-24 was Rs. 21.83 crores, of which Rs. 19.71 crores represented expenditure incurred on State-owned lines.

Capital Programme.—The Government of India has decided definitely to provide the sum of Rs. 150 crores for expenditure on the rehabilitation of railways during the quinquennial commencing with 1923-23. The programme of works on which that sum was based was prepared in 1921 at a time when prices of materials were still high and unstable. Moreover the position of the general revenues of India rendered impossible the provision of the full amount, chargeable to revenue expenditure, which the capital programme involved. These conditions coupled with the fact that 1922-23 was the first year of the quinquennium and many of the larger works were therefore in the preliminary stages explain why less than 2-3rds of the annual quota of the Rs. 150 crores were actually expended. The original programme provided for a general increase in facilities which had long been recognised as essential. If the railways were to render a reasonably efficient service. While many of these works would certainly give an adequate and immediate return, in the case of others it was found difficult without further examination to justify the proposed expenditure. In March 1923 the report of the Inchope Committee was received. In dealing with the capital programme that Committee recommended that, except in the case of commitments already entered upon, no further capital expenditure should be incurred on certain lines classed by the Committee as unremunerative, until the whole position has been examined by the Financial Commissioner and reviewed by Government. And further that if the full amount of the capital could not be immediately employed on remunerative works on open lines, it would be a matter for consideration whether some portion of it could not with advantage be devoted to the construction of new lines promising an adequate return. In view of these recommendations it was decided that the capital expenditure proposed for 1923-24 must be re-examined and that as regards the years 1924-25 to 1926-27 the whole programme must be reconst. This was carried out

during 1923-24 and at the same time the recommendations of the Income Committee were considered by the Central Advisory Council who endorsed the policy proposed as likely to be of value to India as a whole.

Trade review—The earnings of railways are dependent on the general prosperity of the country which in the case of India is most easily measured by the agricultural position and the returns of foreign trade. Judged by the usual criteria, there was on the whole a small improvement in the trade of the country as while there were increases under some heads there were

decreases in others. This is reflected in the fact that the total earnings of all railways only increased from Rs. 105.65 crores to Rs. 107.80 crores.

Earnings.—Of the total earnings of Rs. 107.80 crores Rs. 38.09 crores or 35.33 per cent were from passenger traffic and Rs. 69.64 crores or 64.67 per cent from goods traffic. The earnings from passengers carried increased from Rs. 37.59 crores to Rs. 38.09 crores or 1.33 per cent. The following table shows the numbers of and earnings from passengers carried separately for each class for the 4 years previous to the War and for the last 4 years.

Year	Number of passengers carried (in thousands)				
	1st class	2nd class	Inter class	3rd class.	Season & vendors' tickets.
1910	778	2,062	11,033	332,463	24,341
1911	790	2,135	11,762	348,479	25,687
1912	796	2,223	10,833	375,567	26,810
1913-14	812	2,461	12,371	410,960	30,114
1920-21	1,143	7,129	11,750	490,230	48,936
1921-22	1,125	6,404	9,264	500,515	52,576
1922-23	917	5,133	8,129	502,776	55,665
1923-24	817	4,538	8,095	512,974	58,084

Year	Earnings from passengers (in thousands of rupees).				
	1st class	2nd class	Inter class.	3rd class.	Season & vendors' tickets.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1910	58.82	77.23	94.09	14,65.16	15.25
1911	66.38	83.83	103.88	15,73.15	16.25
1912	62.90	88.31	91.37	17,01.25	17.55
1913-14	68.94	88,70	103.48	18,57.03	19.38
1920-21	1,30.48	2,26.49	191.19	28,91.25	37.24
1921-22	1,38.47	2,23.91	145.06	23,75.29	41.53
1922-23	1,39.72	2,11.77	139.30	22,20.85	43.43
1923-24	1,29.80	1,96.99	137.63	22,91.78	51.70

It will be noticed that the numbers of and earnings from third class passengers carried show a more or less steady increase but the numbers of and earnings from 1st, 2nd and inter class passengers carried for the last 4 years have decreased. These figures indicate that the present 1st, 2nd and inter class fares are

higher than the traffic can bear and the question what steps should be taken to encourage this traffic is being carefully examined.

The following statement shows by commodities the number of tons of freight originating and the earnings from freight carried on Class 1 Railways during the last two years.

Commodity.	1922 23		1923 24	
	Tons originating on Home line in Millions	Rs in crores	Tons originating on Home line in Millions	Rs in crores
(1) Coal and Coke	14 66	8 39	14 67	8 22
(2) Railway Stores	20 30	2 95	21 97	3 22
(3) Wheat	1 57	2 34	1 76	2 75
(4) Rice in the husk and Rice not in the husk	3 85	3 68	3 96	3 85
(5) Gram and pulse Jowar and Bajra and other grains and Pulses	2 71	3 66	2 54	5 48
(6) Marble and Stone	1 84	0 71	2 16	0 78
(7) Metallic Ores	1 64	1 12	2 20	1 06
(8) Salt	1 56	2 07	1 12	1 43
(9) Wood unwrought	1 57	1 10	1 53	1 02
(10) Sugar refined and unrefined	0 51	1 06	0 56	1 22
(11) Oilseeds	2 04	3 28	2 29	3 56
(12) Cotton raw and manufactured	1 49	5 86	1 49	5 69
(13) Jute, raw	0 75	1 08	0 89	1 27
(14) Fodder	0 72	0 56	0 77	0 60
(15) Fruits and Vegetables fresh	0 76	0 74	0 72	0 71
(16) Iron and steel wrought	0 64	1 41	0 78	1 58
(17) Kerosine oil	0 72	1 58	0 76	1 67
(18) Gur Jagree molasses etc	0 75	1 34	0 83	1 35
(19) Other Commodities	10 27	12 27	10 70	12 01
Total	68 35	56 23	72 54	58 47

The number of tons originating and the earnings for 1923 24 show only a small increase as compared with the figures of the previous year. The largest increase was in the earnings from carriage of grains and pulses which increased from Rs 3 66 crores to Rs 5 48 crores.

The working expenses of State railways decreased from Rs 65 96 crores in 1922 23 to Rs 61 05 crores in 1923 24. The summary below shows the distribution of this expenditure between the various departments —

Department	Work	Amount spent in	
		1922 23	1923 24
Engineering	Maintenance of way works and stations	Rs in crores 19 08	Rs in crores 12 29
Locomotive	Maintenance and renewing of engines and cost of fuel and running stores and other expenses attached to provision of motive power	23 31	21 74
Carriage and Wagon	Maintenance and running of carriages and wagons	9 17	7 99
Traffic	Working of trains from a business standpoint, i.e. booking of passengers and goods and arrangements for transport	10 58	9 78
Agency and others	Agents office expenses Audit, Stores Medical and Police charges etc	4 99	4 43
Ferry	Steam boat expenses	0 28	0 23
Miscellaneous	Law charges compensation contribution to Provident Fund etc	4 22	4 65
Suspense		—0 27	—0 14
Total		65 96	61 05

In spite of an increase in the traffic dealt with there was a saving of Rs. 4.90 crores of which Rs 1.46 crores was due to less expenditure under programme revenue and so cannot be considered as a true saving as it was due to deferred maintenance. The true saving can then be taken as Rs 3.44 crores of which the majority or Rs 1.40 crores is found in the Locomotive Department due to decreased consumption of foreign coal and improved efficiency of working. There were also savings in the other departments due to increased efficiency such as in the case of the Traffic Department in a large reduction in the amount paid as compensation for goods damaged or lost.

Open Mileage—The total route mileage on March 31st, 1924 was 38,088.52 made up of—
 5-6" gauge 18,640.35 miles
 Metre gauge 15,659.21 "
 Narrow gauge 3,788.96 "

Under the new classification adopted for statistical purposes, this mileage is divided between the three classes of railways as follows—

Class I 34,761.65 Miles = 91.5 per cent
 Class II 1,868.06 " = 4.8 "
 Class III 1,408.81 " = 3.7 "

Class I includes all the 5-6" gauge mileage 14,158.87 or about 90 per cent of the metre gauge and 19,624.3 or 52.5 per cent of the narrow gauge.

The State-owned 27,073.00 miles or about 73 per cent and directly managed 9,178.35 miles or about 24 per cent of the total.

During the year 1923-24 1,480.12 miles of new lines were opened for public traffic. Of this mileage 422.48 miles belong to Class I, and 7.64 miles to Class II railways.

Additions to Equipment.—Statements No. V—Statement of Equipment and No. IX—Statement of net additions to Equipment—summarise the equipment and the net additions to equipment during 1923-24 on Indian Railways. Statements Nos 10, 11, 32 and 33 give this information in more detail for individual lines.

It will be seen that on Class I railways there were additions of 168 and 65 Broad and Metre gauge Locomotives bringing the respective totals up to 6,564 and 2,715.

In the case of passenger carriages on Class I railways net additions of 237 to the stock of broad gauge vehicles brought the total up to 10,091 and similar figures for the metre gauge were net additions 127 and total 7,577. The following table shows total figures of seating accommodation under the four classes.

Class I Railways	Number of seats in passenger carriages			
	1st	2nd	Inter	Third
5-6"	21,802	40,724	48,837	567,828
3-4"	10,089	13,851	9,547	821,342

The additions to the goods stock of Class I railways were 4,650 covered and 1,883 open broad gauge and 2,452 covered and 179 open metre gauge wagons.

Purchase of Rolling Stock—The following table shows the value of rolling stock purchased by Indian Railways in 1923-24—

	Value of imported materials			Value of indigenous materials	Total purchases, 1923-24	Total purchases, 1922-23
	Purchased direct	Purchased through Indian firms	Total imported materials			
	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores
Locomotive and spare parts	3.57	05	3.62	06	3.68	3.67
Coaching stock	22	01	23	07	30	66
Goods stock	1.88	01	1.89	15	2.04	1.60
Spare parts coaching and goods stock	4.28	32	4.60	22	4.82	4.51
Motor cars	01	01	02		02	03
Total	9.96	40	10.36	50	10.86	10.47

Without going into details beyond the scope of this report, it is impossible to connect these figures with the number of locomotives and rolling stock brought into use during the year. The expenditure on locomotives, etc., besides including the cost of spare parts for repairs represents payments for f.o.b. deliveries at foreign ports of engines which at the close of the year may have been still at sea or under erection in India. In the case of wagon contracts too the position is complicated. It has, for example, the practice in the case of wagons purchased in India to make advance payments for raw material when received by the contractors.

Progressive Policy—Considerable progress was made during 1924 in investigating new methods and adopting improved ideas. For example, the Railway Board have decided to recommend the adoption of a centre buffer coupler to all railways and railways have been asked to experiment with transition devices in order to evolve a satisfactory transition gear during the transition period.

The first Mallet engine for use on the broad gauge was received in India for service on the Quetta District of the N. W. Railway. The engine is a 2-6-6-3 articulated compound type fitted with superheater and the tractive effort at 85 per cent working pressure is 52 600 pounds. At the same time a Garrett engine which is another special type of articulated engine has been ordered and expected to arrive during 1924-25. These two engines will be tried on the same section and it will then be possible to decide which is the best type of engine for use on heavy grades.

A comprehensive enquiry was carried during the year into the resources of supply of timber sleepers in India and Burma and the development of such resources. Owing to the increasing difficulty of obtaining a sufficient supply of suitable hard wood sleepers and to the rise in the price of sleepers it became necessary to consider the possibility of opening up new forest areas of substituting new varieties of indigenous timber, suitably treated if necessary,

and of using larger numbers of steel, cast-iron and ferro concrete sleepers.

A second enquiry is being made into the possibility of using the cheaper varieties of timber suitably treated for carriage building and of introducing artificial means of seasoning timbers to obviate the necessity of having to keep in stock large supplies of timber.

Considerable progress was made during the year on all railways in reducing expenditure by such methods as—

- (1) reduction of staff,
- (2) improved methods of operation,
- (3) reduction in stores balances,
- (4) increased use of scrap materials
- (5) economy in the use of stores and employment of cheaper materials where possible etc., etc.

British Empire Exhibition—The exhibits from Indian Railways occupied a space of over 4 000 square feet in the Indian pavilion and all the more important railways sent exhibits which were placed in three courts. The outer boundary of two courts was designed in the Moghul style of architect while that of the third court was in the Dravidian Temple style as more representative of the railways in the south of India. Generally speaking the exhibits consisted of models of various classes of stock, stations, bridges, wagon ferries general offices and included an exhibit illustrating the development of transportation in Southern India. Considerable interest was shown in these exhibits by the general public and many visitors realised for the first time the high standard reached by railways in India.

Financial Results of Working—The total gross earnings of all railways in India during the year 1923-24 amounted to Rs 107 80 crores as compared with 105 65 crores in 1922-23. These figures, however, include railways owned by Indian States and companies for which the Govt. of India has no direct financial responsibility. The figures of receipts and expenditure for railways with which the Government are directly concerned are as follows—

	Rs (in thousands)
Traffic receipts from Government Railways	94,65.52
Government share of surplus profits from subsidised companies railways	28.84
Total	94,94.36
	Rs
Working Expenses	61,06.28
Surplus Profits paid to Companies	1,14.46
Interest on Government debt	17 53.64
Interest on Capital contributed by Companies	2,09.94
Annuities in purchase of railways	4 69.82
Sinking Funds	47.75
Land and subsidy to Companies	5.40
Miscellaneous	4.80
Total charges	86,80.50
Net gain	8,13.87

After meeting all interest and security charges Government therefore received a net profit of 6.59 crores as against a profit of 1.22 crores in 1922-23. On the capital at charge of the State lines the net receipts, that is the gross receipts minus the working expenses, have in recent years given the following returns —

	Per cent
1913-14	5.01
1921-22	2.64
1922-23	4.88
1923-24	5.24

Up to date figures of the results of working of other countries are not available, but the following table compares the latest available figures of average receipts per ton mile of those countries which have published statistics of working later than 1919 —

	Receipts per ton mile Pies
United States of America 1923	7.29*
United Kingdom 1922	19.3
South Africa	9.79
Switzerland 1921	46.08

United States of America	
France—State Lines only	
All Lines	
English Railways	
South African Railways	
Argentine Railways	
Canadian Railways	
India	

	Receipts per ton-mile. Pies.
South Australia 1921-22	22.06
Canadian Railways 1923	6.43*
India 1923-24	6.13

* Corrected at \$ 4 40=1

In the case of receipts per passenger mile the figures for United States of America and India are as follows —

United States of America, 1922	19.64 pies.
India, 1923-24	3.8 "

while in England the present fare charged per mile third class is 18 pies

From the above it will be seen that railway transportation of freight in India is probably the cheapest in the world and still more so in the case of passenger traffic

An examination of the latest available figures of operating ratios of foreign countries brings out results not unfavourable to Indian Railways

Year	Operating Ratio
1923	77.97 per cent
1922	115 " "
1921	89 " "
1920	81.22 " "
1919	77.1 " "
1922-23	74.34 to 85.20 " "
1921-22	86.25 " "
1920	69.09 " "
1919	68.50 " "

Value of Railway Materials Purchased—The value of materials purchased by Indian railways in 1923-24 (excluding coal, coke, stone, bricks, lime, ballast, etc.) showed a decrease of Rs 3.80 crores as compared with the value of materials purchased in 1922-23

	Value of Imported materials			Value of indigenous materials	Total purchases, 1923-24	Total purchases, 1922-23
	Purchased direct	Purchased through Agents in India	Total imported materials			
	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores
Rolling stock	9.96	40	10.36	50	10.86	10.47
Tools and stores	1.30	2.30	3.60	3.46	7.06	10.13
Permanent way	1.50	2.8	1.78	4.10	5.88	7.54
Electrical plant	64	24	88	01	89	86
Buildings and station materials and fencing	28	16	44	14	58	58
Bridge work	69	08	77	06	82	58
Workshop machinery	67	11	78	78	78	82
Engineer's plant	13	05	18	01	19	23
Total	15.17	8.62	18.79	8.27	27.06	30.86

Railway Collieries—Considerable progress was made in the acquisition and development of railway collieries during 1923-24 and the Secretary of State's sanction to the acquisition of the following collieries was received: Argada,

Bellgarh, Dari and Bhurkunda all in the South Kanara Coalfield. The out-turn of railway owned collieries during 1923-24 was 1,622,876 tons out of a total of 1,84,064 tons consumed on railways. The cost of raising compares

very favourably with the market price and in the interests of cheap transportation the policy of railway owned collieries has been fully justified.

Stores Balances—Further steps were taken during 1923-24 to reduce the stores balances on railways and in this connection a conference of Controllers of Stores and Audit Officers was called and the steps to be taken were discussed with them and the Agents of Class I Railways. As a result of these discussions it was decided among other things that existing stocks should be written down to current market rates surplus stock should be disposed of large stocks of stores obtained by local purchase should not be maintained and additional grants should be given to enable railways to utilise materials in stock for programme revenue works.

Number of Staff—The total number of railway employees at the end of the financial year 1923-24 was 727,093 as compared with 749,680 for the previous year. This is a decrease of 22,587 in number in spite of an increase in mileage of 430.12 miles of the 727,093 employees 6,642 were Europeans 11,509 Anglo Indians and 708,942 Indians. Similar figures for 1913-14 were Europeans 7,986 Anglo Indians 10,437 and Indians 614,882 which make up a total of 693,895.

The position regarding the more extended employment of Indians in the higher grades of railway service was reviewed in considerable detail in the Administration Report for 1921-22. Since then the public interest in this question has been maintained finding voice in the press and by interpellations in the Legislature. The Government of India have throughout maintained the attitude that every reasonable means should be adopted to increase the number of Indians in the higher grades in so far as such increase is consistent with efficiency and economy. A very thorough report on the steps

to be taken to improve the facilities for training Indians was proposed by Mr. H. L. Cole and on the advice of the Central Advisory Council in July 1923 it was arranged that an officer should be placed on special duty to make definite recommendations in regard to the measures which should be adopted immediately. As a result of the work done by this officer the Railway Board were in a position to place before the Central Advisory Council their proposals in February 1924 and after considering their views the Railway Board decided to proceed with the scheme at once so far as the State Railways were concerned and the whole question was also discussed with Agents of Class I Railways so as to ensure the active co-operation of Company managed railways.

The subject divides itself into two main parts—

(1) The method of recruitment to be adopted in future for appointment to the officer and senior subordinate grades and for providing the necessary facilities for training either before or after recruitment.

(2) The means to be provided for training in their current duties the existing subordinate staff of all classes.

It is proposed to start a Central Transportation School in the United Provinces and considerable progress with this scheme has been made during 1924.

Fatalities and Injuries—During 1923-24 there was an increase of 78 in the number of persons killed and a decrease of 22 in the number of persons injured as compared with the figures of 1922-23. This increase of 78 was wholly due to an increase in the number of persons other than passengers—railway servants killed. The following table shows the numbers killed and injured separately under passengers, railway servants and others for 1923-24 as compared with 1922-23:—

	Killed		Injured	
	1922-23	1923-24	1922-23	1923-24
A Passengers—				
(1) Accidents to trains rolling stock permanent way etc	30	63	154	214
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	364	300	1,170	1,088
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	11	9	44	20
B Servants—				
(1) Accidents to trains rolling stock permanent way etc	80	21	125	374
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	345	355	671	585
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	47	41	554	561
C Others—				
(1) Accidents to trains rolling stock permanent way, etc	17	65	24	39
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	1,890	1,945	712	678
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	6	19	15	36
Total	2,740	2,818	3,466	3,447

Of the total number of persons killed 1,607 were trespassers on the line and 343 committed suicide. Thus 1,850 or over 65 per cent of the persons killed on railway premises were for causes over which the railways have no control.

Local Advisory Committees—By July 1924 Local Advisory Committees had been formed on all Class I State Railways with the exception of the B N Ry where this question is still under consideration. A wide range of subjects was discussed at these meetings and particular attention was paid to such subjects as improvement of facilities for inter and third class passengers, increased facilities for merchants, timings of trains and running of through carriages etc.

Compensation for loss and damage to goods in transit—A great improvement was made during 1923-24 in reducing the amount paid in compensation for loss and damage to goods in transit, the total reduction on Class I Railways being Rs 42 lakhs. The full effect of the measures taken on railways such as the reorganisation of the Watch and Ward Staff has not yet had time to take place and a further improvement is expected during the next year.

As a result of a resolution adopted in the Legis-

lative Assembly in March 1923, a Committee was appointed to revise the existing risk note forms. The recommendations of this Committee, received in September 1923, involve considerable changes in the form of risk note aiming chiefly at imposing on the railways the onus of proof in cases where losses appeared to be *prima facie* due to misconduct of railway staff. After obtaining the views of Local Governments, Railway Administrations and Chambers of Commerce on these recommendations, the revised forms were referred to the legal advisers of Government. Revised risk note forms A B D G and H have been issued and have been notified as coming into force from 1st October 1924.

Conditions of 3rd Class Travel—The desirability of improving the conditions of travel of third class passengers has been constantly referred to in the press and in the Legislature and considerable progress was made during 1923-24 in providing extra facilities of which details have been given in the Assembly from time to time and in the report by the Railway Board for 1923-24. It was found that the knowledge of local conditions possessed by Local Advisory Committees was most useful in helping Railway Administrations to find out when facilities were required.

THE CHIEF RAILWAYS IN INDIA

The Assam-Bengal Railway, which is constructed on the metre gauge, starts from Chittagong and runs through Burma Valley across the North Cachar Hills into Assam. It is worked under a limited guarantee by a company.

Mileage open	1,049 09
Capital at charge	Rs 20,23 17 000
Net earnings	Rs. 46,78,000
Earnings per cent	2 30

Bengal and North-Western.

The Bengal and North-Western Railway was constructed on the metre gauge system by a company without any Government assistance other than free land and was opened to traffic in 1885. The system was begun in 1874 as the Tirhut State Railway. In 1890 this line was leased by Government to the Bengal and North-Western Railway. Since then extensive additions have been made in both sections. It is connected with the Rajputana metre gauge system at Cawnpore and with the Eastern Bengal State Railway at Khatibhar and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at Benares.

Mileage open	2,062 37
Capital at charge	Rs 19,51,43,000
Net earnings	Rs 1,74,23,000
Earnings per cent	9 08

Bengal-Nagpur

The Bengal Nagpur Railway was commenced as a metre gauge from Nagpur to Chhatishgarh in the Central Provinces in 1887. A company was formed under a guarantee which took over the line, converted it to the broad gauge and extended it to Howrah, Cuttack and Katali. In 1901 a part of the East Coast State Railway from Cuttack to Vinayapatnam was transferred to it and in the same year

sanction was given for an extension to the coal fields and for a connection with the Branch or the East Indian Railway at Barharpur.

Mileage open	2,939 35
Capital at charge	Rs. 60,83,66,000
Net earnings	Rs. 2,70,79,000
Earnings per cent.	4 45

Bombay Baroda

The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway is one of the original guaranteed railways. It was commenced from Surat via Baroda to Ahmedabad, but was subsequently extended to Bombay. The original contract was terminable in 1880, but the period was extended to 1905, and then renewed under revised conditions. In 1885 the Rajputana Malwa metre gauge system of State railways was leased to the Company and has since been incorporated in it. On the opening of the Nagda-Muttra, giving broad gauge connection through Eastern Rajputana with Delhi the working was entrusted to this Company. On the acquisition of the Company in April 1907 the purchase price was fixed at £11,685,581.

Mileage open	3,784 62
Capital at charge	Rs. 67,96,54,000
Net earnings	Rs. 5,17,12,000
Earnings per cent	7 61

Burma Railways.

The Burma Railway is an isolated line, and although various routes have been surveyed there is little prospect of its being connected with the Railway system of India in the near future. In reply to a question in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1919, Sir Arthur Anderson said — "During 1914-15 extensive survey operations were carried out to ascertain the best alignment for a railway connection along the coast route between Chittagong and certain stations on the Burma Railways south of Man-

daley. A rival route via the Hukong Valley between the northern section of the Assam-Bengal Railway and the section of the Burma Railways north of Mandalay was to have been surveyed during the following year but was postponed because of the war. It is now proposed to commence this survey during the coming cold weather, and on its completion Government will have sufficient information to enable them to decide which route shall be adopted. Thus no arrangements for the construction of a line have yet been made nor has any concession been granted, but it is probable that the line selected will be built at the cost of Government and worked by one or other of the main lines which it will connect. It was commenced as a State Railway and transferred in 1896 to a Company under a guarantee.

Mileage open	1,696 49
Capital at charge	Rs 26,08,69,000
Net earnings	Rs 1,61,64,000
Earnings per cent	6.20

Eastern Bengal

The Eastern Bengal State Railway was promoted under the original form of guarantee and was constructed on the broad gauge. The first portion of the line running to Calcutta over the Ganges was opened in 1862. In 1874 sanction was granted for the construction on the metre gauge of the Northern Bengal State Railway, which ran from the north bank of the Ganges to the foot of the Himalayas on the way to Darjeeling. These two portions of the line were amalgamated in 1884 into one State Railway.

Mileage open	1,727 88
Capital at charge	Rs 44,61,34,000
Net earnings	Rs 1,61,5,000
Earnings per cent	3.40

The East Indian

The East Indian Railway is one of the three railways sanctioned for construction as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. The first section from Howrah to Pandua was opened in 1854 and at the time of the Mutiny ran as far as Raniganj. It gives the only direct access to the port of Calcutta from Northern India and is consequently fed by all the large railway systems connected with it. In 1880 the Government purchased the line, paying the shareholders by annuities, but leased it again to the company to work under a contract which is terminable in 1919.

Mileage open	2,792 75
Capital at charge	Rs 99,45,00,000
Net earnings	Rs 6,56,61,000
Earnings per cent	6.50

Great Indian Peninsula

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway is the earliest line undertaken in India. It was promoted by a Company under a guarantee of 5 per cent and the first section from Bombay to Thane was open for traffic in 1853. Sanction was given for the extension of this line via Poona to Rajahmundry, where it connects with the Madras Railway, and to Jabalpur where it meets the East Indian Railway. The feature of the line is the passage of the Western Ghats, these sections being 154 miles on the Bhor Ghat and 94 miles on the Thal Ghat which rise 1,131 and 973 feet. In 1900, the contract

with the Government terminated and under an arrangement with the Indian Midland Railway that line was amalgamated and leased to a Company to work.

Mileage open	3,889 48
Capital at charge	Rs 1,03,85,52,000
Net earnings	Rs 4,98,98,000
Earnings per cent	4.80

Madras Railway

The Madras Railway was the third of the original railways constructed as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. It was projected to run in a north westerly direction in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and in a south westerly direction to Calicut. On the expiry of the contract in 1907 the line was amalgamated with the Southern Mahratta Railway Company, a system on the metre gauge built to meet the famine conditions in the Southern Mahratta Country and released to a large Company called the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company. The mileage is 5,041 29.

Mileage open	5,041 29
Capital at charge	Rs 53,76,62,000
Net earnings	Rs 3,38,48,000
Earnings per cent	6.11

The North Western

The North Western State Railway began its existence at the Sind Punjab Delhi Railway, which was promoted by a Company under the original form of guarantee and extended to Delhi, Multan and Lahore and from Karachi to Kotri. The interval between Kotri and Multan was unbridged and the railway traffic was exchanged by a ferry service. In 1871-72 sanction was given for the connection of this by the Indus Valley State Railway and at the same time the Punjab Northern State Railway from Lahore towards Peshawar was begun. In 1886 the Sind Punjab Delhi Railway was acquired by the State and amalgamated with these two railways under the name of the North Western State Railway. It is the longest railway in India under one administration.

Mileage open	5,827 97
Capital at charge	Rs 1,21,08,76,000
Net earnings	Rs 5,07,99,000
Earnings per cent	4.20

Oudh and Rohilkhand

Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway was another of the lines constructed under the original form of guarantee. It began from the north bank of the Ganges running through Rohilkhand as far as Saharanpur where it joins the North Western State Railway. It was not until 1887 that the bridge over the Ganges was completed and connected with the East Indian Railway. To effect a connection between the metre gauge systems to the North and those to the South of the Ganges, a third rail was laid between Bhurwal and Cawnpore. The Company's contract expired in 1889 when the Railway was purchased by the State and has since been worked as a State Railway.

Mileage open	1,622 52
Capital at charge	Rs 21,74,38,000
Net earnings	Rs 1,12,10,000
Earnings per cent	5.53

The South Indian

The South Indian Railway was one of the original guaranteed railways. It was begun by the Great Southern India Railway Company as a broad gauge line, but was converted after the seventies to the metre gauge. This line has been extended and now serves the whole of the Southern India, south of the south-west line of the Madras Railway. Between Tuticorin and Ceylon a ferry service was formerly maintained, but a new and more direct route to Ceylon via Rameshwaram was opened at the beginning of 1914. As the original contract ended in 1907, a new contract was entered upon with the Company on the 1st of January 1908.

Mileage open	1,876.31
Capital at charge	Rs. 27,74,46,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 2,40,00,000
Earnings per cent	8 65

The Indian States.

The principal Indian State Railways are the Nizam's, constructed by a company under a guarantee from the Hyderabad State, the Kathiawar system of railways, constructed by subscriptions, among the several Chiefs in Kathiawar, the Jodhpur Bikaner Railway, constructed by the Jodhpur and Bikaner Chiefs, the system of railways in the Punjab, constructed by the Patiala, Jind, Maler Kotla, and Kashmir Chiefs and the railways in Mysore, constructed by the Mysore State.

PROGRAMME OF FUTURE CONSTRUCTION

As a result of the decision to spend part of the Rs. 150 crores sanctioned by the Assembly on the construction of new lines promising an adequate return the Railway Board have been engaged during 1923-24 in investigating the prospects of such projected railways. Future railway construction falls into 4 main groups —

The development of railways in —

- (1) South India
- (2) The Coal field area
- (3) Burma
- and (4) The rest of India

For many years it has been recognised that there was need for considerable railway extension in the Madras Presidency and after careful investigations it has been settled that certain projects, of which the following are the more important should be undertaken and completed as early as possible —

(1) Villupuram Trichinopoly Chord

This line will form an alternative route between Madras and Trichinopoly and will afford such relief to the existing line as will defer the necessity of doubling it for many years. The new chord will be 100 miles in length and will open up and develop new and populous country.

(2) Shoranur Nilambur Railway

This extension on the 5' 6" gauge will run through the Moplah country and is one of the most important measures necessary for the reconstruction of Malabar. The line will be 41 miles in length.

(3) Virudupatti Tenkasi Railway

This line will also open up new country and help to relieve congestion on the main line. It will be 76 miles in length.

As regards the coal field area investigation has proved that good coal in large areas is available in the area lying between the East Indian and Bengal Nagpur Railways running westward from the Jheria Coal fields as far as Katni in the Central Provinces. It is accordingly proposed to provide the following lines to serve as outlets towards the north and west of India —

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------|
| (a) Daktongari to Hutar | 17 miles. |
| (b) Hutar to Hama | 163 miles. |
| (c) Hutar to Anuppur | 198 miles. |

A large amount of railway construction is at present in progress in Burma and when this is completed large stretches of new country will be opened up. The most important of them are probably —

Prymmana-Taungdwingyi

Moulmein—Ye
Alon—Saingyin
Segyi—Yeu

As regards the remainder of India probably the most important lines projected are a line joining Chittagong and Akyab and the construction of the Balpur Parvatipuram section of the Balpur Vizianagram Railway with which is linked the development of Vizianagaram as a major port.

The proposed Balpur Parvatipuram Railway 200½ miles in length would traverse near its centre the largest remaining area of India which is devoid of railway communication. The main traffic expected to travel over this line is manganese ore which is at present despatched from Central Provinces to Calcutta and Bombay. The second item of traffic of which the export is expected to develop via Vizianagaram is cotton.

Electrification of Railways.—Work on the electrification of the Bombay Suburban and local services of the Great Indian Peninsula and the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railways is in progress. In the case of the G.I.P. Railway it is proposed to electrify the following sections —

Thana Kalyan 12.41 miles.
Harbour Branch and Mahim Chord 9.49 miles.
Victoria Terminus to Thana 21 miles.

The Harbour Branch from Victoria Terminus to Kurla was opened for traffic in February, 1920.

The Harbour Branch and Mahim Chord will provide for an entirely new passenger traffic which is expected as a result of the development scheme for the city of Bombay.

The introduction of electric traction will allow of all main line trains between Kalyan and Victoria Terminus being hauled by electric engines and the question of extending the electric services to Igatpuri and Poona is now under investigation.

In the case of the B. B. & C. I. Railway it is proposed to electrify the local services between Church Gate and Borivila, a distance of 21 miles. Power for this scheme and for the G. I. F.

Railway electrification will be obtained from the Associated Tata Hydro Electric Power Supply Companies and considerable savings by a reduction in working cost are anticipated from its use.

INDIA AND CEYLON.

The possibility of connecting India and Ceylon by a railway across the bank of sand extending the whole way from Rameswaram to Mannar has been reported on from time to time since 1895 various schemes having been suggested.

The South Indian Railway having been extended to Dhannakkodi, the southernmost point of Rameswaram Island, and the Ceylon Government Railway to Talaimannar, on Mannar Island, two points distant from each other about 21 miles across a narrow and shallow strait, the project has again been investigated with the idea of connecting these two terminal stations by a railway constructed on a solid embankment raised on the sand bank known as 'Adam's Bridge', to supersede the ferry steamer service which has been established between these two points.

In 1918, a detailed survey was made by the South Indian Railway Company and a project has now been prepared. This project contemplates the construction of a causeway from Dhannakkodi Point on the Indian side to Talaimannar Point on the Ceylon side, a length of 20.05 miles of which 7.19 will be upon the dry land of the various islands, and 12.86 will be in water. The sections on dry land will consist of low banks of sand pitched with coral and present no difficulty. The section through the sea will be carried on a causeway which it is proposed to construct in the following way. A double row of reinforced concrete piles, pitched at 10 feet centres and having their inner faces 14 feet apart, will first be driven into the sand. These piles will then be braced together longitudinally with light concrete arches and chains and transversely with concrete ties, struts and chains. Behind the piles slabs of reinforced concrete will be slipped into position, the bottom slabs being sunk well into the sand of the sea bottom. Lastly, the space enclosed by the slabs will be filled in with sand.

The top of the concrete work will be carried to six feet above high water level, and the rails will be laid at that level. The sinking of the piles and slabs will be done by means of water jets. This causeway, it is expected, will cause the suspended sand brought up by the currents, to settle on either side bringing about rapid accretion and eventually making one big island of Rameswaram Island and Mannar Island.

If this method of construction is adopted, it is estimated that the total cost of the causeway and works at the two terminal points, viz. Dhannakkodi and Talaimannar will be approximately 111 lakhs.

Indo-Burma Connection.

The raids of the Khanden in the Bay of Bengal in 1914, and the temporary interruption of communications between India and Burma, stimulated the demand for a direct railway connection between India and Burma. Govern-

ment accepted the position and appointed Mr Richards, M. Inst. C. E., to be the engineer-in-charge of the surveys to determine the best route for a railway from India to Burma. The coast route appears to be the favoured one. This would start from Chittagong, which is the terminus and head-quarters of the Assam-Bengal Railway and a seaport for the produce of Assam. The route runs southwards through the Chittagong district, a land of fertile rice fields intersected by big rivers and tidal creeks and it crosses the Indo-Burma frontier, 94 miles from the town of Chittagong. For about 160 miles further it chiefly runs through the fertile rice lands of Arrakan and crosses all the big tidal rivers of the Akyab delta. These include the Kaladan river which drains 4,700 miles of country and even at a distance of about 80 miles from its mouth is more than half a mile wide. About 260 miles from Chittagong the railway would run into the region of mangrove swamps which fringe the seacoast north and south of the harbour of Kawkphu stretching out into the mangrove swamps like ribs from the backbone. Innumerable spurs of the Arrakan Yoma have to be crossed. Yoma is a mountain ridge which extends from Cape Negrais northwards until it loses itself in a mass of tangled hills east of Akyab and Chittagong. At its southern end the height of the ridge is insignificant but it has peaks as high as 4,000 feet before it reaches the altitude of Sandway and further north it rises much higher. It is a formidable obstacle to railway communication between India and Burma. This route is estimated to cost about £7,000,000 and would have to be supplemented by branch lines to Akyab where there is at present a considerable rice traffic and the cost of this would have to be added to the £7,000,000 already referred to.

The other routes examined have been the Hukong Valley route and the Manipur route which were surveyed by the late Mr R. A. Way many years ago. The Manipur route is estimated to cost about £5,000,000 as it has to cross three main ranges of hills with summit levels of 2,650, 3,600 and 8,900 feet long. Altogether there would be about four miles of tunnelling through the three main ridges and through other hills and more than 100 miles of expensive undulating railway with grades as steep as 1 in 50 and 11,000 feet of aggregate rise and fall. The Hukong valley route seems to be the cheapest one as it is estimated to cost £3,500,000. This line is only about 284 miles long and it presents fewer engineering difficulties than either the Coast or the Manipur route. One hundred and fifty miles of this route lie in open country capable of cultivation though at present it is only very thinly populated. Only one range of hills has to be crossed and this can be negotiated with a summit tunnel of 5,000 feet long at a height of 2,600 feet. There are less than fifty miles of very heavy work and only about 4,500 ft. aggregate of rise and fall.

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system.

	Particulars.	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23.	1923-24.
1	Mileage open at close of the year	35 883	36,286	36,334	36,616	36,735	37,029	37,206	37,618	38,089
2	Total Capital outlay, including ferries and suspense, on open lines (in thousands of rupees)	Rs. 5,29 08,29	5,35,27,07	5,41,79 90	5,49,74,45	5,56,37,77	5,56,80,53	5,67,97,17	5,69,74,07	5,71,00,02
3	Gross earnings (in thousands of rupees)	64,66,04	70,03 42	77,26,39	80,28,68	89,15,32	91,08,76	93,88,67	1,05,65,19	1,07,79,66
4	Gross earnings per mile open	18,041	19,480	21,292	23,665	24,289	24,842	24,925	27,086	28,380
5	Gross earnings per mile open per week	347	375	409	453	467	478	479	538	545
6	Gross earnings per train-mile	4 07	4 32	4 93	5 44	5 50	5 69	5 80	6 09	6 75
7	Total working expenses (in thousands of rupees)	32,91,93	33,40,32	35,36,87	41,80,17	50,85,55	60,20,04	70,79,95	72,99,49	68,44,77
8	Working expenses per mile open	9,185	9,256	9,734	11,416	13,789	16,274	18,998	19,844	17,992
9	Working expenses per train-mile.	2 07	2 04	2 25	2 64	3 13	3 73	4 42	4 62	4 31
10	Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings	50 91	47 26	45 72	48 45	56 81	65 54	76 22	69 09	63 50
11	Net earnings (in thousands of rupees)	Rs. 31,74,09	37,28,10	41,99 52	44 48,51	38,49,87	31,69,72	22 08,72	32,85,70	29,34,89
12	Net earnings per mile open	8,868	10,274	11,558	12,149	10,480	8,566	6,927	8,651	10,348
13	Net earnings per train-mile	2 00	2 28	2 68	2 80	2 37	1 98	1 38	2 07	2 48
14	Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay (item 2) - Percent	5 99	6 96	7 75	8 09	6 80	5 06	3 41	4 68	5 48
15	Coaching train-miles (in thousands of Train-miles)	56,964	55,719	44,407	44,117	52,092	58,016	60,617	63,991	64,434

* Represent figures of capital at charge

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system—contd.

Particulars	1915-16.	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20.	1920-21	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
16 Goods train-miles (in thousands) Train-miles	62,706	68,083	72,528	74,288	70,081	67,010	68,180	58,319	57,968
17 Mixed train miles (in thousands). "	34,471	34,874	34,618	34,240	34,169	32,254	30,402	30,342	30,391
18 Total, including miscellaneous train-miles (in thousands) "	159,038	163,604	157,036	158,688	158,181	151,802	160,156	158,041	158,949
19 Unit-mileage of passenger (in thousands) Unit-miles	16,522,646	17,846,064	16,304,362	16,030,877	20,614,812	20,965,008	19,794,586	18,923,705	19,448,523
20 Freight ton-mileage of goods (in thousands) Ton-miles	17,157,841	19,825,901	21,015,126	22,140,806	20,401,856	19,920,888	17,784,009	18,373,696	18,840,768
21 Average miles a ton of goods was carried Miles	207.08	230.08	245.87	242.88	232.33	227.56	205.57	196.8	192.8
22 Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile Pice	4.34	4.01	4.08	4.26	4.43	4.92	5.36	6.05	6.13
<i>Average miles a passenger was carried</i>									
23 1st class Miles	113.18	129.60	124.90	133.83	139.16	130.55	130.98	125.5	125.5
24 2nd class "	93.44	106.88	96.58	90.64	85.83	77.31	74.03	67.4	70.7
25 Intermediate class "	50.20	52.17	71.54	75.87	75.88	71.66	72.08	62.5	60.5
26 3rd class "	36.60	37.56	39.01	40.83	40.73	38.73	36.53	35.2	34.9
27 Season and Vendor's tickets "	8.52	8.46	8.54	8.81	9.18	9.16	8.98	9.5	9.9
28 Total "	25.50	26.62	27.66	29.24	30.64	27.62	25.26	23.5	23.6
<i>Average rate charged per passenger per mile</i>									
29 1st class Pice	13.68	13.32	13.58	15.28	16.04	16.72	20.23	23.74	24.33
30 2nd class "	5.50	5.07	6.76	7.15	7.59	7.94	9.13	11.75	11.73
31 Intermediate class "	3.16	3.14	4.02	4.17	4.21	4.36	4.45	5.33	5.42
32 3rd class "	2.39	2.32	2.78	2.86	2.84	2.92	2.94	3.52	3.53
33 Season and Vendor's tickets "	1.42	1.43	1.43	1.49	1.54	1.60	1.71	1.74	1.86
34 Total "	2.44	2.48	2.90	3.08	3.09	3.18	3.33	3.78	3.75

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year

Railways	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
State Lines									
Aden					29	29		29	29
Agri Delhi Ghori*	126	126	126	126	126	126		126	126
Aligarh Dandell (Provincial)*				10	19	19		19	19
Alom-Latughyin*								14	27
Assam-Beaghal*								874	874
Bangalore-Hardwar*	808	823	889	869	869	869		210	210
Barru-Kotah*				40	210†	210		40	40
Bombay-Nagpur*	1,039	1,039	1,039	1,039	1,039	1,039		1,032	1,032
Bombay Extension*	21	21	21	21	21	21		21	21
Bombay-Nagpur (British Section)*	12	12	12	12	12	12		(b) 7	(b) 7
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	2,818	2,818	2,818	2,819	2,819	2,819		2,852	2,852
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	80	80	80	80	80	80		80	80
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	1,529	1,529	1,529	1,535	1,535	1,535		1,530	1,530
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	76	76	76	76	76	76		76	76
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	80	80	80	80	80	80		80	80
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	32	32	32	32	32	32		32	32
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	2,448	2,448	2,448	2,459	2,459	2,459		2,470	2,470
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	1,689	1,689	1,689	1,681	1,681	1,681		1,680	1,680
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	217	217	217	217	217	217		217	217
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	2,554	2,554	2,554	2,562	2,562	2,562		2,562	2,562
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	50								
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	124	124	124	124	124	124		124	124
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	32	32	32	32	32	32		32	32
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	312	312	312	312	312	312		312	312
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	60	60	60	60	60	60		60	60
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	62	62	62	62	62	62		62	62
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	313	313	313	312	312	312		316	316
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	2,568	2,568	2,568	2,560	2,560	2,560		2,559	2,559
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	74	73	73	73	73	73		73	73
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	296	296	296	296	296	296		296	296
Bombay-Nagpur & Central India*	94	97	97	97	97	97		97	97

* worked by a Company

(a) Split up into two railways, viz. (1) Bangalore-Hardwar Railway, and (2) Mysore-Bangalore Railway, figures of which have been shown separately

(b) Includes figures for Indian State Sections.

† Formerly worked as part of the Mysore Section of M. & S. M. Railway

‡ Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd.

Railways.	1916-17.	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
STATE LINES—contd.								
Hydrabad	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
North-Western	3,748	3,731	3,805	3,785	3,934	4,084	4,076	4,076
Madras-Desam	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Outh and Rohitband	1,527	1,527	1,512	1,512	1,497	1,513	1,511	1,510
Pakistan-Deesa	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
Punjab-Raschi	115	115	115	115	115	115	115	115
Punjab-Tamard wing/1*	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
Salpur-Dhamari	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
South India	1,337	1,337	1,337	1,337	1,337	1,337	1,318	1,317
Southern Shan States	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70
Tamil-Nadu	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Tamil-Nadu (Travancore) British section	826	812	819	815	815	814	812	812
Tirhoot	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Tripur-Krishnagiri	89	135	135	135	135	135	135	135
Trans India (Kalaish Bannu)	51	51	46	46	46	46	46	47
Tumkur-Tirodi Light	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
ASSISTED COMPANIES								
Ahmedabad-Dholka	89	89	89	89	89	89	89	89
Ahmedabad-Parantii	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Ahmedpur-Katwa	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Amritsar-Patli	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65
Arakan Light	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Arrah-Banarman Light	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Bombay-Damodar River	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Bombay-Pandhri Light	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
Bard Light	1,241	1,241	1,243	1,243	1,248	1,248	1,248	1,248
Bombay and North Western	153	153	153	153	153	153	153	153
Bombay Doars	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Bombay-Masulipatam	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Bombay-Pot-Kolar	1,241	1,241	1,243	1,243	1,248	1,248	1,248	1,248
Bombay-Pur-Bihar Light	153	153	153	153	153	153	153	153

* Worked by a Company
 † These are the latest figures published in 1923.
 (a) Shown under Indian State lines against Kolar District Railway.
 (b) Assisted with Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway.

† Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd.

Railways	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
ASSISTED COMPANIES—contd.									
Bardonia Kalwa	33	33	33	33	32	32	32	32	32
Champaner-Shivrajpur Paul Light	25	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Chasparmah-Sligat	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Darjeeling-Himalayan Extension	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95
Daugla-Jamulpurganj	192	206	206	206	206	206	206	206	206
Dela-Umbela-Kalka	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Dehri-Botnia Light	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Dhond-Baramasi	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86
Obra-Bachya	117	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Elkipur-Yokmal	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Futwah-Balampur	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Godhrie-Lamavada	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44
Howrah-Debra	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Howrah-Amia Light	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77
Howrah-Sheaktala Light	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Jacobabad-Kashmore	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Jamnagar and Dwaras	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Jessore-Jhenidah	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130
Jullunder Doab	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Jullunder-Mukerian†	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Kalighat Faika	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Kala-Khal-Lalabazar	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Khetia Bagrhat	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
Khetia-Jacobabad†	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Mandira-Bhann†	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Madhuran Light	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Mayerbhanj (c)	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Mirpur Khas-Jhodo	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Mirpur Khas-Khedro	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Mymensingh-Bhairab Bazar	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31
Mymensingh-Jamalpur-Jagannathganj	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Nadad-Kapadwanj	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Nadad-Jamner	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Pasopah-Rajpura	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Pasopah-Rabon†	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26

* Worked by a Company

† Worked by State Railway Agency

‡ These are the latest figures published in 1923.

(a) Temporarily dismantled.

(b) Incorporated with the Eastern Bengal Railway from 1st January 1920.

(c) Incorporated with the Bengal-Nagpur Railway from 1st April 1923

(d) Shown under "Indian State Lines" up to 1919-20

† Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd.

Railways	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24.
ASSISTED COMPANIES—continued									
Podanur Police- Puducherry	25 40	25 39	25 39	25 (a)	25 (a)	25 (a)	25	25	25
Poona-Ahmednagar	259	259	259	259	259	259	259	259	259
Poona-Bombay	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Poona-Bombay (Daily)	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93
Poona-Bombay (Night)	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Poona-Bombay (Week-end)	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
Poona-Bombay (Total)	578	577	578	578	578	578	577	578	581
Poona-Bombay (Total)	208	208	208	208	208	208	208	208	208
Poona-Bombay (Total)	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Poona-Bombay (Total)	156	156	156	156	156	156	156	156	156
Poona-Bombay (Total)	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Poona-Bombay (Total)	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Poona-Bombay (Total)	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Poona-Bombay (Total)	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Poona-Bombay (Total)	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
Poona-Bombay (Total)	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Poona-Bombay (Total)	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Poona-Bombay (Total)	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68
Poona-Bombay (Total)	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Poona-Bombay (Total)	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204
Poona-Bombay (Total)	45	44	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
INDIAN STATE RAILWAYS.									
Bombay-Bombay	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Bombay-Bombay	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204
Bombay-Bombay	45	44	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Total									
	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68
	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204
	45	44	45	45	45	45	45	45	45

* Worked by a Company
† Incorporated with the East Indian Railway on the 1st January 1918
(a) Discontinued
(b) Taken over by Government
(c) Taken over by Government
(d) Taken over by Government
(e) Taken over by Government
(f) Taken over by Government
(g) Taken over by Government
(h) Taken over by Government
(i) Taken over by Government
(j) Taken over by Government
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(p) Taken over by Government
(q) Taken over by Government
(r) Taken over by Government
(s) Taken over by Government
(t) Taken over by Government
(u) Taken over by Government
(v) Taken over by Government
(w) Taken over by Government
(x) Taken over by Government
(y) Taken over by Government
(z) Taken over by Government

: Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of Year—cont.

Railways.	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
INDIAN STATE LINES—contd.										
Bhopal-Ujjain*	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113
Bilaspur	470	498	498	498	498	498	498	498	498	498
Bilimora-Kalamba	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	(d)
Bina-Goota-Bazam	146	146	146	147	147	147	147	147	147	147
Birat-Shimoga*	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	(d)
Chakrapur-Orsahidpur										
Coond-Groda Udaipur	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Coond-Behat §	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Cuttack	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Dholpur-Barl										
Durgamda	40	43	43	43	43	40	40	40	40	44
Gadwar's Baroda State	142	147	147	154	187	187	187	187	187	(c)
Gadwar's Debidol	153	158	158	163	163	163	163	163	163	163
Gadwar's Mohana*	143	148	148	148	148	(b) 106	(b) 106	106	106	106
Gondal-Portendar										
Gwalior Light*	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
Hindupur*	41	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Hindupur Branch*	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80
Hydrabad-Godavari Valley*	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391
Jalpur*	73	73	107	108	122	122	122	122	122	122
Jamans and Kashmir §	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Jamnapur	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Jodhpur-Rajkot	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
Jodhpur-Rajput *										
Jodhpur	604	609	609	609	609	609	609	609	609	609
Jodhpur Branch	114	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121
Kanpur-Chaabran §	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
Kanpur-Dhuri *	36	36	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Kanpur-Dhuri	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
Kanpur-Dhuri	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	(d)
Kanpur-Dhuri	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Kanpur-Dhuri	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Kanpur-Dhuri	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79

* Worked by a Company

† These are the latest figures published in 1923

‡ Worked by State Railway Agency.

(b) Gondal only—Figures of Portendar State Railway have been shown separately

(c) Included in Gadwar's Baroda State Railway

(d) Shown under State Lines.

Mines and Minerals.

Total value of Minerals for which returns of Production are available
for the years 1922 and 1923

	1922. (Rupees=1s 4d.)	1923 (Rupees=1s 4d.)	Increase	Decrease	Variation per cent.
	£	£	£	£	
Coal	9,755,313	9,788,569		16,774	-0.2
Petroleum	7,202,494	7,007,915		194,579	-2.7
Manganese-ore (a)	915,428	2,215,964	1,300,536		+142.1
Gold	1,857,577	1,702,642		154,935	-8.3
Lead and lead-ore	945,187	1,121,474	176,337		+18.7
Salt	744,968	749,382	4,416		+0.6
Silver	675,234	677,207	1,973		+0.3
Mica (b)	385,683	588,435	152,752		+39.6
Building Materials	394,833	512,409	117,576		+29.7
Tin and tin-ore	168,968	185,641		3,322	-1.8
Saltpetre	234,866	149,757		85,109	-36.2
Iron-ore	104,428	136,415	31,987		+30.6
Jadette (b)	124,811	55,803		69,008	-41.6
Chromite	24,086	51,119	77,033		+112.2
Ruby, Sapphire and Spinel	48,487	48,679	192		+0.4
Tungsten Ore	25,035	31,979	6,944		+27.7
Clays	16,900	21,356	4,456		+26.4
Magnesite	16,046	15,622		424	-2.6
Zinc ore (b)	90,505	11,584		78,921	-87.2
Phosphate	1,138	5,888	4,255		+375.6
Ochre	3,805	4,461	656		+17.2
Copper-ore	20,569	4,367		16,142	-78.7
Alum	6,651	4,298		2,353	-35.4
Fuller's earth	2,451	3,811	1,360		+55.9
Monazite	1,871	3,697	1,826		+97.6
Bauxite	1,063	3,682	2,619		+246.4
Stealite	2,432	3,290	858		+35.3
Diamonds	6,110	3,100		3,010	-49.3
Barytes	3,200	2,850		350	-10.9
Ilmenite	1,200	2,100	900		+75.0
Soda	68	1,600	1,532		
Zircon	1,280	1,160		120	-9.4
Gypsum	1,315	1,156		159	-12.1
Amber	131	915	784		
Asbestos	701	659		42	-6.0
Hyalite		352	352		
Total	23,804,742	25,018,853	1,214,111	625,248	+4.8
			+1,214,111		

(a) F O B value at Indian Ports

(b) Export values.

(c) Excludes the value of 932 tons

The feature which stands out most prominently in a survey of the mineral industries of India is the fact that until recent years little has been done to develop those minerals which are essential to modern metallurgical and chemical industries, while most striking progress has been made in opening out deposits from which products are obtained suitable for export or for consumption in the country by what may conveniently be called direct processes. In this respect India of to-day stands in contrast to the India of a century ago. The European chemist armed with cheap supplies of sulphuric acid and alkali and aided by low sea freights and increased facilities for internal distribution by the spreading network of rail ways has been enabled to stamp out in all but remote localities the once flourishing native manufactures of alum the various alkaline compounds blue vitriol copperas copper lead steel and iron and seriously to curtail the export trade in nitre and borax. The reaction against that invasion is of recent date. The high quality of the native made iron the early anticipation of the processes now employed in Europe for the manufacture of high-class steels and the artistic products in copper and brass gave the country a prominent position in the ancient metallurgical world while as a chief source of nitre India held a position of peculiar political importance until less than forty years ago. The chemical manufacturer of Europe found among his by products cheaper and more effective compounds for the manufacture of explosives.

With the spread of railways the development of manufactures connected with jute cotton and paper and the gradually extended use of electricity the demand for metallurgical and chemical products in India has steadily grown. Before long the stage must be reached at which the variety and quantity of products required but now imported will satisfy the conditions necessary for the local production of those which can be economically manufactured only for the supply of groups of industries.

Coal

Most of the coal raised in India comes from the Bengal and Bihar and Orissa—Gondwana coal fields. Outside Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the most important mines are those at Singareni in Hyderabad and in Central Province but there are a number of smaller mines which have been worked at one time or another.

The subjoined statement shows the production of all mines in British India and in Indian States during 1923 as compared with 1922—

	1922	1923
British Provinces—	Tons	Tons
Burma	172	2 166
Assam	348 103	326 149
Bihar and Orissa	12 711 828	13 212 250
Bengal	4 328 986	4 621 578
Punjab	67 180	63 501
Baluchistan	60 135	42 582
Central Provinces	675 916	548 074
Total British Province	18 101 820	18,816,280

	1922	1923
Indian States—	Tons	Tons
Hyderabad	642 880	653 439
Rajputana (Bikaner)	15 055	7 119
Central India (Rewah)	161 231	175 950
Total Indian States	819 166	841 498*
GRAND TOTAL INDIA	19 010 986	19 657 778

(*) Provisional figures

The next statement shows the quantity of coal available for consumption in India in 1922 and 1923—

	1922	1923
	Tons	Tons
Imports of foreign coal	1 712 467	639 186
Re-exports of foreign coal	72 944	46 031
Available supply of foreign coal	1 639 523	593 155
Production of Indian coal	19 010 986	19 657 778
Exports of Indian coal to foreign parts	77 118	136 585
Available supply of Indian coal	18 933 868	19 521 193
Total available supply of coal	20 573 391	20 104 331

Average Price (per ton) of Coal extracted from the mines

	1922	1923
	Rs a p	Rs a p
Assam	8 5 4	8 11 1
Baluchistan	13 7 5	14 14 4
Bengal	9 10 1	9 1 9
Bihar and Orissa	6 15 5	6 13 7
Burma	18 0 0	21 3 8
Central India	5 13 6	5 13 0
Central Provinces	7 10 7	6 10 7
Punjab	14 13 10	9 16 10
Rajputana	7 2 2	6 13 9

Origin of Indian Coal.

—	Average of last five years	1922	1923
	Tons	Tons	Tons
Gondwana coalfields	19,490,848	18,520,513	19,218,284
Tertiary coalfields	434,487	490,478	489,494
Total	19,925,335	19,010,991	19,657,778

Coal Committee appointed—The Government of India announced in 1924 the appointment of a representative Coal Committee to inquire (1) generally what measures are to be taken by the Government, the coal trade, the railways and by the ports whether singly or in combination, to stimulate the export of suitable coal from Calcutta to Indian and foreign ports, (2) in particular whether effective measures can be taken for pooling and grading Indian coal for export and for bunkering and how the cost of such measures should be met.

The Government quotes coal import figures

IRON ORE.

Bengal and Bihar and Orissa are the only provinces in India in which iron ore is mined for smelting by European methods. Iron smelting, however, was at one time a widespread industry in India and there is hardly a district away from the great alluvial tracts of the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra in which slag heaps are not found. The primitive iron smelter finds no difficulty in obtaining sufficient supplies of ore from deposit that no European ironmaster would regard as worth his serious consideration. Early attempts to introduce European processes for the manufacture of pig iron and steel were recorded in 1830 in the South Arcot District. Since that date various other attempts have been made but none proved a success before that now in operation near Barakar in Bengal. The site of the Barakar Iron-Works was originally chosen on account of the proximity of both coal and ore supplies. The outcrop of iron stone shales between the coal bearing Barakar and Raniganj stages stretches east and west from the works, and for many years the clay ironstone nodules obtainable from this formation formed the only supply of ore used in the blast furnaces. Recently magnetite and hematite have been obtained from the Manbhum and Singhbhum districts, and the production from the last-named district has largely replaced the supplies of ore hitherto obtained near the iron works. The Bengal Iron and Steel Company, Limited, have now given up the use of ores obtained from the neighbourhood of Barakar and Raniganj and are now obtaining most of their ores from the Kolhan Estate Singhbhum. Some years ago the Bengal Iron Steel Co., Ltd., secured two deposits of iron-ore in Saranda (Singhbhum) forming parts of two large hill masses known as Notu Baru and Bada Baru respectively. Recent prospecting in this part of

which show the competition from which the Indian coal industry is now suffering, not so much in the Indian market as in overseas markets such as Colombo and Singapore. While the Government holds that the overseas market could not be recovered by the protection of the Indian Market, it regards it, nevertheless, as possible that the measures necessary to recover the overseas market would be sufficient without further protection to enable Indian coal to meet competition in the home market.

The committee consists of President, Mr F Noyce, I.C.S. Members Mr F C Legge, the Chief Mining Engineer of the Railway Board, Mr S C Stuart Williams, a Director of the Wagon Interchange, Mr A A F Bray, the Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust, Mr W C Banerjee, Chairman of the Indian Mining Association, Sir Rajendra Nath Mukerjee, Vice Chairman of the Indian Mining Federation and the Hon J W A Bell of Messrs Mackinnon & Mackenzie, Calcutta, Secretary, Mr H P V Townend, I.C.S.

The committee assembled in October. Its recommendations will necessarily influence the Tariff Board's investigation into the question whether the Indian coal trade is in need of protection.

Singhbhum has led to the discovery of numerous additional deposits of iron-ore, the extension of which has been traced into Keonjhar and Bolpur States in Orissa, a total distance of some 40 miles in a S. S. W. direction. At Panstra Baru, a portion of Notu Baru, the deposit has been opened up, and now feeds the Barakar ironworks. Panstra Baru rises to over 2,500 feet above sea level, the low ground on the west side being at about 1,100 feet above sea-level. The uppermost 400 to 450 feet of this hill has now been opened up, and the workings indicate the existence of a deposit about a quarter of a mile long, perhaps 400 feet thick and proved on the dip for about 500 feet. The ore body appears to be interbedded with the Dharwar slates, from which it is separated by banded hematite-jaspers. The ore itself is high grade micaceous hematite, often lateritized at the outcrop. Cross-sections into the interior of the deposit show that the hematite becomes very friable not far below the outcrop. In fact the characteristics of this ore, including the surface lateritization, are almost exactly reproduced in the iron-ore deposits of Goa and Ratnagiri. The Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi possesses slightly richer and purer ore bodies in the Raipur district, supplies of ore are at present drawn from the deposits in Mayurbhanj. The ore-deposits have all been found to take the form of roughly lenticular leads or bodies of hematite, with small proportions of magnetite, in close association with granite on the one hand and granitic rocks on the other. These latter have been noted in the field as charnockites, the term being employed, rather loosely no doubt, but probably in the main correctly, to cover types of proty widely varying acidity. In still more intimate association with the ores than either of the foregoing were found masses of dense

quartz rocks, frequently banded, and banded quartz-iron-ore rocks. These last are of the type so commonly associated with Indian iron-ores, but are here not so prominent as is usually the case.

The production of iron-ore increased by 28.6 per cent, viz., from 625,274 tons in 1922 to 804,884 tons in 1923. The figure shown against Mayurbhanj in the following table represents the production by the Tata Iron and Steel Company Ltd., although the raisings amounted to 507,225 tons, the total ore despatched from Mayurbhanj was 663,247 tons, the excess over production being taken from the balance of raisings in the year previous to 1923, which could not be despatched owing to the incompletion of railway sidings and consequently remained in stock. The production in Singhbhum is mostly that of the Bengal Iron Company, the Indian Iron and Steel Company being responsible for 9,909

tons from their mining at Gua. The Andam-Jamda railway extension to Gua has now been opened and the despatch of ore from that locality to the Indian Iron and Steel Company's blast furnaces at Hirapur commenced, previously these furnaces had been supplied with ore from Mayurbhanj State and the Central Provinces.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company produced 302,135 tons of pig iron, 151,097 tons of steel including rails, and 8,506 tons of ferro-manganese, showing a decided increase in each case over the previous year. The Bengal Iron Company produced 119,669 tons of pig iron and 41,849 tons of iron castings also showing substantial increases in the two cases. The Indian Iron and Steel Company commenced turning out pig iron railway sleepers and railway "chains" in November 1922 their production of pig iron during 1923 amounted to 77,980 tons.

Quantity and value of Iron-ore produced in India

	1922			1923		
	Quantity (Tons)	Value (Rupees—lrs 4d)		Quantity (Tons)	Value (Rupees—lrs 4d)	
Bihar and Orissa—						
Mayurbhanj	378,134	9 45,385	63,022	507,225	12,68,062	84,537
Bambaijpur	798*	5,496	866	632*	4,427	295
Singhbhum	215,746	4,03,316	32 888	218,584	4,51,843	30,123
Burma—						
Mandalay				329	1,816*	88
Northern Shan States	27,680	1 10,720*	7 881	52,811	2,11,644*	14,110
Central Provinces	2,891	11,564	771	24,852	1,08,968	7,362
Other Provinces and States	25	†		71	†	
Total	625,274	15,66,480	104,428	804,884	20,46,225	136,415

* Estimated

† Not available

MANGANESE ORE

This industry commenced some thirty years ago by quarrying the deposits of the Visagapatnam district, and from an output of 674 tons in 1892, the production rose rapidly to 92,008 tons in 1900 when the richer deposits in the Central Provinces were also attacked, and are now yielding a larger quantity of ore than the Visagapatnam mines. India now alternates with Russia as the first manganese-producing country in the world. The most important deposits occur in the Central Provinces, Madras, Central India, and Mysore—the largest supply coming from the Central Provinces. The use to which the ore is put are somewhat varied. The peroxide is used by glass manufacturers to destroy the green colour in glass making, and it is also used in porcelain painting and glazing for the brown colour which it yields. The ore is now used in the manufacture of ferromanganese for use in steel manufacture. Since 1904, when the total output was 150,190 tons, the progress of the industry has been remarkable owing to the high prices prevailing. In 1905 production reached 247,457 tons, the following year it was more than doubled (571,495 tons) and in 1907 the figures again rose to 902,391 tons. In 1909, on account of the fall in prices the output contracted to 648,675 tons, but it almost regained its former position in 1910 when the

production rose to 800,907 tons. In 1911 it fell to 670,390 tons. In 1916 the output was 645,304 tons valued £ 0 6 at Indian Ports at £1,487,026. The ore raised in the Central Provinces is of a very high grade, ranging from 50 to 64 per cent of the metal, and in consequence of its high quality is able to pay the heavy tax of freight over 500 miles of railway, besides the shipment charges to Europe and America.

The output in 1923 was 695,055 tons valued at £2,215,984 f o b Indian Ports, Exports of Manganese-ore from British Indian ports during 1923

	Quantity (Tons)	Value (Rs)
To—		
United Kingdom	880,948	67,49,031
Germany	7,250	1,48,125
Netherlands	17,200	3,08,350
Belgium	153,013	38,67,948
France	173,037	35,91,547
Italy	19,862	5,98,397
Japan	5,667	1,39,088
United States of America	63,883	21,38,001
Total	778,870	1,75,30,722

GOLD.

The greater part of the total output of gold in India is derived from the Kolar gold field in Mysore. During the last decade the production of this mine reached its highest point in 1905 when 616,758 ounces were raised. In 1906 the quantity won was 565,208 ounces and this figure fell to 535,085 ounces in 1907. The figures for the latter years reveal a small improvement. The Nizam's mine at Hutti in Hyderabad comes next, but at a respectable distance, to the Kolar gold field. This mine was opened in 1903. The only other mines from which gold was raised were those in the Dharwar district of Bombay and the Anantapur district of Madras. The Dharwar mines gave an output of 2,998 ounces in 1911 but work there ceased in 1912. The Anantapur mines gave their first output of gold during the year 1910, the amount being 2,532 ounces, valued at Rs 1,51,800. Gold mining was carried on in the North Arcot district of Madras from 1898 till 1900, the highest yield (2,854 ounces) being obtained in the year 1898. The Kyaukpazat mine

in Upper Burma was worked until 1908, when the pay chute was lost and the mine closed down. In 1902 dredging operations were started on the Irrawaddy river near Myitkyina, and 216 ounces of gold were obtained in 1904, the amount steadily increased from year to year and reached 8,445 ounces in 1909, but fell in subsequent years until, in 1922, it was no more than 24 oz. The small quantity of gold produced in the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the United Provinces is obtained by washing. Gold washing is carried on in a great many districts in India, but there is no complete record of the amount obtained in this way. The average earnings of the workers are very small, and the gold thus won is used locally for making jewellery.

The continuous decrease in the output of gold in India from the maximum production of 616,728 ozs reached in 1915 continued during the year 1923 when the total output of gold was 422,306 ozs valued at £1,702,642.

Quantity and value of Gold produced in India during the years 1922 and 1923

	1922			1923			
	Quantity	Value (Rupee=1s 4d)		Quantity	Value (Rupee=1s 4d)		Labour.
Burma--	oz	Rs	£	oz	Rs	£	
Katha	12 01	815	54	28 46	1,672	111	42
Upper Chindwin	12	1,280	85	44 30	4,134	276	86
Madras--							
Anantapur	8,888(a)	6,08,673	40 578	1,519(a)	1,01,016	6,734	275
Mysore	429,559 6(b)	2,72,50 073	1,816 672	(c) 419 667 64	2,53,69,141	1,691,276	20,804
Punjab	40 8	2,638	176	1,001 46(d)	60,690	4,046	
United Provinces	2 63	175	12	43 8	2,960	191	62
-----				1 9	125	8	12
Total	438,015 04	2,78 63 654	1,857,577	422,306 56	2,55,39 638	1,702,642	21 081

(a) Fine gold

(b) Contains 881,955 18 ozs fine gold including 3,172 24 ozs obtained from cyanide slugs

(c) Contains 381,058 93 ozs fine gold

(d) Fine gold obtained from cyanide slugs

PETROLEUM.

Petroleum is found in India in two distinct areas—one on the east, which includes Assam, Burma, and the islands off the Arakan coast. This belt extends to the productive oil fields of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. The other area is on the west, and includes the Punjab and Baluchistan, the same belt of oil-bearing rocks being continued beyond the borders of British India to Persia. Of these two the eastern

area is by far the most important, and the most successful oil fields are found in the Irrawaddy valley. Yenangyaung is the oldest and most developed of these fields. Native wells have been at work here for over 100 years, and in 1886, prior to the annexation of Upper Burma, the output is estimated to have averaged over 2 million gallons a year. Drilling was begun in 1887. The Yenangyaung field yielded a very

The supply of petroleum before 1891, in which year drilling was started by the Burma Oil Company. Singu now holds the second place among the oil fields of India. Petroleum was struck at the end of 1901, and in 1903 5 million gallons were obtained. In 1907 and 1908 the production of this field was 48 million gallons, and after a fall to 31½ million gallons in 1910 it rose to 56½ million gallons in 1912. Several of the islands off the Arakan coasts are known to contain oil deposits but their value is uncertain. About 30,000 gallons were obtained from the eastern Banggo Island near Akysb, and about 37,000 gallons from Ramri Island in the Kyaukpyu district during 1911. Oil was struck at Minbu in 1910, the production for that year being 18,330 gallons which increased to nearly 4 million gallons in 1912. The existence of oil in Assam has been known for many years and an oil spring was struck near Makum in 1867. Nothing more, however, was done until 1883, and from that year up till 1902 progress was slow. Since that year the annual production has been between 2½ and 4 million gallons.

On the west, oil springs have been known for many years to exist in the Rawalpindi and other districts in the Punjab. In Baluchistan geological conditions are adverse, and though some small oil springs have been discovered attempts to develop them have not hitherto been successful.

Output in 1923—The statistics of petroleum show that it is becoming more and more difficult to maintain the output of India (including Burma) at the high level it reached in 1919 and 1921, which amounted to well over 800 million gallons. During 1923 the total production amounted to nearly 294½ million gallons against 298½ million gallons in 1922, for this decrease the two largest fields of Burma, Yenangyaung and Singu were mostly responsible.

The Yenangyaung field is rapidly dying, and its yield is now less than that from Thayetmyo.

As in the previous year the Singu and Yenangyaung oil fields again show a decided decrease, the outputs falling by 4½ million gallons and 4½ million gallons, respectively. Thayetmyo and Badarpur contributed, to much the same extent in each case, to the general deficit, the latter field is a disappointment and shows no promise of making any substantial contribution to India's output of petroleum. Against these declines are to be recorded an increase in the Digboi field of over 2 million gallons and a gratifying increase of nearly 4½ million gallons in the Punjab. Minbu and the Upper Chindwin more or less maintained their level.

The utilization of the shallow oil sands of the Yenangyaung field which were shut off during the competitive rush for the richer deep sands, continues several remunerative wells are now being worked at depths a little above or below 400 feet. The electrification of this field has extended itself and more than 700 wells are now being either pumped or drilled, by electricity. The Indo Burma Oilfields, Ltd., have now ceased operations in the Yenangyaung field.

During the year active prospecting was continued in the Punjab, Assam and Burma, by a variety of oil interests.

In the Punjab the oil industry entered on a new phase with the completion at Rawalpindi, and the opening in February 1922, of the refinery erected by the Attock Oil Company to deal with the production of the Khan oilfield in the Attock district. The refinery has a daily capacity of 85,000 gallons of crude oil, but the average throughput has not yet reached the maximum. The test wells in the Dhullan and Gabbir areas reached the depths of 2,800 feet and 1,760 feet respectively without striking oil in remunerative quantity, both wells have been abandoned but a fresh test at Dhullan has already been started.

Quantity and Value of Petroleum produced in India during 1922 and 1923

	1922			1923		
	Quantity	Value (Rupees—1s 4d)		Quantity	Value (Rupees—1s 4d)	
Assam—	Gals	Rs	£	Gals	Rs	£
Badarpur	4,088,731	(a) 66,794	44 458	3,655,377	4,01,912	26,794
Digboi	5,343,910	(b) 9,12,916	60 661	7,448,719	12,71,935	84,796
Burma—						
Akysb	8,886	2,563	171	8,628	2,578	172
Kyaukpyu	16,211	17,529	1,169	16,721	16,714	1,174
Minbu	8,640,416	12,31,380	82 092	3,915,140	12,28,481	81,665
Singu	92,107,996	3,45 73,653	2,804,910	87,476,474	3,28,03,678	2,186,912
Thayetmyo	2,319,835	7,24,948	48,330	1,818,584	4,54,646	30,310
Upper Chindwin	1,210,914	90,618	6,055	1,311,644	98,374	6,568
Yenangyaung	2,413,416	7,54,192	50,279	1,700,035	4,42,717	29,514
Punjab—						
Yenangyaung	179,741,493	6,72,22,038	4,481,469	175,168,721	6,54,51,455	4,368,480
Attock						
Mainwall	7,362,315	18,40,579	122,705	11,804,560	29,51,140	196,743
				450	112	
Total	298,504,125	10,30,37,412	7,202,494	294,215,055	10,51,18,737	7,607,915

(a) Revised.

(b) Estimated at Rs. 0-2-3½ per gallon.

Imports of Kerosine Oil amounted in 1923 to 64,068,637 gallons

Amber, Graphite and Mica.—Amber is found in very small quantities in Burma, the output for 1923 being 47 cwts valued at Rs 13,720. Graphite is found in small quantities in various places but little progress has been made in mining except in Travancore. The total output in 1921 was 25 tons. India has for many years been the leading producer of mica, turning out more than half of the world's supply. In 1914, owing to the war, the output was only 38,189 cwts compared with 43,650 cwts in 1913. Owing to necessary restrictions with regard to the export of mica, the output fell off considerably in the year 1915, but subsequent demand in the United Kingdom for the best grade of ruby mica led to a considerable increase in production during the following years.

There was an increase of about 1,980 cwts in the declared out-put of mica in 1923 above that of the previous year. But the output figures are incomplete, and a better idea of the size of the industry is obtained from the export figures. The exports of mica during 1923 amounted, in fact, to more than double the declared output, equalling 83,296 cwts, valued at Rs 80,76,523 (£ 538,455), this figure is not far short of double that for the previous year 1922, which was 43,145 cwts, valued at Rs 57,85,245 (£ 385,683). It will be noticed, however, that the average price of the mica fell from Rs 184 (£ 8 9) to Rs 97 (£ 6 5) per cwt.

Tin, Copper, Silver and Lead.—The only persistent attempt to mine tin is in Burma. The output was for some time insignificant but rose in 1913 to 116 tons valued at £46,000 which fell to 538,000 in 1914. In 1923 Burma yielded 1,990 tons. Copper is found in Southern India, in Rajputana, and at various places along the outer Himalayas, but the ore is smelted for the metal alone, no attempt being made to utilise the by-products. The only Lead mine of any importance being worked in the Indian Empire is that of Rawdwin, where a very large body of high-grade lead-silver ore has now been blocked out. For many years the smelting operations of the Company were directed to recovering lead and silver from the slags left by the old Chinese miners. Those slags, however, are now practically exhausted, and the mine has reached a stage of development at which a steady output of ore is assured. In 1923 the output was 46,060 tons valued at Rs 1,68,18,111.

Silver is obtained as a by-product in the smelting of the lead zinc ores of Bawdwin. The total output in 1923 was 4,843,939 oz. valued at Rs 1,01,16,985.

Zinc.—A monograph on zinc ores issued by the Imperial Institute in 1917 says that during the past fifty years zinc ores have received but little attention in India, and no production was recorded until 1913. In 1914 the production was 8,558 tons, and although the output fell to 196 tons in 1915, there is a prospect of India becoming an important producer of zinc ore in the future. Important silver-lead-silver deposits occur at Bawdwin in Tawnaung

Mandaly-Leahio Branch of the Burma railways by a narrow-gauge line 51 miles long, the line meeting at Maahpwe, which is about 544 miles from Rangoon. They were worked for many centuries by the Chinese for silver, and have long been known to contain zinc ore, until recently, however, no serious attempt appears to have been made to market the ore for its zinc values. In 1907 the present undertaking was started by the Burma Mines, Ltd, with the idea of recovering the lead from the old slag heaps left by the Chinese, estimated at 125,000 to 160,000 tons, and later to work the deposit. Smelting operations on these slags were first carried out at Mandalay, but later the works were transferred to Namtu, about 13 miles below the mines on the narrow-gauge railway. The deposits, which comprise an area of about 2,500 acres, have now been taken over by the Burma Corporation, Ltd, and one is being worked.

Gem Stones.—The only precious and semi-precious stones at present mined in India are the diamond, ruby, sapphire, spinel, tourmaline, garnet, rock-crystal, agate, corneal, jadeite and amber. Amber has already been referred to of the rest, only the ruby, sapphire and jadeite attain any considerable value in production and the export of the latter has declined owing to the disturbances in China, which is the chief purchaser of Burmese jadeite. The output of diamonds is comparatively unimportant. The output of the ruby mines in 1923 was 187,010 carats valued at Rs 7,30,185. In 1922 an exceptionally valuable ruby of nearly 23 carats was found of rare size and quality.

Wolfram.—Owing to the continued depression in the wolfram market, Tungsten ore is now nowhere extracted except in the Tavoy District, where it occurs chiefly as a constituent of mixed concentrates. The production of wolfram decreased slightly from 943 tons valued at Rs 3,75,532 (£25,085) during 1922 to 872 tons valued at Rs 4,70,693 (£31,979) in 1923. The decrease in output was, however, accompanied by a considerable increase in total value, amounting to £8,044.

Radio-active Minerals.—The General Report of the Director of the Geological Survey of India for 1913 includes a brief report by E. C. Burton on an occurrence of pitchblende at mica mines near Singar, Gaya district, Bengal. The pitchblende occurs as rounded nodules in a pegmatite that is intrusive in mica schists. Other minerals occurring in the pegmatite are mica, tripelite, ilmenite, tourmaline, and uranium ochre, whitish columbite, strom, and torbernite have also been recorded. Of these minerals tripelite is stated to be the commonest.

The importance of the find of uranium oxide impregnating the tripelite led to the discovery of weathered pitchblende, and as the pits were deepened the weathering became less and less until pure pitchblende was obtained. In the six months from July 1913 to February 1914, eight hundred weight of pitchblende was obtained from Abrahni Hill together with six tons of uranium earth debris, five to six hundred tons of tripelite and two tons of tantalite. These ores

mining lease for thirty years was obtained in respect of sixty square miles of the Singar estate. The first intention was to work only the five square miles round Abrahki and a syndicate was formed for this purpose, which on the outbreak of war, was refused a Trading License on account of the German element in it.

Labour in Mines

The question of the labour supply presents difficulties which are not encountered in countries where mining is a special calling. The majority of the persons working at the Indian coal mines are agriculturists, and the supply of labour, as experience has recently shown, depends to a material extent on the condition of the agricultural industry. "The major portion of those employed," says a report by the Department of Statistics, "are the aboriginal Dravidians from the mountainous country of Chota Nagpur and the Central Provinces but a large number of other castes is also employed, particularly in the outlying fields. The majority of the workmen follow the vocation of agriculture as well as mining and return to their homes during the period of sowing and reaping, the result being that at such times the output of many of the mines is greatly restricted. At the Makum collieries of the

Assam Railway and Trading Company, where the labour question continues to be a very difficult one, nearly a third of the total labour force are Meknals, Chinese, and Nepalese. The Chinese have, however, proved unsatisfactory, and it is unlikely that they will in future be recruited." With the increase in the depth of working the need for a skilled mining class will become accentuated, and if the price of coal remains at a sufficiently high level, further development in the introduction of coal-cutting plants may take place. During the period of high prices some nine years ago cutting plants were introduced in order to augment the output. These worked successfully, but the cost proved to be high and as labour conditions improved the machines were discarded.

The average number of persons employed daily in the coal fields during 1923 remained practically the same as it was in 1922, while the average output per person employed showed a slight improvement, rising from 94.6 tons in 1922 to 97.8 tons during the year under report, in 1910 this figure was 111.05 tons. The number of deaths by accident was unusually large totalling 363 and corresponding to a death rate of 1.81 per thousand persons employed in 1922 the total figure was 243 corresponding to a rate of 1.21 per thousand.

Average number of persons employed daily in the Indian Coalfields during 1922 and 1923,

	Number of persons employed daily		Output per person employed	Number of deaths by accident	Death-rate per 1000 persons employed
	1922	1923			
Assam	3 636	3 901	83.6	13	3.3
Baluchistan	1 492	1 195	35.6	4	3.3
Bengal	44 893	44 251	104.4	73	1.6
Bihar and Orissa	119 790	123 554	106.9	211	1.7
Burma	65	197	10.9		
Central India	2 595	2 762	63.7	1	0.4
Central Provinces	13 255	9 857	55.6	30	3.0
Hyderabad	13 402	13 658	48.6	28	2.1
Punjab	1 686	1 544	41.1	1	0.6
Rajputana	99	99	71.9	2	20.2
Total	200 913	200,918		363	
Average			97.8		1.81

Bibliography—Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India, under the Indian Mines Act (VIII of 1901) for 1923, by the Officiating Chief Inspector of Mines. Report on the Mineral Production of India during 1923.

By Dr E. H. Pascoe, Director, Geological Survey of India. Note on the Mineral Production of Burma in 1922. Monographs on Mineral Resources published by the Imperial Institute.

Stock Exchanges.

There are about 446 Share and Stock Brokers in Bombay. They carry on business in the Brokers' Hall, bought in 1899 from the funds of the Share and Stock Brokers' Association formed to facilitate the negotiations and the sale and purchase of Joint Stock securities promoted throughout the Presidency of Bombay. Their powers are defined by rules and regulations framed by the Board of Directors and approved by the general body of Brokers. The Board has the power to fix the rates in times of emergencies. The official address of the Secretary is Dalal Street, Fort, Bombay.

At first the admittance fee for a broker was Rs. 5 which was gradually raised to Rs. 7,000. The fee for the Broker's card has increased and it was recently sold by public auction for Rs. 21,800. The rules of the Association were revised in October 1916 and from the New Year the purchaser of shares has to pay the stamp and transfer fee instead of the seller. There are two classes of Exchange Brokers, Europeans and Indians, the latter being certified for recognition by the native Stock Exchange. Business in Government Paper and all other Trustees' Authorised Securities is carried on under the rules of the Bombay Stock Exchange, but in the street outside the hall.

In November 1917 a second Stock Exchange was opened in Bombay, with its headquarters in Apollo Street, known as the Bombay Stock Exchange, Ltd. This separate Exchange came to an end in 1921, when it was merged in the older body. It was revived in 1922 but complaint was made that it did very little. If any business.

Committee of Enquiry—In 1923 the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee to enquire into the constitution, government, customs, practices, rules, regulations and methods of business of the Native Share and Stock Brokers' Association of Bombay and to investigate any such complaints of the public and to make any such enquiries with reference to any of the aforesaid matters or any other matter appertaining to the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper and thereafter with a view to protect the investing public against the interested or irregular control of business to formulate such definite proposals for the future constitution, control, direction and regulation of the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper.

The Committee issued a report early in 1924 signed by all the members save one who appended a minority report. The majority report made several important recommendations for reform, notably one aimed at the prevention of corners and another for facilitating the handling of legitimate complaints against the brokers on the part of the public. The Association, however, adopted the minority report which leaves the constitution and practice of the Exchange very little modified.

For many years the Calcutta Share Market had its meeting place in various gullies in the

business quarter and was under no control except that of established market custom. In 1908 the Calcutta Stock Exchange Association was formed, a building was leased in New China Bazar Street now called Royal Exchange Place, a representative committee was formed, and the existing trade customs were focussed into rules drawn up for the conduct of business. Admittance as a member of the Stock Exchange is by vote of the committee, and the entrance fee is at present Rs. 500. The market custom differs very materially from that of most other Stock Exchanges since there are no settlement days, delivery is due the second day after the contract is passed and sales of securities are effected for the most part under blank transfers. Another difference in procedure as compared with the London Stock Exchange is that there are no "Jobbers" in the Calcutta market. The Dealers who take their place, more or less, are not compelled to quote a buyer's and a seller's rate and are themselves Brokers as well as dealers, calling upon the Banks and other clients and competing with Brokers.

There are about 150 members, besides outside brokers, the former consisting of European, Jewish, Marwari, and Bengalee firms. The Marwaris predominate. The volume of *bona fide* investment business is comparatively small and insufficient for the number of Brokers. The principal business transacted on the Calcutta Stock Exchange is connected with the shares in Jute Mills. Coal Companies, Tea Companies registered in India, Miscellaneous industrial concerns (such as Paper, Flour, Sugar) Railway and Transit Companies and Debentures, the latter comprising those of industrial concerns and Trusts. Investment Securities, namely, Municipal and Port Trust Debentures. When speculative operations are being actively engaged in, which frequently take the form of forward contracts for delivery in three months' time, the value of securities changing hands may aggregate as much as a crore of Rupees per month, but since the trade is not constant and one year differs very much from another it would be difficult to estimate what the average annual turn-over would amount to. The association has an honorary secretary and is not at present affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.

The Madras Stock Exchange situated No. 9 Broadway (in Tata Industrial Bank Buildings) consists of about 100 Members of which 25 are working Members. It was opened on 6th April 1920 and deals principally in Mill shares. Business is regulated by rules drawn up by the Directors. There is a Board of arbitration. There is an admittance membership card of Rs. 1,000 and an annual subscription of Rs. 100. The original 100 members were elected by the first Directors and each of the working members have deposited a security of Rs. 3,000 which is held by the Stock Exchange Committee.

Chambers of Commerce.

Modern commerce in India was built up by merchants from the west and was for a long time entirely in their hands. Chambers of Commerce and numerous kindred Associations were formed by them for its protection and assistance. But Indians have in recent years, taken a large and growing part in this commercial life. The extent of their participation varies greatly in different parts of India, according to the natural proclivities and genius of different races. Bombay, for instance, has led the way in the industrial and commercial regeneration of the new India, while Bengal, very active in other fields of activity, lags behind in this one. Arising from these circumstances we find Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras and other important centres, with a membership both European and Indian but alongside these have sprung up in recent years certain Associations, such as the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, of which the membership is exclusively Indian. These different classes of bodies are in no sense hostile to one another and constantly work in association.

The London Chamber of Commerce in 1912, realising the increasing attention demanded by the economic development of India, took steps to form an "East India Section" of their organization. The Indian Chambers work harmoniously with this body, but are in no sense affiliated to it, nor is there at present any inclination on their part to enter into such close relationship, because it is generally felt that the Indian Chambers can themselves achieve their objects better and more effectively than a London body could do for them, and on various occasions the London Chamber, or the East India Section of it have shown themselves out of touch with what seemed locally to be immediate requirements in particular matters.

A new movement was started in 1913 by the Hon. Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy Ibrahim, a leading millowner and public citizen of Bombay, which aims at effecting great improvement in strengthening Indian commercial organization. Sir Fazulbhoy's original plan was for the formation of an Indian Commercial Congress. The proposal met with approval in all parts of India. The scheme was delayed by the outbreak of war but afterwards received an impetus from the same cause and the first Congress was held in the 1915 Christmas holiday season in the Town Hall, Bombay. The list of members of the Reception Committee showed that all the important commercial associations of Bombay were prepared to co-operate actively.

The Congress was attended by several hundred delegates from all parts of India. Mr. (now the Hon. Sir) D. B. Wacha, President of the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber, presided, as Chairman of the Reception Committee. At the opening of the proceedings and the first business was the election of Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy as the first President. The Congress resolved upon the establishment of an Associated Indian Chamber of Commerce, and elected a Provincial Committee empowered to

take the necessary steps to get the Association registered and to enrol members and carry on work. The Congress also approved of the draft constitution.

The following are the principal paragraphs of a Memorandum of Association of the new Associated Chamber as approved by the Congress —

I. The name of the Chamber will be "THE ASSOCIATED INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE."

II. The Registered Office of the Chamber will be in Bombay.

III. The objects for which the Chamber is established are —

- (a) To discuss and consider questions concerning and affecting trade, commerce, manufactures, and the shipping interests, at meeting of delegates from Indian Chambers of Commerce and Commercial Associations or Bodies and to collect and disseminate information from time to time on matters affecting the common interests of such Chambers or Associations or Bodies and the commercial, manufacturing and shipping interests of the country.
- (b) To communicate the opinions of the Chambers of Commerce and other Commercial Associations or Bodies separately or unitedly, to the Government or to the various departments thereof, by letter, memorial, deputations or otherwise.
- (c) To petition Parliament or the Government of India or any Local Government or authority on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping.
- (d) To prepare and promote in Parliament or in the Legislative Councils of India, both Imperial and Provincial, Bills in the interest of trade, commerce, manufactures, and shipping of the country and to oppose measures which in the opinion of the Chamber, are likely to be injurious to those interests.
- (e) To attain those advantages by united action which each Chamber or Association or body may not be able to accomplish in its separate capacity.
- (f) To have power to establish an office either in England or in any part of British India with an Agent there in order to ensure to the various Chambers early and reliable information on matters affecting their interests and to facilitate communication between the Chamber or individual chambers and the Government or other public bodies, and generally to conduct and carry on the affairs of the Chamber.
- (g) To organise Chambers of Commerce, Commercial Associations or Bodies in different trade centres of the Country.

- (A) To convene when necessary the Indian Commercial Congress at such places and at such times as may be determined by a Resolution of the Chamber
- (4) To do all such other things as may be incidental or conducive to the above objects.

The Articles of Association provide for the management of the Chamber by an Executive Council composed of a President, Vice-President, and ten other members elected at the annual meeting of the Associated Chamber, the Executive Council to present a report and statement of accounts at each annual meeting

The Articles declare the number of members of the Associated Chamber not to exceed one hundred, and the Executive Council are given power to elect honorary members. "There shall be an annual meeting of the Associated Indian Chamber held at Bombay on a date to be fixed by the Executive Council in the month of February," or at some other time, and "semi-annual or special meetings may be convened by the Executive Council or on the requisition of one-third of the total number of members addressed to the Secretary."

The following are details of the principal Chambers of Commerce and kindred bodies in India at the present time —

BENGAL.

The Bengal Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1834. Its headquarters are in Calcutta. Other societies connected with the trade and commerce of the city are the Royal Exchange, the Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association, the Calcutta Trades Association, the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce and the Marwari Chamber of Commerce. The Bengal Chamber is registered with a declaration of membership of 300. Its objects are the usual purposes connected with the protection of trade "in particular in Calcutta." There are two classes of members: Permanent (Chamber and Associate) and Honorary.

Merchants, bankers, shipowners, representatives of commercial, railway and insurance companies, brokers, persons and firms engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and joint stock companies or other corporations, formed for any purpose or object connected with commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature, may be elected as permanent members of the Chamber.

The following are the office bearers of the Chamber for the year 1924-25 —

President — Mr. William C. Currie, M.L.C. (Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.)

Vice-President — Mr. Kenneth Campbell (Messrs. Shaw, Wallace & Co.)

Committee — Mr. R. N. Band, M.L.C. (Messrs. Thos. Duff & Co., Ltd.), Mr. Willoughby Carey, M.L.C. (Messrs. Bird & Co.), Mr. J. B. Crichton (Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.), Mr. B. E. G. Eddis, M.L.C. (Messrs. Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.), Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Messrs. Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.), Colonel G. R. Hearn, C.I.B., D.S.O. (Agent, Eastern Bengal Railway), Mr. J. A. Tassie (Messrs. James Finlay & Co., Ltd.)

The Secretary of the Chamber is Mr. H. M. Haywood, C.I.B. Asst. Secys. — Mr. D. K. Gunnison and Mr. A. O. Daniel.

The following are the public bodies (among others) to which the Chamber has the right of returning representatives, and the representatives returned for the current year —

Council of State — The Hon'ble Mr. J. W. A. Bell.

Bengal Legislative Council — Mr. William C. Currie, Mr. George Godfrey, Mr. George Morgan, Mr. J. Y. Philip, Mr. B. A. Skinner, Mr. B. E. G. Eddis.

Calcutta Port Commission — Sir Willoughby Carey, M.L.C. (Bird & Co.), Mr. William C. Currie, M.L.C. (Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.), Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.), Mr. J. A. Tassie (James Finlay & Co., Ltd.), Mr. W. F. Reynolds (Macnelli & Co.), Mr. B. E. G. Eddis (Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.)

Calcutta Municipal Corporation — Mr. D. J. Dalgarno (Marshall Sons & Co., India, Ltd.), Mr. J. Campbell Forrester, M.L.C. (Smith Forrester & Co.), Mr. Geo. Morgan, M.L.C. (Morgan, Walker & Co.), Mr. Norman R. Luke (James Luke & Sons), Mr. H. G. Pooker (John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.), Mr. D. Stewart Smith, Octavius Steel & Co., Ltd.

Bengal Boiler Commission — Messrs. B. Neish (Tittagarh Jute Mills Co., Ltd., No. 2), H. H. Reynolds (Andrew Yule & Co.) and H. E. Skinner, M.L.C. (Jesop & Co., Ltd.)

Board of Trustees of the Indian Museum — Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.)

Bengal Smoke Nuisance Commission — Messrs. T. M. Shewell (Burn & Co., Ltd.) and C. Robertson (Union Jute Coy. & B. Mill.)

Calcutta Improvement Trust — Mr. A. H. Johnstone, B.A., B.M., A.M.I.C.E. (East Indian Railway).

The Chamber elects representatives to various other bodies of less importance, such as the committee of the Calcutta Sailors' Home, and to numerous subsidiary associations. The following are the recognised associations of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce —

Calcutta Wheat and Seed Trade Association, Indian Jute Mills Association, Indian Tea Association, Calcutta Tea Traders Association, Calcutta Fire Insurance Association, Calcutta Import Trade Association, Calcutta Marine Insurance Agents' Association, The Wine, Spirit and Beer Association of India, Indian Mining Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Association, Indian Paper Makers' Association, Indian Engineering Association, Calcutta Jute Fabric Shippers' Association, Calcutta Hydraulic Press Association, Jute Fabric Brokers' Association, Baled Jute Shippers' Association, Calcutta Jute Dealers' Association, Calcutta Liners' Conference, Calcutta Hides and Skins Shippers' Association, Northern India Tanners' Federation, Indian Indigo Association, Indian Lac Association for Research and Calcutta Accident Insurance Association.

The Chamber maintains a Tribunal of Arbitration for the determination, settlement and adjustment of disputes and differences relating to trade, business, manufactures, and to customs of trade, between parties, all or any of whom reside or carry on business personally or by agent or otherwise in Calcutta, or else where in India or Burmah, by whomsoever of such parties the said disputes and differences be submitted. The Secretary of the Chamber acts as the Registrar of the Tribunal, which consists of such members or assistants to members as may, from time to time annually or otherwise be selected by the Registrar and willing to serve on the Tribunal. The Registrar from time to time makes a list of such members and assistants.

The Chamber also maintains a Licensed Measurers Department controlled by a special

committee. It includes a Superintendent (Mr. E. Elms), Deputy Superintendent (Mr. A. H. Legg), Head Office Manager (Mr. C. G. Smith) and three Assistant Superintendents (Messrs. J. G. Smyth, A. H. Mathews, and G. C. G. Smyth) and the staff at the time of the last official returns consisted of 112 officers. The usual system of work for the benefit of the trade of the port is followed. The Department has its own provident fund and compassionate funds and Measurers' Club. The Chamber does not assist in the preparation of official statistical abstracts. It publishes weekly the *Calcutta Prices Current*, and its Monthly Supplement, and also publishes a large number of statistical circulars of various descriptions in addition to a monthly abstract of proceedings and many other circulars on matters under discussion.

BOMBAY

The object and duties of the Bombay Chamber, as set forth in their rules and regulations, are to encourage a friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good, to promote and protect the general mercantile interests of this Presidency, to collect and classify information on all matters of general commercial interest, to obtain the removal, as far as such a Society can, of all acknowledged grievances affecting merchants as a body, or mercantile interests in general to receive and decide references on matters of usage and custom in dispute, recording such decisions for future guidance, and by this and such other means, as the Committee for the time being may think fit, assisting to form a code of practice for simplifying and facilitating business, to communicate with the public authorities, with similar Associations in other places and with individuals, on all subjects of general mercantile interests, and to arbitrate between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of the Chamber.

The Bombay Chamber was established in 1836, under the auspices of Sir Robert Grant, who was then Governor of the Presidency, and the programme described above was embodied in their first set of rules. There is affiliated with the Chamber the Bombay Millowners' Association, which exists to carry out the same general objects as the Chamber in the special interests of 'millowners and users of steam and water power.' According to the latest returns, the number of Chamber members is 144 and the number of Associated members is 2. Of these numbers 19 represent banking institutions, 7 shipping agencies and companies, 3 firms of solicitors, 3 railway companies, 6 insurance companies, 16 engineers and contractors, 92 firms engaged in general mercantile business.

All persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits desirous of joining the Chamber and disposed to aid in carrying its objects into effect are eligible to election to membership by ballot. The Chamber member's subscription is Rs. 500 and the Associate member's subscription is Rs. 200 per annum and an additional charge of

Rs. 50 per annum is made to firms as subscription to the trade returns published by the Chamber. Gentlemen distinguished for public services, or "eminent in commerce and manufactures," may be elected honorary members and as such are exempt from paying subscriptions. Any stranger engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits and visiting the Presidency may be introduced as a visitor by any Member of the Chamber inserting his name in a book to be kept for the purpose, but a residence of two months shall subject him to the rule for the admission of members.

Officers of the Year

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a committee of nine ordinary members, consisting of the chairman and deputy-chairman and seven members. The committee must, as a rule, meet at least once a week and the minutes of its proceedings are open to inspection by all members of the Chamber, subject to such regulations as the committee may make in regard to the matter. A general meeting of the Chamber must be held once a year and ten or more members may requisition, through the officers of the Chamber, a special meeting at any time, for a specific purpose.

The Chamber elects representatives as follows to various public bodies —

The Council of State, one representative
Legislative Council of the Governor of Bombay, two representatives.

Bombay Municipal Corporation, one member, elected for three years.

Board of Trustees for the Improvement of the City of Bombay, one member, elected for two years.

Board of Trustees of the Port of Bombay, five members, elected for two years.

Representatives on the Legislative Councils become ex-officio members of the committee of the Chamber, during their terms of office, if they are not already members.

The following are the officers of the Chamber for the year 1924-25 and their representatives on the various public bodies —

Chairman—L S Hudson, Esq., M.L.C.

Deputy Chairman—V A Grantham, Esq., M.L.C.

Committee—Major-General Sir Henry Freeland K.C.I.E., O.B., D.S.O., M.V.O., T. E. Cunningham, Esq., C. H. Goodall, Esq., A. K. Graham, Esq., J. Muller, Esq., Major G. O. Richardson, D.S.O., M.C., W. P. G. Taggart, Esq.

Secretary Mr U B Sayer

Representatives on—

Council of State. The Hon. Sir Arthur Froom, Kt.

Bombay Legislative Council. L S Hudson, Esq., and V A Grantham, Esq.

Bombay Port Trust. L S Hudson, Esq., M.L.C., A. K. Graham, Esq., T. E. Cunningham, Esq., V A Grantham, Esq., M.L.C., F. C. Annesley, Esq.

Bombay Improvement Trust. Harry T. Gorrie, Esq.

Bombay Municipal Corporation. D. W. Wilson, Esq., C.I.E.

Sydenham College of Commerce Advisory Board. L S Hudson, Esq., M.L.C., E. C. Dalton, Esq.

Representative on the Railway Committee. G. I. P.—F. C. Annesley, Esq., B. B. & C.I.—F. C. Annesley, Esq.

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission. B. Brown, Esq.

St. George's Hospital Advisory Committee. O. H. Goodall, Esq.

Indigenous Industries Advisory Committee. A. B. Morrison, Esq.

Indian Central Cotton Committee. Y. A. Grantham, Esq.

Empire Cotton Growing Corporation. Osborne Marshall, Esq.

Advisory Committee to the Director of Development. E. C. Reid, Esq.

Auxiliary Force Advisory Committee. D. W. Wilson, Esq., C.I.E.

Ex. Officers Association, (India). L. S. Hudson, Esq., M.L.C. (Ex Office)

Army Canton Board (India). L. S. Hudson, Esq., M.L.C.

Special Work

One of the most important functions performed by the Chamber is that of arbitration in commercial disputes. Rules for this have been in existence for many years and have worked most satisfactorily. The decisions are in all cases given by competent arbitrators appointed by the General Committee of the Chamber and the system avoids the great expense of resort to the Law Courts.

A special department of the Bombay Chamber is the Statistical Department, which prepares a large amount of statistical returns connected with the trade of the port and of great importance to the conduct of commerce. The department consists of fourteen Indian clerks who, by the authority of Government,

work in the Customs House and have every facility placed at their disposal by the Customs authorities. They compile all the statistical information in connection with the trade of the port, in both export and import divisions, which it is desirable to record. No other Chamber in India does similar work.

The Bombay Chamber publishes a Daily Arrival Return which shows the receipts into Bombay of cotton, wheat and seeds, and a Daily Trade Return which deals with trade by sea and shows in great detail imports of various kinds of merchandise and of treasure, while the same return contains particulars of the movements of merchant vessels.

The Chamber publishes twice a week detailed reports known as Import and Export manifests, which give particulars of the cargo carried by each steamer to and from Bombay.

Three statements are issued once a month. One shows the quantity of exports of cotton, seeds and wheat from the principal ports of the whole of India. The second gives in detail imports from Europe, more particularly in regard to grey cloths, bleached cloths, Turkey red and scarlet cloths, printed and dyed goods, fancy cloth of various descriptions, woollens, yarns, metals, kerosine oil, coal, engine dye, sugar, matches, wines and other sundry goods. The third statement is headed, "Movements of Piece Goods and Yarn by Rail," and shows the despatches of imported and local manufactured piece-goods and yarn from Bombay to other centres of trade served by the railways.

The "Weekly Return" issued by the Chamber shows clearances of a large number of important destinations of merchandise. A return of "Current Quotations" is issued once a week, on the day of the departure of the English mail, and shows the rates of exchange for Bank and Mercantile Bills on England and Paris, and a large quantity of general banking and trade information.

The annual reports of the Chamber are substantial tomes in which the whole of the affairs of the Chamber and the trade of the port during the past year are reviewed.

The Chamber has also a Measurement Department with a staff of 18, whose business is that of actual measurement of exports in the docks before loading in steamers. Certificates are issued by these officers with the authority of the Chamber to shippers and ship agents as to the measurement of cotton and other goods in bales or packages. The measurers are in attendance on the quays whenever there are goods to be measured and during the busy season are on duty early and late. The certificates granted show the following details —

- the date, hour and place of measurement,
- the name of the shipper,
- the name of the vessel,
- the port of destination,
- the number and description of packages,
- the marks,
- the measurement, and, in the case of goods shipped by boats,
- the registered number of the boat;
- the name of the tidal.

Bombay Millowners' Association.

The Bombay Millowners' Association was established in 1875 and its objects are as follows—

- (a) The protection of the interests of millowners and users of steam water and/or electric power in India.
- (b) The promotion of good relations between the persons and bodies using such power
- (c) The doing of all those acts and things by which these objects may be furthered

Any individual partnership or company, owning one or more mill or mills or one or more press or presses or one or more ginning or other factory or factories actuated by steam, water, electric and/or other power is eligible for membership, members being elected by ballot. Every member is entitled to one vote for every complete sum of Rs 50 paid by him as annual subscription.

The membership of the Association in 1924 numbered 97

The following is the Committee for 1924—

S D Saklatvala, Esq (Chairman) A Geddis, Esq (Deputy Chairman), Sir Dinshaw M. Petit, Bart., The Honble Sir Dinshaw E. Wacha, Kt., Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy, Kt., OBE, H. F. Commissariat, Esq., J. A. Kay, Esq., MLC, H. P. Mody, Esq., Katanal D. Morarji, Esq., Laljee Naranje, Esq., MLC, Jehangir B. Petit, Esq., Munimohandas Ramji, Esq., N. B. Saklatvala, Esq., CIE, Captain E. V. Sassoon, H. H. Sawyer, Esq., F. F. Stilleman, Esq., F. Stones, Esq., OBE, Madhoolji D. Thackersey, Esq., C. N. Wadia, Esq., CIE, MLC, T. Watts, Esq., T. Maloney, Esq., MLC, A. M. O. T., Secretary J. P. Wadia, Esq., B.A., Asst. Secretary

The following are the Association's Representatives on public bodies—

Bombay Legislative Council Mr C. N. Wadia, CIE, MLC

Bombay Port Trust Mr N. B. Saklatvala, CIE

City of Bombay Improvement Trust Mr S. D. Saklatvala.

Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute Messrs Jehangir B. Petit and C. N. Wadia, CIE, MLC

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission Messrs N. B. Saklatvala, CIE, and W. A. Sutherland

Advisory Board of Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics Mr S. D. Saklatvala

Central Cotton Committee Mr J. A. Kay, MLC

Development of Bombay Advisory Committee Mr Jehangir B. Petit

Bombay Technical and Industrial Educational Committee Mr J. A. Kay, MLC

Royal Institute of Science Advisory Committee Mr J. A. Kay, MLC

League of Nations—Commissioners of Enquiry Mr J. A. Kay, MLC

G. I. P. Railway Advisory Committee Mr A. Geddis

B. R. & C. I. Railway Advisory Committee Mr Munimohandas Ramji

Bombay Municipal Corporation Mr H. P. Mody

The Office of the Association is located in Sohrab House, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay, and the telephone number is 26350

Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd

The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd., was registered on 30th June 1924 as a Company limited by guarantee. The registered office of the Association is located in Sohrab House, Hornby Road, Bombay

The objects of the Association are—

- (a) The mutual insurance of members of the Company against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependents, for injuries or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of and in the course of their employment.
- (b) The insurance of members of the Company against loss or damage by or incidental to fire, lightning, etc., and (c) to reinsure or in any way provide for or against the liability of the Company upon any assurances granted or entered into by the Company, and generally to effect and obtain re-insurances, counter insurances and counter-guarantees, etc., etc.

The Association consisted of 57 members on 1st November 1924

All members of the Millowners' Association are eligible for admission to the Mutual Company. Non-members are also eligible for membership of the Mutual provided their application is approved of by the Committee of the Millowners' Association

The affairs of the Mutual Insurance Association are under the control of a Board of Directors

The present Directors are—

Mr S. D. Saklatvala, Chairman, Mr A. Geddis, Capt. E. V. Sassoon, Mr J. A. Kay, Mr C. N. Wadia, Mr Munimohandas Ramji, Mr G. M. Rose, and Mr B. K. Mantri, B.A., Barr-at-Law, Secretary of the Association

Indian Merchants' Chamber.

The Indian Merchants Chamber was established in the year 1907. Its objects are—

- (a) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian merchants
- (b) To secure organised action on all subjects relating to the interests of the Indian business community directly and in directly

- (c) To promote the objects of the Indian business community in matters of inland and foreign trade, shipping and transport, industry and manufacture, banking and insurance
- (d) To collect and disseminate statistical and other information securing the promotion of the objects of the Chamber and to make efforts for the spread of commercial and economic knowledge
- (e) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing legislation or other action affecting the aforesaid interests by the Government or any Department thereof or by any local body or bodies and in general to take the initiative to secure the welfare of the business community in all respects
- (f) To make representations to Local Central or Imperial authorities, Executive or Legislative on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping, banking or insurance
- (g) To undertake by arbitration the settlement of commercial disputes between merchants and businessmen and also to provide for arbitration in respect of disputes arising in the course of trade, industry or transport, and to secure the services of expert technical and other men to that end if necessary or desirable
- (h) To advance and promote commercial and technical education and to found and support establishments and institutions for such purposes
- (i) To undertake special enquiries and action for securing redress for legitimate grievances of any branch of trade or industry as also all such other actions as may be conducive to the extension of trade, commerce or manufactures, or incidental to the attainment of the above objects
- (j) To secure the interests and well being of the Indian business communities abroad
- (k) And generally to do all that may be necessary in the interests of the realisation of the above objects of the Chamber directly or indirectly

There are three classes of members —

- (1) Ordinary, (2) Patrons and (3) Honorary

- (1) There are three classes of ordinary members —

- (a) Residents of Bombay and its suburbs who will have to pay Rs 75 as annual subscription, but joint stock Companies will have to pay Rs 100 per year.
- (b) *Mufassil* members who will have to pay Rs. 25 as annual subscription
- (c) Associations which will have to pay Rs. 125 as annual subscription.

Admission Fee — All the ordinary members and patrons pay Rs 100 as admission fee which is credited to a capital fund of the Chamber and not expended on revenue account except with the consent of the general body

- (2) **Patrons** — Indian firms or individual Indian merchants can join as Patrons. Firms will have to pay Rs 5,000 and individuals Rs 2,500 as donation, the proceeds of which will be credited to a capital fund which shall not be expended on revenue account but the interest thereof shall be taken to revenue account
- (3) **Honorary members** — Gentlemen distinguished for public services or eminent in commerce and manufactures or otherwise interested in the aims and objects of the Chamber may be elected as Honorary members by a General Meeting of the Chamber on the recommendation of the Committee and as such shall be exempted from paying subscriptions. They shall not be entitled to vote at any meeting of the Chamber nor shall they be eligible to serve on the Committee

Any Indian gentleman, firm or association engaged in mercantile pursuits or interested in trade and commerce desirous of joining the Chamber shall be eligible for membership

The following bodies are connected directly and indirectly with the Chamber —

The Grain Merchants' Association (which is a member)

The Hindustani Native Merchants' Association (which is a member)

The Bombay Rice Merchants Association

The Bombay Yarn, Copper and Brass Native Merchants Association

The Mauritius Shippers' Association

The Bombay Shroff Association

The Bombay Diamond Merchants Association

The Bombay Pearl Merchants' and Jewellers' Association

The Bombay Bullion Exchange, Ltd

The Bombay Paper and Stationery Merchants Association

The Ghee Merchants' Association, Bombay

The Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants Association, Bombay

The Sugar Merchants' Association

The Indian Match Manufacturers Association

Under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, the Chamber has the right of electing one representative on the Indian Legislative Assembly and one on the Bombay Legislative Council. The Chamber also has the right to elect five representatives on the Bombay Port Trust and one representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation

The following are the Office-bearers of the Indian Merchants' Chamber for the year 1924 —

Manmohandas Ramji Esq., J.P. (President)
The Honourable Mr. Phiroze C. Sethna, O.B.E. (Vice President)

(Members)

Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E. M.B.E., M.L.A.
Sir Farukhbay Currimbhoy Kt., C.B.E.
Lalji Naranji, Esq., M.L.C.
Jehangir Bomanji Petit, Esq.
Honourable Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas, C.I.E.
Ishwardas Lakhmidas Esq.
Devidas Madhavji Thakersey Esq.
Laxmidas Rowjee Tatraee, Esq.
B. F. Madon Esq.
S. N. Pochkhanawalla, Esq.
S. R. Billimoria Esq.
Motilal Kunji Esq.
Jamnadas Dwarkadas Esq.
Fazal Ibrahim Rahimtoola, Esq.
Mavji Govindji Sheth Esq.
Gulabchand Devchand Javeri, Esq.
H. P. Modi, Esq.
Morarji Mulraj Khatau Esq.
Vallabhdas Chaturbhuj Shrivjee, Esq.
Walchand Hirchand Esq.
M. V. Merchant Esq.
B. Das, Esq., M.L.A.
Motilal Vallabji Esq.

(Co-opted Members)

M. M. Amersey, Esq.
Kaikobad Cowan, Dinshaw, Esq.
Manu Subedar, Esq.
Prof. Khushal T. Shah
Madhavji D. Thakersey, Esq.

(Ex-officio Member)

Chhotalal Kilachand Esq. (Bombay Port Trust)

The following are the Chambers representatives on various public bodies —

Indian Legislative Assembly Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E., M.L.A.
Bombay Legislative Council Sir Lalji Naranji, M.L.C.

Chamber's Representatives on the Board of Trustees of the Bombay Port Trust Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E., Mr. Devidas Madhavji Thakersey, Mr. Chhotalal Kilachand Devchand Mr. Ishwardas Laxmidas Mr. Lalji Naranji M.L.C.

Chamber's Representatives on the Bombay Municipal Corporation Mr. Ishwardas Laxmidas

Representatives on the Advisory Committee to the Bombay Development Department Mr. Manu Subedar

Representative on the Indian Central Cotton Committee Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E.

Representative on the Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Sciences in Bombay Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E.

Representative on the Advisory Committee of the Grant Medical College, Bombay Mr. Manmohandas Ramji (Ex-officio)

Secretary Mr. J. K. Mehta, M.A.

Assistant Secretary Mr. K. M. Desai, B.Com.

The Chambers Anglo Gujarati Quarterly is published in July, October, January and April.

Bombay Native Piece-Goods Merchants' Association.

The objects of the Association are as follow —

(a) To promote by creating friendly feelings and unity amongst the Merchants, the business of the piece goods trade in general at Bombay and to protect the interest thereof (b) to remove as far as it will be within the powers of the Association to do so all the trade difficulties of the piece goods business and to frame such line of conduct as will facilitate the trade, (c) to collect and assort statistics relating to piece goods and to correspond with public bodies on matters affecting trade, and which may be deemed advisable for the protection and advancement of objects of the Association or any of them, and (d) to hear and decide disputes that may be referred to for arbitration.

The following are the office bearers for the current year —

Chairman—Mr. Manmohandas Ramji, J.P.

Deputy Chairman—Mr. Devidas Madhavji Thakersey, J.P.

Hon. Joint Secretaries—Messrs. Goculdas Jivraj Dayal and Harjiwan Walji

Hon. Treasurer—Mr. Mulji Laxmidas

Grain Merchants' Association.

The object of this body is "to promote the interests of the merchants and to put the grain and oil seeds trade on a sound footing. It is an influential body of large membership. The office holders for the current year are as follow —

Chairman—Mr. Velji Lakhmal, B.A., LL.B.

Vice-Chairman—Mr. Purshotam Hirji

Hon. Secretary—Mr. Nathoo Cooverji

Secretary—Mr. Uttamram Ambaram, B.A.

The address of the Association is 262, Masjid Bunder Road.

KARACHI

The objects and duties of the Karachi Chamber of Commerce are set forth in terms similar to those of Bombay. Qualifications for membership are also similar. Honorary Membership may be conferred upon "any gentlemen interested in the affairs and objects of the Chamber" subject to election by the majority of votes of members. All new members joining the Chamber pay Rs 500 entrance fee and the

monthly subscription is Rs 18. The subscription to the Chamber's periodical returns is at present fixed at Rs 5 per month. The affairs of the Chamber are managed by a committee of ten members, consisting of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and eight members, elected at the annual meeting of the Chamber as early in the year as possible. The Chamber elects a representative on the Bombay Legislative

Council, three representatives on the Karachi Port Trust and two on the Karachi Municipality. There were last year 66 members of the Chamber. The following are the officers for the current year —

Chairman—Mr F Clayton, CIB, MLC (Fleming, Shaw & Co)

Vice-Chairman—R D England Esq (Messrs Grahams Trading Co, Ltd)

Committee—Messrs J R Affeltranger (Vol kart Brothers), J R Baxter (Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co), C H H Chessall (National Bank of India Ltd), C C Demetriadi (Ball Brothers), J Herbertson (James Finlay & Co), E A Pearson (Forbes Forbes, Campbell & Co Ltd), A I Sleigh (North Western Railway) and H C Whitehouse

Representatives on the Bombay Legislative Council—Mr F Clayton MLC

Representatives on the Karachi Port Trust—Mr F Clayton MLC Mr C C Demetriadi & Mr J R Baxter

Representatives on the Karachi Municipality—Mr F R Hawke, OBE & Mr E G H Mewburn

Secretary—Major Alan Duguid, AFO, late R A F

Public Measure—Major Alan Duguid (Ag)

The following are the principal ways in which the Chamber gives a special assistance to members. The Committee take into consideration and give an opinion upon questions submitted by members regarding the custom of the trade or of the Port of Karachi. The Committee undertake to nominate European surveyors for the settlements of disputes as to the quality or condition of merchandise in which both parties desire the Chamber to do so. When two members of the Chamber or when one member and a party who is not a member have agreed to refer disputes to the arbitration of the Chamber or of an arbitrator or arbitrators nominated by the Chamber, the Committee will undertake to nominate an arbitrator or arbitrators under certain regulations. Similarly the Chamber under certain regulations will undertake to appoint an arbitrator or arbitrators for the settlement of disputes in which neither of the parties are members of the Chamber. A public measurer is appointed under the authority of the Chamber to measure pressed bales of cotton wool hides and other merchandise arriving at or leaving the port.

MADRAS

The Madras Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1838. All merchants and other persons engaged or interested in the general trade, commerce and manufactures of Madras are eligible for membership. Any assistant signing a firm or signing *per-pro* for a firm is eligible. Members who are absent from Madras but pay their subscriptions may be represented in the Chamber by their powers of attorney as honorary members, subject to ballot. Honorary members thus elected are entitled to the full privilege of ordinary members. Election for membership as by ballot at a general meeting, a majority of two-thirds of the recorded votes being necessary to secure election. Every member pays an entrance fee of Rs 100 provided that banks, corporate bodies and mercantile firms may be represented on the Chamber by one or more members and are liable for an entrance fee of Rs 100 once in ten years each. The subscriptions shall not exceed Rs 300 per annum payable quarterly in advance, subject to reduction from time to time in accordance with the state of the Chambers finances. Absentees in Europe pay no subscription and members temporarily absent from Madras pay one rupee per month. Honorary members are admissible to the Chamber on the usual conditions. Members becoming insolvent cease to be members but are eligible for re-election without repayment of the entrance donation.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations and surveys the granting of certificates of origin and the registration of trade marks. One of the rules for the last named is "that no trade mark on ticket shall be registered on behalf of an Indian firm trading under a European name."

The following publications are issued by the Chamber—Madras Price Current and Market Report, Tonnage Schedule and Madras Landing Charges and Harbour Dues Schedule.

There are 49 members and eight honorary members of the Chamber in the current year and the officers and committee for the year are as follows —

Chairman—Mr T M Ross

Vice Chairman—Sir James Simpson

Committee—Mr W M Browning Mr H F P Pearson Mr W Lamb Mr C H Straker, Mr W C Wright

The following are bodies to which the Chamber are entitled to elect representatives and the representatives elected for the year —

Madras Legislative Council—Mr T M Ross and Sir James Simpson

Madras Port Trust—Mr T M Ross, Sir James Simpson Mr H F P Pearson & G W Chambers

Corporation of Madras—Mr A B Bradshaw, Mr D S Bremner & Mr A J Powell

British Imperial Council of Commerce London—Mr A D Jackson (Europe)

Secretary—Mr H Waddington

Southern India Chamber.

The Southern India Chamber of Commerce has its Registered Office in Madras. The objects of the Chamber are those usual for such bodies concerning the promotion of trade especially in the Madras Presidency and the interests of members. Special objects are stated to be —

"To maintain a Library of books and publications of commercial interest so as to diffuse commercial information and knowledge amongst its members."

"To establish Museums of commercial products or organise exhibitions either on behalf of the Chamber or in co-operation with others."

There are two classes of members permanent and honorary. The usual conditions as to eligibility for election prevail.

The right of electing two representatives to the Madras Port Trust was accorded to the Chamber by the Madras Port Trust Amendment Act, 1915. Members of the Chamber hold seats in the Madras Legislative Council and the Chamber has also been accorded the right of electing a representative to that body. Under the Madras City Municipal Act, 1919, the Chamber has the right of electing two Councillors to the Madras Corporation.

UPPER INDIA CHAMBER.

The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is concerned with trade, commerce and manufactures in the United Provinces and has its registered office at Cawnpore. Members are elected by the Committee, subject to confirmation by the next general meeting of the Chamber. Gentlemen distinguished for public service, or eminent in commerce or manufactures, may be elected honorary members of the Chamber by the members in a General Meeting and such shall be exempted from paying any subscription to the Chamber. There is no entrance fee for membership, but subscriptions are payable as follows—A firm, company or association having its place of business in Cawnpore, Rs 500 a year, an individual member, resident or carrying on business in Cawnpore, Rs 100, firms or individuals having their places of business or residence outside Cawnpore pay half the above rates, but the maintenance of a branch office in Cawnpore necessitates payment of full rates.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a Committee of ten members, which has power to constitute Local Committees, of from four to seven members each, at trade centres where membership is sufficiently numerous to justify the step. Such Local Committees have power to communicate only with the Central Committee.

President—Sir M Ct. Muthia Chetty

Vice-Presidents—Dewan Bahadur Govindas Chathoortbhujadas and Mr O Abdul Hakim Sahib

Honorary Secretaries—Mahomed Musa, Salt and O Gopala Menon

Assistant Secretary—C Duraiswamy Aivanar, B A

The Chamber appoints arbitration Tribunals for the settlement and adjustment of disputes when invited, to do so, members of the Tribunals being selected from a regular printed list of arbitrators.

The Chamber has in the present year 70 members, three honorary members and six affiliated members.

The following are the officers—

Upper India Chamber of Commerce Committee, *President*—Mr A B Shakespear, C I E (Messrs Begg, Sutherland & Co., Ltd.), *Vice-President*—Mr G M Hunter Thoms (The Muir Mills Co., Ltd.), *Members*—Mr A Smart (The Allahabad Bank Ltd.), Mr W R Watt M.A. (The British India Corporation, Ltd.), Mr A L Carnegie (The British India Corporation, Ltd.), Mr J M Lovvile (Messrs Begg, Sutherland and Co., Ltd.), Babu Ram Narain (Cawnpore), Mr J P Srivastava, M Sc (Cawnpore), Mr P V Blomfield (Messrs Bird & Co.), *Representatives on the United Provinces Legislative Council*—Sir Thomas Smith, M.L.C. (The Muir Mills Co., Ltd.), Mr T Gavin Jones, M.L.C. (Messrs D Waldo & Co., Ltd.)

Secretary—Mr J G Ryan

Head Clerk—Mr B N Ghosal

PUNJAB.

The Punjab Chamber of Commerce has its headquarters at Delhi and exists for the care of mercantile interests on the usual lines in the Punjab, the North West Frontier Province and Kashmir. The Chamber has Branches at Amritsar and Lahore. Membership is by ballot and is restricted to Banks, Merchants (wholesale), Railways and proprietors of large industrial interests. The entrance fee is Rs 100 and the rate of subscription Rs 180 per year. The Chamber returns one member to a seat on the Reformed Punjab Legislative Council jointly with the Punjab Trades Association, and shares representation in the Indian Legislative Assembly with other Chambers which are members of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, in the seat allotted to the Associated Chambers. The Chamber is a member of the British Imperial Council of Commerce, London and is represented in England by Sir James Walker K.C.I.E. The Chamber is also represented on the Municipal Corporation of Amritsar and Delhi as well as on the East Indian Railway Advisory Committee, Cawnpore, the Cotton Exports Duties Advisory Committee, Bombay and the Auxiliary Forces Committees, Delhi & Lahore Military Areas.

The Managing Committee meets alternately at Delhi and Lahore and the following are office bearers—

Chairman Mr V F Gray, M.L.C.

Deputy Chairman Mr P. Mukerjee

Members Mr Raj Nath Baysal (Crown Flour Mills, Delhi), Mr D N Bhanja (Kerr, Larrock & Co., Delhi), Mr V H Boath (Traffic Manager, Commercial, N.W.F., Lahore), Mr J Davidson (Messrs Bird & Co., Lahore), Mr Baabeshwar Nath Khanna (The Cotton Trading Syndicate, Lahore), Mr I K Fordyce (Allahabad Bank, Ltd., Delhi), Mr Iacchmi Narain (I D Lachhmi Narain, Amritsar), Mr G V Lewis (New Egerton Woolen Mills Co., Ltd., Dhariwal), Mr Motiram Mehra (Messrs Motiram Mehra & Co., Amritsar), Mr A C Mullen (The Amritsar Distillery Company, Amritsar), Mr B E Grant Govan (The Delhi Flour Mills Co., Ltd., Delhi), Rai Bahadur Ram Saran Dass, C.I.E., M.C.S. (Lahore), Mr Shri Ram (Delhi Cloth & General Mills Co., Ltd., Delhi), Mr D T Simpson (Messrs Turner Hoare & Co., Ltd., Lahore).

Secretary—Mr R. S. Hearn

UNITED PROVINCES.

Cawnpore.

The number of members on register is 109 (78 Local and 31 Mofussil). All the important commercial and industrial interests of the Provinces of Agra and Oudh are represented.

President—Bai Bahadur Lala Bishambhar Nath, Proprietor of Sri Krishna Ginning Factory and Director of the Punjab National Bank, Ltd., Cawnpore.

Vice-Presidents—Babu Sri Ram Khanna (Managing Director of Messrs. Ramchandra Gurnhal Mal Cotton Mills Co., Ltd., Lucknow); Lala Ramkumar (of Messrs. Ramkumar Ramchandrasekhar, Cawnpore).

Secretary—Bai Bahadur Babu Vikramjit Singh, M.L.C., Director of British India Corporation, Ltd., Cawnpore.

Joint Secretary—Babu Gurr Prasad Kapoor (of Messrs. Basti Ram Mata Din Cawnpore).

Members of the Committee—Babu Dwarka Prasad Singh, Cawnpore; Babu Kaika Prasad (of Messrs. Puttan Lal Gopi Narain), Cawnpore; Babu Behari Lal, Cawnpore; Mr. L. D. Varshani, Proprietor of the U. P. Glass Works, Ltd., Bahjola, District Moradabad; Lala Jawahir Lal Jainy (of Messrs. Jainy Brothers), Cawnpore; Mr. Hira Lal Khanna (of Messrs. Jwala Prasad Badha Krishan, Cawnpore); Mr. J. P. Srivastava, Cawnpore; Lala Rameshwar Prasad (of Messrs. Garga Dhar Baij Nath), Cawnpore; Mr. W. C. de Narounah (of Messrs. M. X. de Narounah & Sons), Cawnpore; Lala Kedar Nath (of Messrs. Sardar Mal Hardat Rai), Cawnpore; Pt. Sureshendra Nath (of Messrs. Sureshendra Nath Kaika Prasad), Cawnpore; Raj Sahib Babu Gopinath (of Messrs. Gopi Nath Chhanga Mal), Cawnpore.

BURMA.

The Burma Chamber of Commerce, with headquarters at Rangoon, exists to encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good, to promote and protect trade, commerce and manufactures and, in particular, the general mercantile interests of the province, to communicate with public authorities, associations and individuals on all matters, directly or indirectly affecting these interests, and to provide for arbitration between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of arbitrators appointed by the Chamber. The following are affiliated bodies—

Burma Fire Insurance Association

Burma Marine Insurance Agents' Association

Rangoon Import Association.

Burma Motor Insurance Agents Association

The Chamber elects representatives to the following Public Bodies—

Council of State

Burma Legislative Council

Rangoon Port Trust Board

Rangoon Corporation

Victoria Memorial Park Trustees

Pasteur Institute Committee

Burma University Council.

Rangoon Development Trust.

Standing Advisory Committee on Communications in Burma.

Rangoon European Stipend Board

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board, Rangoon

Advisory Committee Constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920

Council of Dufferin's Fund Managing Committee.

Standing Committee on the Imperial Idea.

Local Railway Advisory Council

Rangoon Water Supply Committee.

All British corporations, companies, firms or persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits, such as merchants, bankers, ship-owners and brokers or who are connected with agriculture, mining, manufactures, insurance, railways, commerce, art, science or literature shall be eligible to become Chamber Members. Every non-British concern or person, similarly engaged or interested as indicated above, other than a subject of a State with which the British Empire was at War on September 10th, 1918, shall be eligible for election as an Associate Member. The annual subscription of each Chamber Member shall be Rs. 480 per annum and of each Associate Member Rs. 360 per annum. An entrance fee of Rs. 150 is payable by each new Member. Officials and others indirectly connected with the trade of the province or who may have rendered distinguished service to the interests represented by the Chamber may be elected by the Committee either on their own motion or on the suggestion of two Members as Honorary Members of the Chamber. Honorary Members are not required to subscribe to the funds of the Chamber.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations in addition to its ordinary work. It does not publish any statistical returns.

Secretary—Mr. C. A. Cuttices, M.B.E., F.R.C.S., F.R.S.A.

Representative on the Council of State—Hon. Mr. W. A. W. Dawson.

Representations on the Burma Legislative Council—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.B.E., M.L.C., and R. Sinclair, Esq., M.L.C.

Representations on the Rangoon Port Trust Board—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.B.E., M.L.C., A. McKend, Esq., J. K. Mickle, Esq. and R. Sinclair, Esq., M.L.C.

Representative on the Rangoon Municipal Committee—J. B. Turner, Esq.

Victoria Memorial Park Trustees—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.B.E., M.L.C.

Pasteur Institute Committee—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.B.E., M.L.C.

Burma University Council—Mr. H. Smith, M.A.

Rangoon Development Trust—R. Sinclair, Esq., M.L.C.

Standing Advisory Committee on Communications in Burma—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt O.B.I., M.L.C.

Rangoon European Stipend Board—Mr C. A. Outtrim, M.B.E., F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A.

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board—Mr L. Baird.

Countess of Dufferin's Fund, Managing Committee—A. McKeand, Esq.

Standing Committee on the Imperial Idea—J. R. Turner, Esq.

Local Railway Advisory Council—H. Calder Esq.

Rangoon Water Supply Committee—J. W. Richardson, Esq., J. R. Baird Smith, Esq., and A. G. Bray, Esq.

Advisory Committee constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920—J. R. Turner, Esq.

COCANADA.

The Cocanada Chamber of Commerce was established on 29th October, 1888.

The following are the members of the Chamber and has its head quarters at Cocanada, the chief port on the Coromandel Coast, north of Madras—

Messrs Simson Bros., Ltd., the Coromandel Co., Ltd., Wilson & Co. Jones & Co., Ripley & Co., Volkart Bros., Shaw Wallace & Co. Gordon & Woodroffe & Co., J. H. Vasseaur & Co., Ltd., Alfred Johnson Co. Inc., the Northern Circars Development Co., the Agent, Imperial Bank of India.

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

Mr A. E. Todd (Chairman)

, C. Hodding

, G. Attwood

, G. A. LeStyng, Secretary

The rules of the Chamber provide "that by the term 'member' be understood a mercantile firm or establishment, or the permanent agency of a mercantile firm or establishment, or a society of merchants carrying on business in Cocanada, or other place in the Districts of Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam, and Ganjam, and duly electing according to the Rules of the Chamber, and that all such be eligible but only

members resident in Cocanada can hold office. Members are elected by ballot. The Committee, when called upon by disputing members or non-members of the Chamber, give their decision upon all questions of mercantile usage and arbitrate upon any commercial matter referred to them for final judgment. In either case a minimum fee of Rs. 16 must accompany the reference with Rs. 5 from a non-member and Rs. 1 from a member as payment for the Chamber's Sealed Certificate.

The Committee consisting of 3 members, including the Chairman, are elected by ballot at the general meeting in January in each year for a term of 12 months. The entrance fee for each member, whose place of business is in Cocanada, is Rs. 100 and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 25. The subscription for each member whose place of business is in Cocanada is Rs. 120 per annum, payable quarterly and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 60 per annum, payable in advance. Committee meetings are held on the 1st Tuesday in the month and general meetings on the 3rd Tuesday or when ordered.

A Fortnightly Circular of current rates of produce, freights, and exchange is drawn up by the Committee.

NORTHERN INDIA

The Northern India Chamber of Commerce, Lahore, was inaugurated in November 1923, to watch over the mercantile interests of the hitherto practically unrepresented area of Northern India and the N. W. F. Province.

The main aims and objects of the Chamber are to promote and protect commerce and industries, to obtain the redress of any grievances and hardships under which the general mercantile community suffer, and to establish just and equitable principles of trading, etc. Among its other activities, the Chamber under takes the conduct of surveys and arbitrations, the registration of Trade Marks, etc.

Members are elected by ballot, the entrance fee and annual subscription for firms in Lahore being Rs. 100 and Rs. 200, respectively.

The following are the Officers, Committee, etc., for the year from April 1924—

Chairman—Mr W. R. Macpherson

Vice Chairman—Mr D. J. Horn

Committee—Messrs D. May Arrindell, P. H.

Guest, Roy Croft, A. Gilbert, H. J.

Rustomji, J. Mitchell, and L. Raja Ram

Secretary—H. J. Martin

Office—Allahabad Bank Building, The Mall Lahore

CEYLON.

The Ceylon Chamber of Commerce was established on the 25th March 1889 and was incorporated in 1895, with its headquarters at Colombo. All firms and persons engaged in the general trade of Ceylon are admissible as members and every person or firm desirous of joining the Chamber must be proposed by one member, seconded by another and balloted for by the whole Chamber. The affairs of the Chamber are conducted by a Board of Directors consisting of Chairman and Vice-Chairman and from 5 to 10 members.

The following is the membership of the Board at the present time—

Hon'ble Col. E. J. Hayward, C.B.E., V.D.

(Chairman), Mr J. J. Wall (Vice-Chairman), Mr H. G. P. Maddocks, Mr W.

Fraser, Mr S. P. Hayley, Mr L. O. Looke,

Mr O. A. Pearey, Mr N. J. G. Robertson,

Mr J. J. Park, Mr R. H. Skirde, Mr A. B.

Quarne, Mr F. Trollope

Secretary—Mr C. F. Whitaker

Representative to the Legislative Council—

Hon'ble Col. E. J. Hayward, C.B.E., V.D.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCIAL INTELLIGENCE.

The Department of Statistics was reabsorbed into the Department of Commercial Intelligence with effect from the 1st December 1922. The joint department has its office at No 1, Council House Street, Calcutta, the headquarters of the Director-General. It embraces two distinct classes of work (a) the collection and dissemination of information connected with overseas trade which may be of use to Indian firms, and (b) the compilation and publication of All-India statistics. The latter are published in a series of volumes of which the most important are the *sea-borne Trade Accounts*, monthly and annual, *Statistical Abstract*, *Agricultural Statistics* (in two volumes), and the *Review of Trade*. The department also publishes a weekly journal—'The Indian Trade Journal'—the principal features of which are (a) information as to tariff changes in foreign countries which affect Indian interests, (b) notices of tenders called for by Government departments and public bodies, (c) crop reports and forecasts, (d) Government orders, communications and other notifications affecting trade, (e) analysis of Indian trade statistics, (f) market reports, prices and trade movements of the staple exports and imports, (g) trade enquiries for securing trade introductions, (h) summaries of the leading features of consular and other trade reports, and (i) abstracts of the proceedings of the various Chambers of Commerce in India.

The Department also administers the **COMMERCIAL LIBRARY AND READING ROOM** located at No 1, Council House Street, Calcutta. This was at first a small departmental library used for the purpose of answering enquiries, but in 1919 the Government of India agreed to the formation of a combined technological library of reference in Calcutta in place of the separate libraries attached to the Departments of Commercial Intelligence, Statistics, and Patents and Designs, and the resultant Commercial Library and Reading Room was placed under the administrative control of the Director-General. It has now been expanded into a first-class technical library containing over 9,000 volumes as well as Indian and foreign statistical publications, and 200 technical and commercial journals and market reports. Ordinarily books are consulted in the Library, but they are also available on loan upon deposit of value.

The Department works in close co-operation with Directors of Industries and other Government Departments in India, with the Indian Trade Commissioner in London, with His Majesty's Trade Commissioners in India and the Dominions, and with Consular Officers in various parts of the world. And the yearly increase in its correspondence shows that it is steadily being used more and more both by firms in India and by overseas firms interested in Indian exports.

THE BRITISH TRADE COMMISSIONER SERVICE IN INDIA

The British Trade Commissioners in India are part of the world wide Commercial Intelligence Organisation of the Imperial Government. The Department of Overseas Trade, London, which is the headquarters of this organisation, is a joint department of the Board of Trade and the Foreign Office and was created in 1917 with the specific object of stimulating the overseas trade of the United Kingdom by securing Commercial information from all parts of the world, by disseminating it to British manufacturers and exporters, by undertaking such special constructive activities as may be found possible, and by assisting traders in the removal of their difficulties. The Department has nothing to do with the regulation of trade. It passes no measures and makes no restrictive or regulative orders. Briefly, the policy on which it is based is the policy of assistance without interference.

The Department of Overseas Trade maintains a network of trained and experienced Commercial Intelligence officers throughout the world, who forward a constant supply of commercial information to London and provide local assistance in the promotion of British economic interests. Those overseas officers who are stationed in the British Empire are members of the Trade Commissioner Service while Foreign countries are served by the Commercial Diplomatic Service forming part of the British Diplomatic Missions and by the Consular Service.

Mr T M Ainscough was appointed His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India in January 1918 and opened an office in Calcutta in May of that year. For five years, owing to the pressing need for economy in the Public Service, he was singlehanded in covering this vast territory. In 1923, however, two additional Trade Commissioners were appointed to India. Mr W D M Clarke was posted to the Calcutta office and Major B W Clarke opened an office in Bombay at Exchange Building, Sprott Road, Ballard Estate. The territory is now divided between the Calcutta and Bombay posts and this development allows the Senior Officer to travel almost continuously to any part of India which may call for his attention and to devote his time to some of the broader politico-economic problems which are becoming so important in view of the changing political conditions in India.

Functions of Commissioner.—The primary duty of the British Trade Commissioner comprises the collection of information in regard to opportunities that may arise within his territory for securing and developing trade by British manufacturers and merchants, both in the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire. He is, therefore, enjoined carefully to watch and report from time to time to the Board of Trade and the Governments of the Dominions concerned on all matters affecting the trade,

industry and commerce of his area. His general functions are to maintain cordial relations with the governing authorities of his area, to enter into personal relations with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Associations, and similar bodies, and with the principal representative importers and local manufacturers, to visit the principal commercial centres, to report upon foreign competition, on financial and trade conditions, and new legislation affecting trade, to make an annual general report on the conditions and prospects of trade in his area, and to furnish special reports and monographs on particular questions which are likely to be of interest to British manufacturers and exporters. He is also expected to supply a regular flow of commercial information of all kinds to his department, to maintain an active correspondence with firms in the United Kingdom or the Dominions who wish to extend their trade with his area, and to give all possible assistance to the representatives of British firms who may visit his territory.

Every effort is made by His Majesty's Trade Commissioners to keep in touch with British representatives and agents in India. The offices are equipped with a complete range of directories and reference books of all kinds and information is available with regard to such matters as tariff conditions, port dues and charges throughout the world, etc. A library consisting of over 1,000 catalogues of the leading British manufacturing engineers is maintained in Calcutta and firms desiring information with regard to specific manufacturers or particular machinery or processes are invited either to call personally or to forward their requirements in writing. It is hoped that local importers and buyers will co-operate by making a more extended use of the information available in the offices and by bringing to the attention of the British Trade Commissioners any cases where the interests of exporters from the United Kingdom or the Dominions may be adversely affected by foreign competition or otherwise.

For many years British traders have deplored the fact that there have not been available

officials with commercial experience who could help them in voicing their difficulties and in meeting foreign competition. As a rule these complaints energized the Councils of other countries and invited the attention of Government to their many virtues. In response to this agitation the greatest care has been taken by the British Government to select, as their trade officers overseas, men of sound commercial training and experience who have acquired some reputation in their respective spheres, and a comprehensive and businesslike organization has been built up at the Department of Overseas Trade, London, to deal with the information sent home. It now rests with the British mercantile community, both at home and also overseas, to co-operate freely and frankly with the Trade Commissioners and to recognize the work they are doing in the Imperial interest by assisting them with such information and particulars with regard to foreign competing goods conditions of trade etc., as they are able to afford.

H. M. S. TRADE COMMISSIONERS IN INDIA.

Calcutta—

Mr T. M. Ainscough O.B.E.,
His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner
in India and Ceylon
Mr W. D. Montgomery Clarke,
His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at
Calcutta
Post Box No. 683, 11, Clive Street
Telegraphic Address—'Tradcom, Calcutta'
Telephone No. 'Calcutta 1042'

Bombay—

Major R. W. Clarke,
His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at
Bombay
Post Box No. 815, Exchange Buildings,
Sprott Road, Ballard Estate
Telegraphic Address—'Tradcom, Bombay'
Telephone No.—Bombay 23095

Ceylon—

Imperial Trade Correspondent,
The Principal Collector of Customs,
Colombo

INDIAN COTTON DUTIES ACT

The origin of this fiscal measure dates back to 1894 when the embarrassment caused to the finances of India by the fall in exchange drove the Government of India to the necessity of adopting measures to increase their sources of revenue. Among these measures was the re-imposition of the Customs Tariff which had been in force prior to 1832 subject, however, to this difference that cotton yarns and fabrics, which had formerly been subjected to an import duty, were in 1894, excluded from the list of dutiable articles. This partial re-imposition of import duties had been recommended by the Herschell Commission which, in reporting in 1897 on the currency question, had favoured this method of adding to the revenues as being the least likely to excite opposition. In point of fact, however, this recommendation which was carried into effect in the Indian Tariff Act of March 1894 gave rise to very marked opposition. In support of their policy the Government appealed to the Resolutions passed in 1877 and reaffirmed in 1879 by the House of Commons, the first of

which had condemned the levy of import duties on cotton fabrics imported into India as "being contrary to sound commercial policy," while the latter called upon the Government of India to effect "the complete abolition of these duties as being unjust alike to the Indian consumer and to the English producer." It was, however, an open secret that the decision to exclude from the list of dutiable articles cotton yarns and fabrics was not the decision of the Government of India but that of the Secretary of State. It was pertinently pointed out that the volume of trade in cotton goods and yarns then represented nearly one half of the total imports from abroad, and that the exemption of these important commodities when practically every single other commodity was being subjected to an import duty could not be justified on its merits as a sound fiscal measure, much less when it was an admitted fact that the Budget would still show a deficit.

Excise Duties Imposed—The opposition to this measure, though it failed to secure

its rejection in the Legislative Council, was strong enough to induce the Secretary of State to reconsider the matter. Yielding to the united representations of the Government of India and of Indian public opinion, His Majesty's Government eventually agreed to the re-imposition of import duties on cotton yarns and fabrics provided that it could be shown that such a measure was necessitated by the position of Indian finance, and that it was combined with an Excise duty which would deprive the import tax of any protective character. Accordingly in December 1894, consequent on the further deterioration in the financial position, two bills were introduced in the Legislative Council. The first of these subjected cotton yarns and fabrics to the general import duty of 5 per cent *ad valorem*. The second imposed an Excise duty on all cotton yarns of 20 s and above produced by Mills in British India. In introducing this latter Bill the then Finance Minister, Sir James Westland, was careful to explain that the policy underlying its provisions had been imposed on the Government of India by the Secretary of State in pursuance of the Resolution of the House of Commons quoted above. The provisions of this particular Bill are of little interest. From the first it was recognised that they were impractical, Lancashire and Indian spinners disagreed as to the point at which the line should be drawn exempting Indian yarns from the Excise Duty. Practical difficulties were pointed out by Indian spinners as to the impossibility of spinning precisely to a particular count. From the Lancashire point of view it was contended that the Bill offered facilities for evasion while it was admitted that under the system adopted in the Bill, the taxation of Indian and Lancashire products was not being carried out on a similar basis.

Act of 1896—The Act was in fact doomed to be short-lived, and in December 1895 the Government of India were compelled to reconsider the whole position and to introduce an entirely new measure which became law in January 1896 as the Indian Cotton Duties Act II of 1896. This measure proceeded from two conclusions, namely, that no attempt should be made to obtain any duty from yarns whether imported or locally manufactured, and that an equal rate of duty should be applied to all woven goods whether imported or of Indian origin. With the object of conciliating the opposition, the rate of duty was fixed at 8 per cent, as opposed to the general rate of Customs duty of 5 per cent. The main provisions of the Act provided that the assessment for the purpose of collecting the Excise duty should be based on returns submitted by the mill-owners, and that provision should be made for a rebate in the case of woven goods exported out of India. No control beyond a requirement that statistical returns should be furnished was attempted in respect of spinning mills. On the other hand certain concessions in the matter of import duty on Mill stores were made by executive order so as to place Indian Mills on a footing more or less equal to their Lancashire competitors.

Criticisms of the Measure.—It is not possible within the limits of the present article to do more than summarise the criticisms with which this measure was received in India. Much of the opposition was based on grounds of a

transient character; as for instance that the Indian industry was then in a state of continued depression and that it had been hard hit, particularly in respect of its export trade, by the currency legislation, and by the uncertainty as to the fiscal policy of Government. In some quarters objection was offered to the exemption of yarn, which it was shown, would place the Indian hand weaving industry at an advantage with the Indian power weaving industry. But the hostility to this measure, as also to the earlier measures already described, clearly proceeded from the feeling that the policy of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State had been dictated by Lancashire, and that the action of Lancashire was due not so much to the fact that there was any real competition between Indian and Manchester goods but to a desire to handicap the Indian industry whose progress was already causing uneasiness to Lancashire interests. It was argued that the imports from Lancashire were practically all of the higher counts, which, for climatic and other reasons, Indian mills could not produce, that in any case the advantage to the Indian mill-owner of the import duty was inconsiderable and was counterbalanced by certain drawbacks, arising from the inferiority of Indian labour, which could not be overcome, and that this advantage, such as it was, could scarcely be said to have a protective character, in view of the higher cost of initial equipment in the case of an Indian mill which has to import its machinery, and of working expenses consequent on the scarcity of skilled labour and on the necessity of importing stores required in the production of cloth. Finally, from the standpoint of the consumer very severe criticism was directed against the reduction, in favour of imported cotton goods, of the general rate of duty from 5 per cent to 8½ per cent, on the ground that the effect of the legislation would relieve the richer classes who were consumers of the finer Manchester fabrics and impose new taxation on the poorer classes whose requirements were met by the Indian mills.

Later Factors in the Situation.—Since the passing of this measure into law the policy of the Government of India in this respect has frequently been the subject of attack in the press and in the Legislatures in India while it has also formed the subject of continued representations by the industrial interests affected and political organizations. In more recent years the agitation in favour of the abolition of the Excise duties was revived by the growth in England of a strong body of public opinion in opposition to the policy of Free Trade. Advantage was taken of this new phase in English economic thought to press on behalf of India the acceptance of a policy of Protection—now adopted by the Government of India in the form of discriminating use of the current necessarily high important tariff for fostering Indian industries—and the removal of the Excise duties was claimed by the opponents of this measure as a necessary corollary of the application to the British Empire of the principles associated with the name of Mr Chamberlain. A new factor in the situation which has strengthened the position of those who are in opposition to the Excise duties is to be found in the severe competition which Indian mills have to face in

China as well as in India from the Japanese industry. The Japanese market was lost to India in the early years of this century. More recently, however, Japan has entered as a competitor with India into the China market, while within the last few years it has pushed its advantage as against the Indian millowner in the Indian market itself. The Government of India have publicly declared their view of this development to be that it needs careful watching.

Policy of 1917—The policy of Government towards the Cotton Duties underwent a further development in 1917. In the budget of that year provision was made for interest and sinking fund charges on £ 100 millions, the contribution of India towards the cost of the war. This demanded in addition to the natural increase in the revenues fresh taxation to the extent of £ 3 millions per annum. Amongst the expedients adopted to produce this revenue was the raising of the import duty on cotton goods from 8½ per cent to 7½ per cent which is the general tariff rate. At the same time the cotton excise duty was fixed to remain at the previous figure of 3½ per cent thus giving the indigenous industry a slight protection to the extent of 4 per cent. The question of the abolition of the *Excise* entirely had to be dismissed from consideration in view of the demands upon the exchequer, as it was estimated to produce in 1917-18 £ 320,000. By means of the increase in the tariff on Cotton Duties the Finance Member estimated to produce an additional £ 1 million per annum. The proposal was received with immense satisfaction in India as a step towards the righting of what is almost everywhere regarded as a reverse economic wrong. It aroused very vehement protests in Lancashire where the cotton industry protested its political vote and brought great pressure to bear upon the Secretary of State to withdraw the measure. Mr Austen Chamberlain, the then Secretary of State for India, stood firm and with the Government at his back refused to budge an inch from the position which he had taken up in supporting the Government of India in this matter. There were anxious moments in the House of Commons when the Labour Party joining with the Irish Nationalists and the Lancashire vote mobilised its forces against the Government especially as the attitude of Mr Asquith and his following was obscure. In the end Mr Asquith gave his support to the Government policy on the understanding that this, in common with all other fiscal issues, would be reconsidered at the end of the war. With this support, the Bill was carried through the House of Commons by a large majority. The policy laid down in 1917 has been maintained. The *Excise* Duty remains stationary at 3½ per cent for purely revenue purposes. The imports of piece-goods have been subjected to the same tariff as other imports in all variations of the Customs duties. (See Customs Tariff).

The Present Position—The question has frequently come under discussion in the Indian Legislature during the past few years and the

Excise and both the annual Budgets and the right of unofficial members to move Resolutions have afforded opportunities for proving the popular view upon Government. During the life of the first Assembly—1921-1928 inclusive—the position was still dominated by the financial difficulties of Government and the necessity for utilising every possible source of income for meeting successive deficits. Representatives of the cotton manufacturing industry continued their agitation nevertheless, but they received no sympathy from the House at large. The attitude of unofficial members other than those from Bombay, who are in close contact with the industry in its main centres, is by no means friendly to the millowners. The agricultural members, particularly, remember how Bombay raised cloth prices during and after the Great War and have not forgiven the millowners the huge profits that they then made. Debates in the House on various questions have also on several occasions shown the existence on the unofficial benches of a considerable body of members standing for the purely consumers' point of view and these resent the suggestion of abolishing the *Excise* Duty without also reducing the import duty because to do so would be to give the whole advantage into the millowners' pockets, prices being governed by the cost of imports.

The Government of India's attitude is primarily governed by a declaration by Lord Hardinge, when Viceroy, that the *excise* duty should for the present remain at its actual figure and an assurance given that it would be abolished as soon as financial considerations permit. But over the obligation thus expressed there lies another, which concerns the financial contributions now annually made by the Provinces to *Central Revenues*. These amount to approximately nine crores. When the amounts were fixed, in connection with the introduction of the new constitution and the consequent separation of Central and Provincial finances, the contributions were clearly marked as a temporary necessity. From that day to this the Provinces, struggling with financial exigencies of their own, have clamoured for their early diminution and rapid extinction and the Government of India have formally and repeatedly given assurances that the first disposable surpluses with which they have to deal shall go in that direction. The old controversy of Lancashire versus Bombay over the cotton *excise* having vanished and the matter having thus been reduced to purely fiscal grounds, Government also indicate their preference for easing the Provincial finances, rather than for remitting the *excise* duty in circumstances which would make remission a present to the millowners.

The "nationalist" element which dominates the unofficial benches in the second Assembly has debated the matter and is fully acquainted with all these arguments, and the time has nearly come when its vote will finally decide the matter. Government last year had a surplus and proposed to devote part of it to the reduction of Provincial Contributions. The Assem-

higher figure by the exercise of his prerogative. There appears a practical certainty of another surplus in the coming Budget. The Assembly last September debated an unofficial Resolution recommending the abolition of the excise. Government opposed on economic grounds and the debate reflected the differences of opinion already indicated. The promoters of the Resolution urged the House to accept it not on economic grounds but on political nationalist ones talking much of past economic injustice and of the need to foster Indian industries. When the question was put Government did not claim a division. The Resolution was then declared carried by accla-

mation but as it amounted only to a pious expression of opinion and as the avoidance of a division freed any member from the obligation of registering his name on one side of the question or the other that fact cannot be accepted as final.

Government suggested during this last debate that the choice between reducing Provincial Contributions and abolishing the Excise Duty might be left to the House when a decision on the disposal of the next surplus has to be taken. It is impossible to forecast what the vote of the House would be if that question were left to its vote in the near future.

THE INDIAN COTTON COMMITTEE

A resolution issued by the Government of India in September 1917 announced the appointment of a Committee to examine the possibilities of increasing the cultivation of long-stapled cotton in India of improving existing methods of ginning and marketing cotton of preventing adulteration damping and mixing of improving the accuracy of the cotton forecasts and generally of making the statistical information published by Government of greater utility to the cotton trade. The Committee were also directed to submit recommendations in regard to the staff required and the organisation necessary for the development of the cultivation of long stapled cotton in tracts which they considered suitable for that purpose.

The Committee consisted of the following — Mr J MacKenna C.I.E. I.C.S. Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India President Mr N N Wadia C.I.E. Ex-Chairman Bombay Mill Owners' Association Mr F Hodgkinson Member of the Council of the British Cotton Growing Association Mr H F Ashton, Executive Engineer, Punjab Mr G S Henderson, Imperial Agriculturist, and Mr W Roberts Principal, Lyallpur Agricultural College Members Mr F Noyce I.C.S. Secretary

A full summary of the Report of the Committee, appeared on page 291-294 of the Indian Year Book 1922. The Committee in their report conclude that, so far as separate figures are available, of the 4,728,000 bales of cotton produced by India in a normal season 726,000 fall within the Lancashire definition of long staple cotton and an additional 478,000 bales within the Bombay definition.

They emphasise that, of the methods by which an improvement in the quality and an increase in the output of Indian cotton can be secured, botanical work is the most important. The Report points out that the output of cleaned cotton to the acre in India is only 85

pounds whereas in the United States it is 200 pounds and that improvements in agricultural practice should very considerably reduce this difference. The Committee recommend considerable expansion of the Agricultural Department in order to extend its work for cotton.

The possibilities of the extension of the cultivation of long staple cotton under irrigation in the cotton growing Provinces of North India — the Punjab the North West Frontier Province the United Provinces and Sind — are examined in great detail in the Report.

One of the main problems dealt with by the Committee is that of securing to the cultivation an adequate price for the pure or superior varieties of cotton grown as the outcome of the recommendations in the first part. With this object they make comprehensive recommendations. They also make important recommendations in regard to the improvement of cotton forecasts. The Committee suggest not only the better organization of the Agricultural Department but also of the Cotton Trade by the establishment of a Central Cotton Trade Association in Bombay to be known as the East India Cotton Association which, as far as the control of the cotton trade is concerned, could take the place of the seven distinct bodies representing different branches of the trade which were in existence at the time the Report was written. Finally, the Committee make provision for much closer connexion between the Agricultural Department and the Cotton Trade, by the institution of a Central Cotton Committee to which all connected with cotton, whether agriculturally or commercially, could able to turn to for advice or assistance. They recommended that the Committee should consist of about 20 members including the following nine official members: the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, who would be President, six agricultural experts working

on cotton from the six States cotton growing Provinces, the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, and the Director of Statistics. The remaining members, with the exception of a representative of the Co-operative Department, who might be either an official or a non-official, should they said represent Chambers of Commerce and similar bodies and would also include a representative of Lancashire. The functions of the Committee would be almost entirely advisory but its advice would carry very great weight.

The proposal to reorganise the Bombay Cotton Trade in one efficient organisation, to be called the East India Cotton Association, at first failed through the jealousy of the small speculative element, resentful of any form of control, but was eventually brought into being, with the assent of all parties, in 1922.

The first meeting of the Central Committee recommended in the Report was held in July 1921, when it assembled in Bombay, and it has since accomplished much constructive work. It has advised the Government of India regarding the preparation of legislation for the restriction of cotton transport, the regulation of gins and presses and the compulsory rendering of cotton statistics. Legislation in regard to the first was introduced in the Central Legislature in September, 1922, and referred to a Joint Select Committee of both its Houses. It has since been passed into law, subject to the local application of the measure by Provincial Governments, and the Provinces have where desirable followed by action on their part. A Bill for the

checking of abuses and collection of statistics in gins and presses was submitted in the Legislative Assembly by the Government of India in September, but was met with opposition by representatives of the gins and presses with the result that the House insisted on carrying a delaying motion that the Bill be circulated for public opinion.

The Central Cotton Committee has placed itself in touch with such organisations as the Empire Cotton Growing Corporation and the Cotton Industry Research Association and has made arrangements for a study of changes in export demand, and for a study of Indian mill consumption in detail. Several provinces have now taken tentative action in regard to the 1917 Committee's recommendations that concern them.

The Committee is specially devoting its attention to tests of new cottons for the Agricultural Department, research work in relation to the measurable characters of cotton and their spinning value and a study of the intrinsic spinning value of Indian cottons. As regards the first and last it has urged the need for the establishment of a technological research establishment in Bombay. As regards the second it has made special representation to the Government of India.

Provision for technological research and for the other activities recommended by the Committee will require money and to raise this the Committee has recommended the levy of a cess of four annas a bale on the commercial cotton crop (excluding domestic consumption) which is estimated to produce Rs 8 lakhs a year.

The Textile Industry.

India has been the home of the cotton trade from the earliest times. Its cotton, known as white wool, was well known to the ancients and its cloth was familiar to the West in the days of the overland route. The name Calico comes from the fine woven goods of Calicut, and the products of the Deccan handlooms are still remarkable as the finest machine human skill can produce.

Indian Cotton.

The exports of Indian cotton began to assume importance with the opening of the sea route.

They received an immense stimulus during the American Civil War, when the close blockade of the Confederate ports produced a cotton famine in Lancashire, and threw the English spinners back on India for their supply of raw material. When the war broke out the shipments of Indian cotton were 528,000 bales, but during the last year of the war they averaged 978,000 bales. Most of this cotton was sold at an enormously inflated price, and induced a flow of wealth into Bombay, the great centre of the trade, for which there was no outlet. The consequence was an unprece-

damaged outbreak of speculation known as the "Share Market," and when the surrender of Lee re-opened the Southern Ports widespread ruin followed. It is estimated that the surplus wealth brought into the country by the American Civil War aggregated £92 millions. Since then the cultivation of Indian cotton, although interrupted by famine, has steadily increased. For the last season for which returns are available 1923-24 the total area in all the territories reported on was computed at 28,068,000 acres which is 1,296,000 acres or 6 per cent above the revised figures of last year. The

total estimated outturn was 5,075,000 bales of 400 lbs. which remains the same as in the last year. To this figure may be added some 17,000 bales estimated as the production in Indian States in Bihar and Orissa which make no return.

Bombay, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad are the chief producing centres. The following table gives the rough distribution of the outturn. The figures are the estimated figures for the past season, and are not exact but they indicate the distribution of the crop —

Provinces and States	1923-24 (Provisional estimates)	
	Area	Yield
	(1 000 acres)	(1 000 bales)
Madras (a)	2 689	480
Bombay (b)	6 291	1,137
Bengal (a)	71	21
United Provinces (a)	652	215
Punjab (a)	1,914	628
Burma	297	46
Bihar and Orissa	81	16
Central Provinces and Berar	4 801	1,520
Assam	39	14
North West Frontier Province	23	4
Almer Merwara	41	13
Delhi	3	1
Hyderabad	8 500	1 079
Mysore	84	12
Baroda	657	76
Gwalior	600	60
Central India	1 041	187
Rajputana	924	72
Total	23 088	5,075

The distribution of the export trade is indicated in the appended table

Exports of Cotton—A portion of the Indian crops of the season 1921-22 and a portion of the crop of the season 1922-23 came into the statistical consideration in the exports during the year 1922-23. The exports amounted to nearly 18½ million cwt. valued at Rs 98 crores, against 1½ million cwt. valued at Rs 71 crores in 1921-22. This represents 53 per cent of the total value of raw materials exported from India and 28 per cent of the total exports. The exports showed an increase of 13 per cent in quantity and 39 per cent in value. The average declared value per cwt. rose from Rs 59 to 73 or by 24 per cent whereas the total increase was Rs 27 crores. The principal purchasers of Indian cotton are Japan and China which together took 53 per cent of the total export during 1923-24. Besides these Germany, Belgium, the United Kingdom, Italy, and France who are large consumers of Indian raw cotton, had 6, 7, 8, 15, and 5 per cent respectively.

	Exports of Raw Cotton		
	1921-22 Cwts	1922-23 Cwts	1923-24 Cwts
United Kingdom	127,800	682,520	1,037,100
Germany	838,360	939,600	872,540
Holland	19,160	31,940	148,660
Belgium	708,230	900,220	915,430
France	202,440	451,140	823,980
Spain	107,740	234,520	315,520
Italy	551,400	861,880	1,067,930
Austria	119,560	151,900	149,960
Oeylon	9,680	13,520	32,780
Indo China	103,500	71,040	93,060
China	1,555,180	1,776,080	915,980
Japan	6,236,660	5,789,300	6,151,540
United States of America	32,780	77,960	158,780
Other Countries	11,580	18,820	24,380
To cwt	10,678,040	12,007,940	13,458,720
tal = Bales †	2,681,861	3,002,601	3,365,858

(a) Includes Indian States

(b) Including Sind Indian States.

† Bales of 400 lbs. each.

Bombay is the great centre of the cotton trade. The principal varieties are Dhollera, Broach, Oomra (from the Berars), Dharwar and Coomras. Broach is the best cotton grown in Western India. Ringaahat cotton, from the Central Provinces, has a good reputation. Bengala is the name given to the cotton of the Gangetic valley, and generally to the cottons of Northern India. The Madras cottons are known as Westerns, Coconadas, Coimbatore and Tinnevellys. The best of these is Tinnevelly. Cambodia cotton has been grown with success in Southern India, but it shows a tendency to revert. The high prices of cotton realised of recent years have given a great impetus to cultivation. Government have also been active in improving the class of cotton produced, by seed selection, hybridisation and the importation of exotic cottons. Although these measures have met with a considerable measure of success, they have not proceeded far enough to lighten the

whole cotton, which still consists for the most part of a short-staple early maturing variety, suitable to soils where the rainy season is brief.

Reference has been made to the popularity of the Indian handloom cloths in the earliest days of which we have record. This trade grew so large that it excited alarm in England, and it was killed by a series of enactments commencing in 1701, prohibiting the use of sale of Indian calicoes in England. The invention of the spinning jenny and the power loom and their development in England converted India from an exporting into an importing country, and made her dependent on the United Kingdom for the bulk of her piece-goods. The first attempt to establish a cotton mill in India was in 1888, but the foundations of the industry were really laid by the opening of the first mill in Bombay in 1858. Thereafter, with occasional set backs from famine, plague and other causes, its progress was rapid.

The following statement shows the quantity (in pounds) of yarn of all counts spun in all India for the twelve months April to March, in each of the past three years —

	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23
BRITISH INDIA.			
Bombay	492,634,404	497,351,324	398,552,023
Madras	44,387,593	53,425,405	50,938,954
Bengal	33,626,288	28,937,591	26,104,621
United Provinces	40,476,743	41,469,903	44,400,235
Ajmer-Merwara	2,548,906	2,351,619	2,981,474
Punjab	3,584,347	2,717,976	1,264,236
Delhi	2,959,655	3,801,217	5,188,965
Central Provinces and Berar	32,817,846	31,877,488	32,258,371
TOTAL	653,010,720	661,936,023	561,688,599
FOREIGN TERRITORY			
Indian States of Indore, Mysore, Baroda, Nandgaon, Bhavnagar, Hyderabad, Wadhwan, Gwalior (Ujjain) and Pondicherry (a)	40,560,957	43,957,576	46,938,673
GRAND TOTAL	693,571,677	705,893,599	608,627,272

(a) Including the production of one mill only

The spinning of yarn is in a large degree centred in Bombay, the mills of that province producing nearly 74 per cent. of the quantity produced in British India. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and Madras

produced about 7 per cent. and 3 per cent. respectively, while Bengal and the Central Provinces produced 4.7 and 5.2 per cent. Elsewhere the production is as yet very limited.

BOMBAY SPINNERS.

Here is a detailed statement of the quantity (in pounds) and the counts, or numbers, of yarn spun in Bombay Island —

	1921-22.	1922-23	1923-24.
Nos. 1—10 .. .	71,273,946	74,226,403	56,122,768
„ 11—20 .. .	175,505,096	171,828,510	125,909,820
„ 21—30 .. .	94,752,981	95,406,789	79,538,076
„ 31—40 .. .	6,000,208	5,586,789	6,604,846
Above 40 .. .	989,048	1,027,621	1,337,956
Wastes, &c. .. .	178,357	23,992	73,122
TOTAL	348,694,631	348,099,104	269,586,588

YARN AT AHMEDABAD

The corresponding figures for Ahmedabad are as follows —

	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Nos. 1—10 .. .	2,431,605	1,982,716	1,892,330
„ 11—20 .. .	31,605,855	33,783,105	31,367,197
„ 21—30 .. .	45,092,715	48,249,942	36,486,990
„ 31—40 .. .	5,541,661	5,471,816	4,880,197
Above 40 .. .	726,440	595,296	1,004,832
Wastes, &c. .. .	109,974		709
TOTAL	85,598,250	90,082,875	75,602,255

YARN SPUN THROUGHOUT INDIA

The grand totals of the quantities in various counts of yarn spun in the whole of India, including Native States, are given in the following table —

	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24.
Nos. 1—10 .. .	99,169,675	102,978,242	84,572,023
„ 11—20 .. .	371,458,122	375,617,116	318,868,244
„ 21—30 .. .	203,161,956	208,958,812	181,746,621
„ 31—40 .. .	16,900,186	15,930,424	19,866,343
Above 40 .. .	2,864,419	2,195,291	3,260,788
Wastes, &c. .. .	517,312	213,714	513,553
TOTAL	693,571,677	705,893,599	608,627,572

In the early days of the textile industry the energies of the millowners were largely concentrated on the production of yarn, both for the China market, and for the handlooms of India. The increasing competition of Japan in the China market, the growth of an indigenous industry in China and the uncertainties introduced by the fluctuations in the China exchanges consequent on variations in the price of silver compelled the millowners to cultivate the Home market. The general tendency of recent years has been to spin higher counts of yarn, importing American cotton for this purpose to supplement the Indian supply, to erect more looms, and to produce more dyed and bleached goods. This practice has reached a higher development in Bombay than in other parts of India, and the Bombay Presidency produces nearly 78 per cent of the cloth woven in India. The United Provinces produces 32 per cent, the Central Provinces 4 per cent and Madras 4 per cent. Grey and Bleached goods represent nearly 74 per cent. of the whole production.

ANALYSIS OF WOVEN GOODS.

The following brief extract is taken from the statement of the quantity (in pounds and their equivalent in yards) and description of woven goods produced in all India, including Native States —

	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Grey and Bleached piece-goods—			
Pounds	300,086,348	300,366,540	286,874,951
Yards	1,284,761,703	1,271,769,694	1,196,754,894
Coloured piece-goods—			
Pounds	98,432,961	98,634,845	108,281,950
Yards	446,821,593	453,494,498	508,642,799
Grey and coloured goods other than piece goods—			
Pounds	3,052,986	3,422,967	2,575,352
Dozens	629,375	1,212,640	614,307
Hosiery—			
Pounds	882,819	464,371	544,122
Dozens	180,989	206,767	243,531
Miscellaneous—			
Pounds	1,438,022	2,201,300	2,237,111
Cotton goods mixed with silk or wool—			
Pounds	177,750	164,726	207,229
Total—			
Pounds	408,520,831	405,253,739	401,433,830
Yards	1,781,578,296	1,725,284,187	1,700,297,693
Dozens	760,364	1,418,407	757,838

BOMBAY WOVEN GOODS

The output of woven goods during the three years in the Bombay Presidency was as follows. The weight (in pounds represents the weight of all woven goods, the measure in yards represents the equivalent of the weight of the grey and coloured piece goods)

	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Pounds	326,614,977	318,781,067	307,915,375
Yards	1,455,812,174	1,418,168,780	1,364,539,530
Dozens	587,927	680,262	500,712

The grand totals for all India are as follows:—

	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Pounds	408,520,831	405,253,739	401,433,830
Yards	1,781,578,296	1,725,284,187	1,700,297,693
Dozens	760,364	1,418,407	757,838

Progress of the Mill Industry
The following statement shows the progress of the Mill Industry in the whole of India.

Years ending 30th June	Number of Mills.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Looms.	Average No. of Hands Employed Daily	Approximate Quantity of Cotton Consumed.	
					Cwts.	Bales of 500 lbs
1877	51	12,44,206	10,385	Not stated	Do	Do
1878	53	12,89,706	10,533	Do	Do	Do
1879	56	14,52,794	13,018	42,914	9,36,547	2,67,585
1880	56	14,61,590	13,502	44,410	10,76,708	3,07,681
1881	57	15,18,096	13,707	46,430	13,26,461	3,78,989
1882	65	16,20,814	14,172	48,467	13,91,467	3,97,562
1883	67	17,90,388	15,373	53,476	15,97,946	4,56,556
1884	79	20,01,667	16,262	60,387	18,59,777	5,31,365
1885	87	21,45,646	16,537	67,186	20,88,621	5,96,749
1886	95	22,61,561	17,455	74,383	22,51,214	6,43,204
1887	103	24,21,290	18,636	76,942	25,41,966	7,26,276
1888	114	24,88,851	19,496	82,379	27,54,487	7,86,982
1889	124	27,62,518	21,561	91,598	31,10,289	8,88,654
1890	137	32,74,196	23,412	1,02,721	35,29,617	10,08,462
1891	134	33,51,694	24,581	1,11,018	41,26,171	11,78,906
1892	139	34,02,282	25,444	1,16,161	40,80,788	11,65,938
1893	141	35,75,917	28,164	1,21,500	40,98,528	11,71,008
1894	142	36,49,736	31,154	1,30,461	42,78,778	12,23,608
1895	148	38,09,929	35,338	1,38,669	46,95,999	13,41,714
1896	155	39,32,946	37,270	1,45,432	49,32,613	14,09,318
1897	173	40,65,618	37,584	1,44,385	45,53,276	13,00,936
1898	185	42,59,720	38,013	1,48,964	51,84,648	14,81,328
1899	188	47,23,533	39,069	1,62,108	58,63,165	16,75,190
1900	198	49,45,783	40,124	1,61,189	50,86,732	14,53,352
1901	198	50,06,936	41,180	1,72,883	47,31,090	13,51,740
1902	192	50,06,965	42,584	1,81,031	61,77,618	17,65,038
1903	192	50,45,297	44,092	1,81,899	60,57,690	17,89,840
1904	191	51,18,121	45,837	1,84,779	61,06,631	17,44,766
1905	197	51,83,486	50,139	1,95,277	65,77,854	18,79,244
1906	217	52,79,595	52,668	2,08,616	70,82,306	20,23,516
1907	224	53,33,275	58,436	2,06,696	69,30,596	19,80,170
1908	241	57,56,020	67,920	2,21,195	69,70,250	19,91,500
1909	259	60,68,231	76,393	2,36,924	78,81,500	21,09,000
1910	263	61,95,871	82,725	2,33,624	67,72,585	19,35,010
1911	263	62,57,460	85,352	2,30,649	66,70,591	19,05,866
1912	268	64,68,929	88,951	2,43,637	71,78,857	20,59,102
1913	272	65,96,862	94,136	2,53,786	73,36,056	20,96,016
1914*	271	67,78,905	1,04,179	2,40,276	75,00,941	21,43,126
1915*	272	68,48,744	1,08,009	2,66,346	73,59,212	21,02,632
1916*	266	68,99,377	1,10,268	2,74,261	76,92,013	21,97,718
1917*	263	67,38,697	1,14,621	2,76,771	76,93,674	21,98,164
1918*	262	68,53,371	1,16,484	2,82,227	72,99,573	20,85,678
1919*	258	68,98,680	1,18,221	2,98,377	71,54,805	20,44,330
1920*	258	67,33,076	1,19,012	3,11,078	68,33,113	19,32,318
1921*	257	68,33,084	1,23,783	3,32,176	74,20,605	21,20,230
1922*	298	78,96,723	1,34,620	3,43,723	77,12,390	22,03,540
1923*	333	79,37,000	1,44,794	3,47,380	75,20,943	21,31,696

* Year ending 31st August.

The Textile Industry.

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Statement of the amount in rupees of Excise duty realised from goods woven in the Cotton Mills in British India, under the Cotton Duties Act, II of 1896, also the amount of equivalent duty levied in the Native States, in each year from 1902-03 to 1923-24

	Bombay	Madras	Bengal	United Provinces and Ajmer-Merwara.	Punjab and Delhi	Central Provinces and Bihar
1902-03	15,84,121	67,818	6,605	74,023	8,631	1,30,620
1903-04	17,64,527	62,350	10,908	89,139	1,104	1,56,371
1904-05	20,43,832	65,379	11,929	96,710	2,607	1,61,368
1905-06	22,78,425	1,10,943	11,185	1,32,364	5,144	1,68,743
1906-07	24,36,265	1,37,603	23,709	1,35,884	7,484	1,64,680
1907-08	23,82,296	1,35,181	31,556	1,66,044	8,746	1,75,947
1908-09	29,51,659	1,42,295	53,351	1,48,846	9,509	1,98,419
1909-10	33,88,658	1,45,333	55,822	1,92,552	8,611	2,17,217
1910-11	36,78,555	1,48,136	56,359	1,82,083	7,300	2,07,818
1911-12	42,17,878	1,65,043	43,631	1,84,653	10,862	2,52,415
1912-13	49,27,698	2,06,862	61,709	2,11,847	17,971	2,71,562
1913-14	45,66,188	2,13,166	78,931	2,55,447	22,353	3,00,919
1914-15	42,31,546	1,83,880	53,046	2,07,454	10,068	2,54,987
1915-16	42,25,608	2,11,459	41,704	2,01,012	9,291	2,36,497
1916-17	35,33,236	2,87,043	70,529	2,47,991	24,183	2,93,466
1917-18	64,15,806	7,06,467	1,18,336	2,91,052	38,628	3,49,490
1918-19	1,16,18,396	7,48,546	2,10,582	5,07,555	56,612	6,75,343
1919-20	1,23,66,707	7,67,021	3,32,972	6,12,728	68,383	8,66,661
1920-21	2,03,33,415	7,50,690	3,17,920	6,97,185	73,846	9,19,814
1921-22	1,93,50,732	6,54,913	2,65,202	6,56,350	57,825	9,02,764
1922-23	1,54,78,698	3,46,783	2,27,580	7,29,192	1,50,077	8,61,922
1923-24	1,30,36,943	8,92,005	2,22,683	6,79,024	1,56,758	7,62,729

	Total British India.		Native States	Grand Total	
	Gross duty	Net duty	Gross duty	Gross duty	Net duty
1902-03	18,66,213	18,25,469	65,541	19,31,754	18,91,010
1903-04	20,77,449	20,36,104	59,061	21,36,510	20,95,149
1904-05	23,61,825	23,33,626	67,320	24,49,145	24,06,976
1905-06	27,06,784	26,71,061	83,455	27,90,239	27,54,616
1906-07	29,00,957	28,64,202	81,976	29,82,671	29,46,152
1907-08	33,99,717	33,55,946	97,499	34,97,216	34,53,443
1908-09	35,43,778	34,98,480	1,14,498	36,58,276	36,12,977
1909-10	40,06,193	39,61,020	1,37,699	41,43,892	40,98,719
1910-11	42,26,575	41,75,878	1,75,878	44,56,129	44,01,707
1911-12	48,79,478	48,04,493	1,83,479	50,61,957	49,86,971
1912-13	56,17,969	55,76,567	2,21,178	58,39,147	57,97,745
1913-14	54,39,043	53,95,014	2,38,393	56,77,436	56,33,407
1914-15	49,40,931	49,32,185	2,33,160	51,74,091	51,65,345
1915-16	49,25,571	48,40,107	1,99,275	51,15,846	50,30,382
1916-17	44,61,448	43,80,425	2,47,301	47,08,749	46,27,726
1917-18	76,20,779	75,45,252	3,84,780	80,05,559	79,37,082
1918-19	1,39,17,033	1,38,79,262	5,07,591	1,43,24,924	1,41,87,143
1919-20	1,55,14,490	1,52,54,671	8,90,778	1,64,05,268	1,61,45,449
1920-21	2,30,92,870	2,28,71,327	9,65,902	2,40,58,772	2,38,37,729
1921-22	2,19,16,806	2,12,29,108	10,07,633	2,29,24,348	2,25,35,647
1922-23	1,87,84,207	1,74,32,997	11,63,142	1,98,87,349	1,95,76,139
1923-24	1,57,40,142	1,56,72,497	11,67,500	1,69,07,642	1,66,39,797

The Jute Industry.

Considering its present dimensions, the jute industry of Bengal is of very recent origin. The first jute mill in Bengal was started at Elkhra in 1855, and the first power-loom was introduced in 1859. The original outturn was 8 tons per day. In 1909 it had grown to 2,500 tons per day, it is now 4,000 tons per day, and it shows every indication of growing and expanding year by year. Another interesting thing about the jute industry of Bengal is that, although it is practically a monopoly of Scotsmen from Dundee, the industry itself owes its inception to an Englishman. The founder of the industry was George Acland, an Englishman, who began life as a midshipman in the navy, and was for some years in the East India Marine Service. He quitted this service while still a young man, and engaged in commercial pursuits in Ceylon, where he was successful. Later on he turned his attention to Bengal, and arriving in Calcutta about 1853 he got into touch with the management of the paper works, then at Serampore, where experiments were being tried with country grasses and fibre plants to improve the quality or cheapen the manufacture of paper. This seems to have suggested to Acland the manufacture of rees, and in 1854 he proceeded to England, with a view to obtaining machinery and capital in order to manufacture goods from that material. During this trip he visited Dundee, and while there Mr. John Kerr, of Douglas Foundry, suggested to him the importing of machinery into Bengal, "where the jute comes from and spin it there." This suggestion bore fruit, for shortly afterwards Acland placed orders with Kerr for a few systems of preparing and spinning machinery, and returned to India the same year accompanied by his two sons and a few Dundee mechanics who were to assist him in erecting and operating the first jute mill in Bengal. This, as has been stated, was at Elkhra, the site of the present Wellington mills, near Serampore and here, in 1855, the first machine spun jute yarns were made. As not infrequently happens the pioneer got very little out of his venture. After several ups and downs the Acland interest in the Elkhra mill ceased in 1867, and the company which Acland had formed in 1854 was wound up in 1868.

Power looms.—The pioneer's example was followed by Mr. George Henderson of that silk and firm, and in 1859 the Borneo Jute Co. was launched under his auspices. To this company is due the credit of introducing the power-loom for jute cloth. Unhindered by the financial difficulties which had burdened the Aclands, the Borneo Jute Co. made rapid progress, doubling their works in 1864, and clearing their capital twice over. In 1872 the mills were turned into a limited liability company, the present "Barnagore Jute Manufacturing Co., Ltd." Four other mills followed in succession—Gouripore, Serajgunge, and India Jute Mills.

"From 1866 to 1878," wrote Mr. David Wallace in "The Romance of Jute," "the five mills excepting the Elkhra mill simply

coined money and brought the total of the looms up to 1,250." To illustrate the prosperity of the industry at this period we may take the dividends paid by the Barnagore Company. On the working of their first five years a 15 per cent. interim dividend was declared, which seemed to justify the enormous capital at which the company was taken over from the Borneo Company, and shares touched 68 per cent. premium. The dividend for the first year, ending August 1878, was 25 per cent., for 1874, 20 per cent., and for 1875, 1 per cent. Then came a change. The investing public had forgotten the effect of the Ponzi bubble, and the condition of the jute industry in 1872-73 seeming to offer a better return than cotton or tea, both of which had just enjoyed a boom, it was only necessary to issue a prospectus of a jute mill to have the shares snapped up in the course of an afternoon.

In 1872-73 three new companies were floated locally—the Fort Gloster, Budge Budge and Sibpore, and two Home companies, the Champdany and Samnugger, all of which commenced operations in 1874. In 1874-5 eight other mills were launched—those Howrah, Orissa (now Union), Asiatic (now Soorah), Clive Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co. (now the Bellaghata Barnagore branch mill Rustomjee (now the Central) Ganges (registered in England), and Hastings, owned by Messrs. Birkmyre Bros. of Greenock famous in all thirteen new companies coming on a of a heap and swelling the total looms from 1,250 up to 3,500. This was too much strain for the new industry, and for the next ten years all the mills had a severe struggle. The older ones all survived the ordeal, but four of the new concerns—the Oriental, the Asiatic, the Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co. and the Rustomjee—became moribund, to appear again later on under new name and management. Fort Gloster also suffered badly.

Between 1875 and 1882 only one new mill was put up. This was Kamarhaty promoted by Messrs. Jardine, Skinner & Co., which came into being in 1877, as the result of Dr. Barry's visit to Calcutta in 1876, when he transferred the agency of the Gouripore Co. from Messrs. Jardine, Skinner & Co. to his own firm. This mill, together with additions made by some of the other mills, brought the total loom up to 5,150 in 1882. By the end of 1885 the total was further augmented by the Hooghly Titagur, Victoria and Kankarrah mills bringing the number of looms at work up to 6,700. From this period on to 1894 no new mills came into existence except the Calcutta Twist Mill, with 2,480 spindles, since merged into the Wellington branch of the Champdany Co. Between 1896 and 1900 the following new mills were started—the Gordon Twist Mill with 1,800 spindles (now acquired by Anglo India), Khardah, Gondolpara (French owned), Alliance, Arathoon, Anglo-India, Standard National, Deita (which absorbed the Serajgunge), and the Kinnelon. A full of four years witnessed large extensions to the existing mills, after which came the following series of new

mills, besides further heavy extensions—Dalmeida, Alexandra, Nalhati, Lawrence, Rance, Belvedere, Auckland, Kelvin and North rock

Progress of the Industry

The record of the jute industry may well be said to be one of uninterrupted progress. The following statement shows quinquennial average

figures from the earliest year for which complete information is available with actuals for each year from 1917-18 up to 1923-24 and the figures in brackets represent the variations for each period taking the average of the quinquennium from 1879-80 to 1883-84 as 100 —

	Number of mills at work	Authorised Capital (in lakhs of Rs)	Number (in thousands) of.		
			Persons employed	Looms	Spindles.
Average—					
1879-80 to 1883-84	21 (100)	270.7 (100)	38.8 (100)	5.5 (100)	88 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	24 (114)	341.6 (126)	52.7 (136)	7 (127)	138.4 (157)
1889-90 to 1893-94	26 (124)	402.6 (149)	64.3 (166)	8.3 (151)	173.6 (196)
1894-95 to 1898-99	31 (148)	522.1 (193)	86.7 (223)	11.7 (213)	244.8 (278)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	36 (171)	680 (251)	114.2 (294)	16.2 (295)	334.6 (380)
1904-05 to 1908-09	46 (219)	960 (355)	165 (425)	24.8 (451)	510.5 (580)
1909-10 to 1913-14	60 (286)	1,209 (443)	208.4 (537)	33.5 (609)	691.8 (786)
1914-15 to 1918-19	73 (348)	1,413.6 (519)	259.8 (668)	39.7 (722)	821.2 (933)
1917-18	76 (362)	1,428.5 (523)	266 (686)	40.6 (738)	834 (943)
1918-19	76 (362)	1,477.2 (546)	275.5 (710)	40 (727)	839.9 (954)
1919-20	76 (362)	1,563.5 (579)	280.4 (721)	41.0 (745)	856.3 (973)
1920-21	77 (367)	1,923.5 (712)	288.4 (738)	41.6 (745)	869.9 (996)
1921-22	81 (386)	2,122.4 (784)	288.4 (743)	43.0 (782)	908.3 (1,032)
1922-23			304.6	45.5	943.4
1923-24			310.5	47.0	955.4

The production of the mills has increased to a still greater extent. The following figures show the exports of jute manufactures and the declared values for the same periods. The value of jute manufactures exported by sea in 1923-24 was over thirty three times as great as the average value of the export in the period 1879-80 to 1883-84 —

	Jute manufactures		Value in lakhs of Rs
	Gunny bags in millions of number	Gunny cloths in millions of yards	
1879-80 to 1883-84	54.9 (100)	4.4 (100)	124.9 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	77 (140)	15.4 (350)	162.9 (130)
1889-90 to 1893-94	111.5 (203)	41 (932)	239.3 (232)
1894-95 to 1898-99	171.2 (312)	132 (4136)	518 (415)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	206.5 (376)	427.2 (9709)	826.5 (662)
1904-05 to 1908-09	257.3 (469)	698 (15864)	1,442.7 (1154)
1909-10 to 1913-14	339.1 (618)	970 (2045)	2,024.8 (1,621)
1914-15 to 1918-19	667.6 (1,216)	1,156 (26,273)	4,019.3 (3,218)
1919-20	842.7 (1,524)	1,273.1 (28,980)	5,001.5 (4,004)
1920-21	833.9 (1,527)	1,359.7 (33,800)	5,299.4 (4,273)
1921-22	886.7 (1,615)	1,120.5 (25,000)	3,999.5 (3,219)
1922-23	844.2 (1,537)	1,254.8 (31,350)	4,049.4 (3,265)
1923-24	413.7 (752)	1,343.7 (30,652)	4,238.3 (3,382)

Until the outbreak of war the exports by sea of raw jute were marked by increases from year to year, although the increase was very much less than that in the case of manufactures. During the war years exports declined very considerably. The cessation of the war stimulated the export trade and in 1919-20, the exports showed an increase, as compared with the average of the war quinquennium (1914-15 to 1918-19). In the following two years, the exports recorded a decrease and in 1922-23 they again made a recovery and amounted to 578,000 tons.

	Average	1879-80 to 1883-84	Jute, raw, ton	(100)
"	"	1884-85 to 1888-89	375,000	(119)
"	"	1889-90 to 1893-94	445,000	(133)
"	"	1894-95 to 1898-99	500,000	(133)
"	"	1899-1900 to 1903-04	615,000	(164)
"	"	1904-05 to 1908-09	585,000	(169)
"	"	1909-10 to 1913-14	765,000	(201)
"	"	1914-15 to 1918-19	765,000	(204)
"	"	1919-20	464,000	(124)
"	"	1920-21	592,000	(158)
"	"	1921-22	472,000	(129)
"	"	1922-23	468,000	(125)
"	"	1923-24	578,000	(154)
"	"	1923-24	660,000	(176)

The total quantity of jute manufactures exported by sea from Calcutta during the year 1922-23 was 668,000 tons as against 639,000 tons in the preceding year and 608,500 tons in the pre-war year 1913-14. The values of these exports amounted to Rs 40.28 lakhs or an increase of Rs 10.38 lakhs over the preceding year and Rs 12.08 lakhs over the pre-war year. The shipments of gunny bags were valued at Rs 15.32 lakhs and of gunny cloth Rs 24.24 lakhs as against Rs 13.86 and Rs 15.92 lakhs respectively in the preceding year and Rs 12.48 and Rs 15.58 lakhs in the pre-war year.

The price of raw jute reached a very high point in 1906-07, the rate being Rs. 65 per bale, in 1907-08 it dropped to Rs. 42 per bale, and the fall was accentuated in 1908-09 and 1909-10, the price having declined to 36 4 and Rs 31. In 1917-18 it dropped to Rs. 38-8-0 but rose again in 1919-20 up to Rs. 77 8-0. In 1920-21

it dropped to Rs. 65, but rose again to Rs. 66. It again declined to Rs 66. In 1921-22 the price rose to Rs 73 at the end of September, but fell back again to Rs. 50 at the end of November and recovered at Rs 64 at the close of the year.

Price of jute,
ordinary,
per bale of 400 lbs.

	Rs. a. p.
1879-80 to 1883-84	23 8 0 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	23 3 2 (99)
1889-90 to 1893-94	32 6 5 (138)
1894-95 to 1898-99	30 12 0 (131)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	32 1 7 (137)
1904-05 to 1908-09	44 18 6 (191)
1909-10 to 1913-14	51 0 10 (217)
1914-15 to 1918-19	50 6 5 (214)
1917-18	38 8 0 (164)
1918-19	60 0 0 (255)
1919-20	77 8 0 (330)
1920-21	69 8 0 (295)
1921-22	68 0 0 (288)
1922-23	73 0 0
1923-24	55 0 0

The average prices of gunny cloth have been as follows —

Price of Hessian cloth
104oz 40" per 100 yds

	Rs a p
1879-80 to 1883-84	10 7 11 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	8 0 7 (77)
1889-90 to 1893-94	10 6 6 (99)
1894-95 to 1898-99	9 11 8 (93)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	10 2 10 (97)
1904-05 to 1908-09	11 14 1 (112)
1909-10 to 1913-14	12 12 2 (122)
1914-15 to 1918-19	23 5 7 (222)
1917-18	33 8 0 (319)
1918-19	38 0 0 (314)
1919-20	28 0 0 (267)
1920-21	20 8 0 (195)
1921-22	14 8 0 (138)
1922-23	21 12 0
1923-24	19 18 0

The 1924 crop — The final figures of outturn for the three provinces work out as follows —

PROVINCE.	BALES	
	1923	1924
Bengal (including Cooch Behar)	6,204,516	72,39,865
Bihar and Orissa (including Nepal)	468,791	422,289
Assam	522,500	823,990
Total	6,995,807	7,986,144

PROVINCE.	AREA IN ACRES.	
	1923.	1924
Bengal (including Cooch Behar)	2,014,615	23,83,290
Bihar and Orissa	183,770	2,12,200
Assam	114,300	1,11,300
Total	2,312,685	2,714,790

The Indian Jute Mills Association now one of the most important, if not the most important, of the bodies affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, was started under the following circumstances.—In 1886 the existing mills, finding that, in spite of the constant opening up of new markets, working results were not favourable, came to an agreement, with the late S E J Clarke, Secretary to the Chamber of Commerce, as trustee, to work short time. The only mills which stood out of this arrangement were the Hooghly and Serajgrunge. The first agreement, for six months dating from 15th February 1886, was subsequently renewed at intervals without a break for five years up to February 15, 1891. The state of the market at the time of the renewals dictated the extent of the short time, which varied throughout the five years between 4 days a week, 9 days a fortnight and 5 days a week. Besides short time, 10 per cent of the sacking looms were shut down for a short period in 1890. An important feature of this agreement was a mutual undertaking by the parties not to increase their spinning power during the currency of the agreement, only a few exceptions being made in the case of a few incomplete new mills.

The present officials of the Association are—**Chairman**—Mr R. N. Band, M.L.C.
Members of Committee—Mr C G Cooper, M.L.C., Mr J. Sime, Mr J W A. Simpson and Mr D J. Leckie.

Working days—With the introduction of the electric light into the mills in 1896, the working day was increased to 15 hours, Saturday included, which involved an additional amount of cleaning and repairing work on Sundays. In order to minimise this Sunday work and give them a free Sunday, an agitation was got up in 1897 by the Mill European assistants to have the engines stopped at 2 or 3 p.m. on Saturdays. The local Government took the matter up, but their action went no further than applying moral suasion, backed by a somewhat half-hearted threat. The Mill Association held meetings to consider the question and the members were practically agreed as to the utility of early closing on Saturdays, but, *more so*, could not trust themselves to carry it out without legislation. Unfortunately the Government of India refused to sanction the passing of a Resolution by the provincial Government under the Factory Act and the matter was dropped. Only a year or two ago the Jute Mills Association in despair brought out an American business expert, Mr J H Parks, to advise them on the possibility of forming a jute trust with a view to exercising some control over the production and price of jute. Mr Parks came, and wrote a report which the Association promptly pigeon-holed because the slump was over and the demand was so prodigious that there was no need to worry about the price of jute.

An Association, styled the **Calcutta Jute Dealers Association**, has lately been formed in Calcutta to promote and to guard the common interests of its members as dealers in jute for local consumption. The members are buyers and brokers of jute for sale to the jute mill in and around Calcutta. The present Committee—Mr Geo Morgan, M.L.A., **Chairman**, Members:—Messrs D King, G C Moon,

J Campbell Forrester, M.L.C., J R Miller and D A Wylie.

Effects of the War—The official review of the Trade of India in 1916-17 says—The value of the exports of raw jute increased in 1916-17 by nearly Rs 65 lakhs to Rs 1,629 lakhs. The quantity exported, however, was less than in the preceding year. The estimated yield of the crop was 12 per cent. above that of the previous year, viz., 1,490,000 tons or 8,840,000 bales. Owing to the lack of tonnage and other abnormal circumstances brought about by the war, the quantity exported was 10 per cent. below that of the previous year. Of the consumers the United Kingdom and Italy took less, while the United States, France (mainly via Dunkirk), Russia (via Vladivostok) and Brazil took greater quantities. There were, of course, no exports to enemy countries which took more than 27 per cent in the five years ending 1913-14, the pre-war year. The increase in the value accompanied by a decrease in the volume of exports was due to the very high range of prices during the months of September, October, November and December. Towards the close of the year under review prices steadily declined and have since gone still lower.

Jute Manufactures—The value of the exports now approximates to Rs 42 crores. In spite of the war with its attendant difficulties of freight and finance, the exports of gunny cloth showed an increase of Rs 241 lakhs of which Rs 163 lakhs were due to higher prices and Rs 78 lakhs to an increase in the volume of exports. There were also an increase of Rs 118 lakhs in the value of gunny bags exported. The number of bags shipped increased while the weight decreased, and bags for war purposes being lighter than the ordinary bags for transporting grain. Exports to Australia in 1916-17 were a record. The United Kingdom with Australia took more than half of the number of bags exported while the United States took more than half of the quantity of cloth exported.

There were 74 mills at work throughout the year with 41,292 looms and 863,339 spindles. The number of persons employed was 266,881. There were no difficulties as regards the supply of labour.

The number of gunny bags shipped from Calcutta during 1922-23 declined from 386 million bags to 342 million bags, but the value increased from Rs 13,87 lakhs to Rs 15,82 lakhs. Shipments of gunny cloth rose from 1,120 million yards to 1,251 million yards valued at Rs 15,92 lakhs and Rs 24,24 lakhs, respectively.

Hemp and Jute Substitutes.

Experiments have been made during the last few years by the Agricultural Department of the Government of India with the Deccan hemp plant (*Hibiscus cannabinus*), which yields a fibre very similar to jute. As a result, a new variety of the plant, known as Type 3, has been obtained, which it is now proposed to introduce into several parts of India, and, as a beginning, the variety is to be grown on a number of estates in Bihar. A sample of the fibre prepared from this variety by the usual methods of retting was 10 ft to 12 ft long, of an exceptionally light colour, well cleaned, and of good strength.

It was valued at £18 per ton with Bimlipatnam jute at £12 10s., and Bengal first mark jute at £17 per ton. Decan hemp has been grown fairly extensively in Bombay, the Central Provinces, and Madras, where it is used for ropes and cordage and also for the manufacture of a coarse sackcloth. A valuable feature of the plant is its suitability for cultivation in such parts of India as are not suitable for jute.

Prior to the war, the United Kingdom's requirements of hemp were mainly supplied by the following countries in order of importance — the Philippine Islands, New Zealand, India, Russia, Italy and Germany. The opinion appears to be held that the effect of the war will be to cause very considerable changes in the character of the fibre market. There will probably be labour difficulties, it is thought, in the prepa-

ration of the hemp crops of Russia and Hungary, and it is not unlikely that the world will look to countries such as India for the supply of fibres which may be used as substitutes for the European varieties of hemp. There can be no doubt that one of the early effects of the war was to firm up hemp prices. As far as Indian hemp is concerned, values were persistently depreciated during the first six months of 1914 owing to large stocks held, but the closure of the Russian hemp market on the outbreak of war resulted in a marked improvement in values, and there was a keen demand and a considerable rise in price. Exports from Calcutta during 1922-23 made a great recovery from the previous year. The quantity advanced by 87 per cent from 197,412 cwt. to 269,487 cwt., and the value from Rs. 26.98 lakhs to Rs. 86.68 lakhs.

THE WOOL INDUSTRY

Wool exported from India consists not only of wool grown in India itself, but of imports from foreign sources, these latter coming into India both by land and by sea. Imports by sea come chiefly from Persia, but a certain quantity from Persia also comes by land, while the main imports are from Afghanistan, Central Asia, Tibet and Nepal. Quetta, Shikarpur, Amritsar and Multan are the main collecting centres for wool received by land from Afghanistan and Persia, whence it is almost invariably railed to Karachi for subsequent export overseas.

Imports and Exports.—A considerable amount of wool is imported annually from Tibet and, in normal years, from Afghanistan. Total imports of raw and manufactured wool in 1923-24 were valued at Rs. 2.84 lakhs, the exports in the same year totalled in value Rs. 4.00 lakhs.

Production in India.—The production of wool in India is estimated at 60 million lbs. the estimate being arrived at from the available figures of the number of sheep in the country and their estimated yield per fleece, the average quantity of wool yielded per sheep per annum being taken at only 2 lbs.

All Indian wools are classed in the grade of carpet wools, and it is correct to say of perhaps fully half the breeds of sheep found on the plains of India that they yield a kind of hair rather than of wool. They are reared chiefly on account of the mutton, and the fleece has been generally regarded as of subsidiary interest. In many respects, in actual fact, the Indian plains sheep approximate more nearly to the accepted type of the goat rather than of the sheep. Short remarks in his manual on Indian cattle and sheep, particularly with respect to the Madras type, that they "resemble a greyhound with tucked up belly, having some coarseness of form, the feet light, the limbs bony, sides flat and the tail short."

Mill manufacture.—The number of woollen mills at work in British India in 1903 was three, with an authorised capital of Rs. 23,50,000, and employing 23,800 spinners and 684 looms. The number of persons employed in the industry then was 2,550, and the quantity of woollen goods produced 2,148,000 lbs. At

the end of 1917 the number of mills had risen to five, with an authorised capital of Rs. 2,56,50,000 employing 39,608 spinners and 1,155 looms. The weight of goods produced then was 9,744,284 lbs. and the number of persons employed 7,824. With regard to Indian States, there was one mill in Mysore in 1903 with a capital of Rs. 6,00,000, employing 1,430 spinners and 45 looms. The quantity of goods produced was 1,186,000 lbs. and the number of persons employed 297. In 1907 there was still only the one mill working in an Indian State—the authorised capital had been increased to Rs. 15,00,000, the quantity of goods produced to 1,724,087 lbs. and the number of persons employed to 563. Three of the mills manufacture all classes of woollen and worsted goods, the remainder manufacturing blankets only. The existence of these mills in India proved of great service to Government in the meeting of war requirements, and they were all employed to their fullest capacity in supplying army demands for greatcoat cloth, serges, puttees, flannels, blankets and hosiery. Their total capacity, however, was not sufficient to meet the full requirements of the army, and consequently their supplies had to be supplemented by large imports from home. The bulk of the wool used by the Indian mills is Indian wool, although it is supplemented to some extent by the importation of merinos and cross-breeds from Australia for the manufacture of the finer classes of goods. Their market for manufactured goods is almost entirely in India itself.

Blanket weaving and carpet manufacture are carried on in various parts of the country, notably in the Punjab and the United Provinces. Woollen pile carpets are made in many of the jalkas. Amritsar had a considerable trade at one time in weaving shawls from pashm, the fine under fleece of the Tibetan goat, but its place has been taken to some degree by the manufacture of shawls from imported worsted yarns, but more generally by the manufacture of carpets of a fine quality which find a ready sale in the world market. This work is done entirely on hand looms and the carpets fetch a high price.

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Silk.

In the early days of the East India Company the Indian Silk trade prospered greatly, and various sub-tropical races of the Silkworm were introduced. But the trade gradually declined for the following reasons—

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries India's chief competitor in the silk trade was the Levant Company. Successful efforts, however, were made to acclimatise in Europe one or two races of a temperate worm, procured from China and Japan. When sericulture became part of the agriculture of France and Italy a quality of silk was produced entirely different from that of India and Turkey, and its appearance created a new demand and organized new markets.

All subsequent experience seems to have established the belief that the plains of India, or at all events of Bengal, are never likely to produce silk that could compete with this new industry. On the lower hills of Northern India, on the other hand a fair amount of success has been attained with this (to India) new worm, as, for example in Dehra Dun and Kashmir. In Manipur, it would appear probable that *Bombyx mori*, possibly obtained from China, has been reared for centuries. The caprice of fashion has, from time to time, powerfully modified the Indian silk trade. The special properties of the *borah* silk were formerly much appreciated but the demand for them has now declined. This circumstance, together with defective systems of rearing and of hand reeling and weaving, accounts largely for the present depression in the mulberry silk trade of India.

Mulberry feeding worms.—Sir George Watt states that in no other country does the necessity exist so pressingly as in India to treat the subject of silk and the silk industries under two sections, viz., *Bombycidae*, the domesticated or mulberry feeding silk worms, and *Saturniidae* the wild or non mulberry feeding worms. In India the mulberry worm (*Bombyx Mori*) has been systematically reared for many centuries, there being six chief forms of it. In the temperate tracts of India various forms of *Morus alba*, (the mulberry of the European silk-producing countries), are grown specially as food for the silkworm. This is the case in many parts of the plains of Northern India, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and along the Himalaya at altitudes up to 11,000 feet. The other species even more largely grown for the Indian silkworm is *M. Indica* of which there are many distinctive varieties or races. This is the most common mulberry of Bengal and Assam as also of the Nilgiri hills.

India has three well-known purely indigenous silkworms, the *tasar*, the *muga* and the *eri*. The first is widely distributed on the lower hills, more especially those of the great central tableland, and feeds on several jungle trees. The second is confined to Assam and Eastern Bengal, and feeds on a laurel. The third exists in a state of semi-domestication, being reared on the castor-oil plant. From an art point of view the *muga* silk is the most interesting and attractive, and the cocoon can be reeled readily. The *eri* silk, on the other hand, is so extremely

difficult to reel that it is nearly always carded and spun—an art which was practised in the Khasi Hills of Assam long before it was thought of in Europe.

Experiments and results.—Numerous experiments have been made with a view to improving sericulture in India. French and other experts are agreed that one of the causes of the decline of the silk industry in India has been the prevalence of diseases and parasites among the worms, the most prevalent disease being pebrine. M. Lafont, who has conducted experiments in cross breeding, believes that improvement in the crops will be obtained as soon as the fight against pebrine and other diseases of the worms is taken up vigorously by the producers of seed and the rearsers of worms, while improvement in the quality of the cocoons will be obtained by rearing various races, pure and cross bred.

In Kashmir and Mysore satisfactory results have been obtained. In the former State sericulture has been fostered on approved European principles with Italian reeling machinery, seed being imported annually on a large scale. In 1897 in Mysore Mr. Tata, after selecting a plantation and site for rearing houses, sent to Japan for a Superintendent and trained operatives. The Mysore authorities have made a grant of Rs. 3,000 a year to the Tata firm in return for instruction given to the people of Mysore in Japanese methods of growing the mulberry and rearing the insects. The products of the Mysore State are exported to foreign countries from Madras. The work of the Salvation Army is also noteworthy in various parts of India. They have furnished experts, encouraged the planting of mulberry trees, and subsidised several silk schools. The draft prospectus has been issued of a silk farm and institute to be started at Simla under the auspices of the Salvation Army. The Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab has permitted the school to be called after his name, and the Punjab Government made a grant of Rs. 2,000 towards the expenses. Sir Dorabji Tata has also made a donation of Rs. 1,000. The Bengal Silk Committee under the guidance of some French experts have conducted cross-breeding experiments with a view to establish a multi voltine hybrid of European quality. There is a Government sericultural farm at Berhampore, where, it is said, a pure white multi voltine of silk worm is reared. The results of the Bengal Committee's labours may be summed up as follows: the only really effective method of dealing with the problem is to work up gradually to a point at which the whole of the seed cocoon necessary for the province will be supplied to rearsers under Government supervision, and to establish gradually a sufficient number of large nurseries throughout the silk districts of the province.

In 1915 there was issued by the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, a Bulletin (No. 43 of 1915) entitled "First Report on the Experiments carried out at Pusa to improve the Mulberry Silk Industry." In a short Prefatory note Mr. Bainbridge Fletcher (Imperial Entomo-

logist) explains that the object of the Bulletin is to place on record some of the more important experiments which were commenced at Pusa in the year 1910 and have since been carried on in the endeavour to fix a superior multivoltine race of the Mulberry Silkworm which would not degenerate and which would yield silk better both in quality and outturn than that supplied by the multivoltine races which are reared at present.

Central Nurseries.—The report of the Agricultural Department, Bengal, for the year ending June 30, 1913, gives an account of a scheme which has been devised with the object of reclaiming the silk industry. The aim of the scheme is gradually to establish throughout the silk districts a sufficient number of central nurseries with rearing houses and thus enable the whole of the seed cocoons required in the province to be supplied under Government supervision. It is believed that this is the only really effective method of dealing with the problem. A number of the existing smaller nurseries were closed during 1913 and others are being converted into enlarged and improved central nurseries with rearing houses complete. The ultimate success of the scheme depends largely on the willingness of the rearers to pay an adequate price for pure seed.

A pamphlet was published in 1915, by Mr M. N. De, Sericultural Assistant at Pusa, which contains practical hints on improved methods which are recommended to be used for reeling mulberry silk in Bengal and other silk producing districts. It has been found that, by the provision of two small pulleys to the ordinary

Bengal type of reeling machine, superior thread can be obtained, the cost of the extra apparatus is merely nominal (five or six annas per machine) whilst the suitability of the machine for cottage workers is maintained. By attention to such simple points as the stiffing and storage of cocoons and the temperature and quality of the water used in the reeling pans, great improvements can be effected in most silk centres in Bengal and other districts.

Exports of Silk.—As a result of the war the trade has showed in some degree signs of revival from its decadent condition, both as regards its volume and value. The value of exports during 1915-16 improved by Rs. 12 lakhs to Rs. 27½ lakhs, of which raw silk accounted for Rs. 24 lakhs. In 1916-17 the total exports rose to Rs. 54½ lakhs. In 1922-23 exports of raw silk amounted to Rs. 38 lakhs and of silk manufactures to approximately Rs. 2½ lakhs.

Imperial Silk Specialist.—At the end of 1915 it was decided that the first step to be taken to revive the silk industry should be the employment of a qualified expert who, after a careful study of the conditions not only in India but in other silk producing countries, will formulate recommendations for the consideration of Government. With the approval of the Secretary of State Mr H. Maxwell-Lefroy, formerly Imperial Entomologist and now Professor at the Imperial College of Science and Technology, South Kensington, was appointed to the temporary post of Imperial Silk Specialist.

Indigo.

Indigo dyes are obtained from the Indigofera, a genus of Leguminosae which comprises some 800 species, distributed throughout the tropical and warm temperate regions of the globe, India having about 40. Western India may be described as the headquarters of the species, so far as India is concerned, 25 being peculiar to that Presidency. On the eastern side of India, in Bihar, Bengal, Assam and Burma, there is a marked decrease in the number of species but a visible increase in the prevalence of those that are met with.

There is evidence that when Europeans first began to export the dye from India, it was procured from the Western Presidency and shipped from Surat. It was carried by the Portuguese to Lisbon and sold by them to the dyers of Holland, and it was the desire to obtain a more ample supply of dye stuff that led to the formation of the Dutch East India Company and so to the overthrow of the Portuguese supremacy in the East. Opposed to indigo in 17th century Europe was keen owing to its interference with the wood industry, but it was competition to obtain indigo from other sources than India that led to the first decline of the Indian indigo industry.

In the middle of the eighteenth century, when the cultivation of indigo in the West Indies had been given up—partly on account of the high duties imposed upon it and partly because sugar and coffee were found to be more profitable—the industry was revived in India, and, as one of the many surprises of the industry, the province of Bengal was selected for this revival. It had no sooner been organised, however, than troubles next arose in Bengal itself through misunderstandings between the planters, their cultivators and the Government, which may be said to have culminated in Lord Macaulay's famous Memorandum of 1837. This led to another migration of the industry from Lower and Eastern Bengal to Tirhut and the United Provinces. Here the troubles of the industry did not end, for the researches of the chemical laboratories of Germany threatened the very existence of any natural vegetable dye. They first killed the madder dye of Europe, then the safflower, the lac and the *ai* dyes of India, and are now advancing rapidly with synthetic indigo, intent on the complete annihilation of the natural dye. Opinions differ on many aspects of the present vicissitude, meantime the exports from India have seriously declined, and salvation admittedly lies in the path of

cheaper production both in cultivation and manufacture. These issues are being vigorously faced and some progress has been accomplished, but the future of the industry can scarcely help being described as of great uncertainty. The issue is not the advantage of new regulations of land tenure, but one exclusively of natural versus synthetic indigo. (See Watt's "Commercial Products of India.") In this connection it may be noted that increases in the price of coal in England, due to labour difficulties, have greatly strengthened the position of natural indigo. In February 1915 a conference was held at Delhi when the possibility of assisting the natural indigo industry was considered from three points of view—agricultural, research and commercial. The agricultural or botanical side of the question is fully discussed by Mr and Mrs Howard of Pusa in Bulletins Nos 51 and 54 of the Agricultural Research Institute. Other aspects of the question were fully examined last year in the Agricultural Journal of India by Mr W. A. Davis, Indigo Research Chemist to the Government of India. An Indigo Cess

Bill was passed in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1918. It provides for a cess on indigo exported from India for the scientific investigation of the methods of cultivation and manufacture of indigo, the proceeds of the cess being received and expended by Government.

Decline of the Industry.—Since synthetic indigo was put upon the market, in 1897, the natural indigo industry of India has declined very rapidly. Apart from slight recoveries in 1903-07 and 1911-12, the decline continued without a break until the revival due to the impossibility of obtaining artificial dyes in sufficient quantities during the war.

The total area under indigo in 1923 is estimated at 185,400 acres, which is 37 per cent below the finally revised area of 1922. The total yield of dye is estimated at 36,100 cwts (53,900 factory maunds*) as against 58,800 cwts (80,300 factory maunds), the finally revised estimate of 1922, or a decrease of 33 per cent. Details for the province are given below—

Province	Area (acres)		Yield (cwts)	
	1923-24	1922-23	1923-24	1922-23
Madras	91,900	149,600	22,000	34,000
United Provinces	19,800	39,100	2,200	4,000
Bihar and Orissa	24,800	35,400	4,200	4,100
Punjab	36,000	50,300	6,600	9,300
Bengal	900	7,800	(a)	200
Bombay and Sind (including Indian States)	8,000	11,900	1,100	2,200
Total	185,400	293,600	36,100	53,800

Exports.—The exports by sea to foreign countries were in each of the last five years (in cwts) as follows—

From—	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Calcutta	cwts 15,739	cwts 3,961	cwts 6,340	cwts 2,160	cwts 3,316
Madras ports	12,138	4,874	5,062	1,735	2,744
Bombay	4,179	1,301	837	555	574
Karachi	631	114	123	65	68
Total	32,637	10,250	12,362	4,515	6,702

* One factory maund 75 lbs

(a) Less than 50 cwts

OILS AND OIL CAKES.

The production of oil-seeds—rape, mustard, linseed, sesamum, and ground-nut—was estimated in 1920-21 at 2,762,000 tons of which 486,000 tons, or 18 per cent, were exported. Exports in 1922-23 amounted to 1,177,000 tons valued at Rs. 27.35 lakhs, showing an increase of 60 per cent. in quantity and 57 per cent in value compared with the previous year.

A pamphlet on the subject recently published by the Commercial Intelligence Department points out that it is both economically and industrially unsound for India to export her oil seeds instead of manufacturing the oils and oil cakes in India. It allows other countries to reap the manufacturers' profits and at the same time deprives Indian agriculture of the great potential wealth, as cattle-food and manure, contained in the oil cakes. An immense quantity of oil is, as a matter of fact, already manufactured in this country by more or less crude processes. Village oil mills worked by bullocks and presses worked by hand exist in all parts of the country and supply most of the local demand for oil. There has also been a great increase in recent years in the number of oil mills worked by steam or other mechanical power. These crush all the commoner oil seeds and development has been especially marked in the case of mustard oil, castor oil and ground nut oil. In spite of all this there has been a perceptible diminution in the export of oil from India, particularly of coconut oil and linseed oil, and an increase in the export of oil seeds, which is particularly marked in the case of copra and groundnuts. The situation created by the War has naturally led to too much discussion of the possibility of developing on a large scale the existing oil milling industry in India.

There are three difficulties with which any proposal to develop in India an oil milling

industry on a great scale is faced. In the first place, there exist high protective tariffs in European countries which encourage the export from India of the raw material rather than the manufactured product. Secondly, there is a better market for the oil cake in Europe than in India and the freight on oil seeds is less than the freight on cake. Thirdly, it is much easier and less expensive to transport oil seeds by sea than it is to transport oil. While this has been the position in the European markets, Indian made oils, other than coconut oil, have made enough headway in Eastern markets to suggest the possibility of a development of those markets.

The problem of finding a market for oil cakes is equally important. The value of oil cakes is much better appreciated in Europe than in India. The Indian cultivator is prejudiced against the use of machine made cake as a cattle food or as manure because he considers that it contains less oil and therefore less nourishment than the village-made cake. He is therefore unwilling to buy it except at a reduced price. His prejudices on this point have no justification in fact since experts are agreed that mill cake is a better food for cattle than village made cake. Even when the mill cake contains less oil than the village cake, there is still more oil in the cake than cattle can digest. The excess of oil in the village cake, where it exists, is a drawback and not an advantage to the use of the cake as food. A considerable amount of demonstration work has been done by the Agricultural Departments of Government in order to remove the cultivator's prejudices and there is said now to be an increasing demand for most classes of mill cake.

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There is no provision of law in British India for the registration of Copyright. Protection for Copyright accrues under the Indian Copyright Act under which there is now no registration of rights, but the printer has to supply copies of these work as stated in that Act and in the Printing Presses and Books Act XXV of 1867. The Indian Copyright Act made such modifications in the Imperial Copyright Act of 1911 as appeared to be desirable for adapting its provisions to the circumstances of India. The Imperial Act of 1911 was brought into force in India by proclamation in the *Gazette of India* on October 30, 1912. Under a 27 of that Act there is limited power for the legislature of British possessions to modify or add to the provisions of the Act in its application to the possession, and it is under this power that the Indian Act of 1914 was passed. The portions of the Imperial Act applicable to British are scheduled to the Indian Act. The Act to which these provisions are scheduled makes some formal adaptations of them to Indian law and procedure, and some material

modifications of them in their application translations and musical compositions. In the case of works first published in British India the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish a translation is, subject to an important proviso, to subsist only for ten years from the first publication of the work. The provisions of the Act as to mechanical instruments for producing musical sounds were found unsuitable to Indian conditions. "The majority of Indian melodies," it was explained in Council, "have not been published, i.e., written in staff notation, except through the medium of the phonograph. It is possible in many cases to identify the original composer or author, and the melodies are subject to great variety of notation and tune. To meet these conditions a 5 of the Indian Act follows the English Musical Copyright Act of 1902 by defining musical work as meaning any combination of melody and harmony, or either of them, printed, reduced to writing, or otherwise graphically produced or reproduced."

Tea.

Tea cultivation in India is chiefly in Assam, Bengal and Southern India, the cultivation elsewhere being comparatively unimportant. The total production of tea in India was estimated at 75 million lbs. in 1923, as compared with 312 million lbs. in 1922 and 274 million lbs. in 1921. Assam contributed 68 per cent or nearly two thirds of the total, Northern India (excluding Assam) nearly 25 per cent, and Southern India 12 per cent. The statement below shows the development of the industry during the past 18 years —

	1915	1920	1921	1922	1923
ACREAGE	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Assam	382,800	420,200	417,200	412,100	411,800
Rest of Northern India	181,900	193,800	200,600	203,200	203,800
Southern India	66,000	88,400	91,200	92,900	91,900
Burma	2,800	1,700			
Total	634,900	704,100	709,000	708,200	710,300
PRODUCTION	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)
Assam	245,752	234,814	181,503	199,965	287,601
Rest of Northern India	94,695	76,237	61,362	75,126	92,076
Southern India	31,610	35,655	31,399	36,548	45,679
Burma	146	184			
Total	372,203	345,340	274,264	311,639	375,356

Exports during the same years were as follows —

Exports of tea by sea to foreign countries

	1915-16	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1,000)
From Northern India	301,429	251,508	284,378	253,996	296,871
From Southern India	37,035	34,238	29,493	34,296	41,879
From Burma	6	6	7	10	5
Total	338,470	285,752	313,878	288,296	338,755

The total exports during 1923-24 were valued at Rs. 31.65 lakhs, as compared with 288 million lbs., valued at Rs. 22.04 lakhs in the previous year. The quantity exported to the United Kingdom increased by 19 per cent from 248 to 296 million lbs., and the value by 46 per cent from Rs. 19.14 to Rs. 27.97 lakhs. The consumption in the United Kingdom expanded less rapidly than in 1921, but the smaller amount imported together with larger re-exports effected a substantial reduction in the heavy stocks. Direct shipments to Canada and the United States were larger than in the preceding year. Australia slightly improved her demands from 4.0 to 4.3 million lbs., as against 7.5 million lbs. in 1921-22 due mainly to the competition of tea from Java. The exports to Ceylon increased from 3 to 4 million lbs. On the other hand, Mesopotamia and Persia reduced their demands. Bengal supplied 88 per cent of the exports and Madras nearly 11 per cent.

EXPORTS AND PRICES.

The following table shows the quantity of Tea exported by sea and by land to Foreign Countries from India Ceylon and China in the years 1897-98 to 1923-24 with variations in Index numbers taking the figure of 1896-97 as 100; —

	India	Ceylon *	CHINA †		Java
			Black and green	Brick table and dust	
	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs
1896-97	158 530 488 [105]	132 965 518 [111]	147 067 200 [91]	68 017 067 [87]	25 450 156 [100]
1897-98	177 183 995 [118]	129 601 908 [118]	153 069 067 [95]	71 205 067 [91]	27 455 019 [107]
1900-01	192 500 858 [125]	149 284 608 [136]	144 270 933 [90]	52 190 667 [66]	29 286 402 [114]
1901-02	185 594 556 [121]	144 276 608 [131]	119 360 000 [74]	42 740 533 [54]	36 579 941 [148]
1902-03	183 710 931 [120]	150 829 707 [137]	128 226 933 [79]	78 512 400 [100]	36 078 003 [143]
1903-04	209 552 160 [139]	149 227 236 [135]	140 607 867 [88]	88 813 600 [107]	40 689 185 [156]
1904-05	214 800 325 [142]	157 029 333 [143]	182 366 933 [89]	61 498 733 [78]	50 962 607 [196]
1905-06	316 770 368 [144]	171 258 703 [136]	112 162 533 [89]	70 564 267 [91]	61 691 452 [241]
1906-07	236 090 323 [157]	171 258 703 [136]	108 864 534 [87]	79 506 133 [101]	64 988 907 [253]
1907-08	298 187 826 [151]	151 158 210 [141]	130 022 236 [80]	84 940 000 [108]	71 822 604 [278]
1908-09	235 080 126 [156]	131 436 718 [105]	129 265 733 [80]	80 856 733 [103]	101 603 335 [396]
1909-10	250 521 064 [167]	130 535 951 [9]	150 174 900 [74]	79 617 600 [101]	
1910-11	256 438 614 [170]	186 925 117 [1 0]	123 947 734 [77]	84 158 948 [107]	
1911-12	263 515 774 [1 5]	184 720 534 [168]	137 788 933 [86]	67 251 467 [73]	
1912-13	281 815 329 [18]	196 632 960 [169]	127 582 503 [8]	69 733 200 [89]	
1913-14	291 715 041 [194]	197 818 040 [170]	103 529 733 [68]	82 274 400 [106]	
1914-15	302 556 697 [201]	191 838 946 [171]	117 587 667 [73]	81 253 383 [103]	
1915-16	340 433 163 [226]	214 900 833 [196]	143 062 000 [99]	96 776 687 [119]	
1916-17	292 594 026 [194]	208 090 279 [189]	126 940 900 [78]	79 259 733 [101]	98 004 121 [382]
1917-18	360 631 933 [240]	196 231 592 [17]	89 115 933 [55]	40 998 038 [78]	80 226 200 [318]
1918-19	326 845 80 [217]	190 817 744 [164]	43 422 933 [27]	10 435 866 [13]	61 588 000 [241]
1919-20	382 033 694 [254]	208 590 943 [189]	71 801 500 [45]	20 132 400 [26]	110 722 400 [432]
1920-21	287 524 697 [191]	184 770 231 [168]	98 908 600 [74]	1 809 667 [2]	93 660 400 [366]
1921-22	3 7 066 850 [211]	161 610 066 [147]	53 602 533 [33]	3 158 533 [4]	87 602 200 [304]
1922-23	994 701 469 [196]	171 807 581 [156]	8 336 933 [45]	3 472 800 [4]	80 713 600 [315]
1923-24	344 74 111 [227]	181 39 31 [15]	98 012 133 [61]	8 813 467 [11]	90 178 100 [351]

* The figures for years previous to 1905-06 and also from 1917-18 to 1920-21 relate to the calendar year as it has been found impossible to procure complete data for the official year.

† For calendar year.

‡ In the case of Java the figure for 1905-06 has been taken as 100 earlier figures not being available.

The following statement illustrates the variations in prices of Indian tea sold at auction sales in Calcutta and in average declared values of exports by sea in 1899-90 and the six years ending 1923-24 the average price of 1901-02 to 1910-11 being taken as 100 in each case —

Year	Average price of Indian tea		Average declared value of Exports by Sea	
	Price	Variation	Price	Variation
	As p		As p	
1899-90	7 7	126	8 2	117
1918-19	8 0	133	8 9	125
1919-20	8 0	133	8 8	124
1920-21	5 1	85	6 10	98
1921-22	10 1	168	9 3	134
1922-23	18 3	221	12 3	175
1923-24	15 0	250	14 11	213

The following table shows the quantity of tea, green and black, produced, exported available for consumption in India during the years 1919-20 to 1923-24 (the figures in the last column being calculated after adding stocks left from previous year and deducting those left at end of year) —

	Production	Net exports	Available balance
	lbs	lbs	lbs.
1919-20	377,055,839	370,372,501	29,897,188
1920-21	345,339,576	276,610,111	43,968,466
1921-22	274,263,771	304,829,523	30,568,748
1922-23	311,618,986	281,494,433	29,357,00
1923-24	377,355,683	324,037,711	47,254,878

Quantity of Indian Tea exported by sea* (distinguished according to countries of final destination) and by land, in the years 1918-19 to 1922-23

	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs
United Kingdom	336,916,942	249,111,440	268,716,739	249,491,397	296,287,665	
Rest of Europe	1,747,449	191,714	606,770	1,867,837	1,883,514	
Africa	3,113,264	2,808,314	5,431,617	4,480,087	3,678,638	
Canada	8,299,579	7,995,940	11,900,753	10,450,161	12,177,980	
U S A	6,594,383	3,146,513	7,981,511	4,342,551	5,869,215	
Rest of America	3,726,280	2,107,815	698,079	1,415,794	1,393,019	
Ceylon (a)	1,720,735	3,274,846	4,115,485	2,579,200	3,845,870	
China	161,856	29,610	15,323	9,474	14,628	
Perak	1,959,402	2,050,955	1,282,752	2,325,787	2,357,861	
Turkey, Asiatic	4,645,806	5,445,880	12,583,079	6,033,668	3,380,961	
Rest of Asia	2,528,226	2,967,537	2,300,837	2,076,595	4,635,579	
Australasia	7,782,976	6,521,278	8,291,813	6,433,706	4,772,039	
By Land	2,837,296	1,772,848	3,644,592	6,074,544	(b) 5,476,240	
GRAND TOTAL	382,033,694	287,524,697	317,566,850	294,700,469	314,774,111	

* Including shipments from the State of Travancore

(a) Tea consigned from British India to Ceylon is almost entirely transhipped at Colombo to other countries and does not, therefore, appear in the Ceylon Customs Returns as imports into Ceylon.

(b) Exclusive of the exports from the North West Frontier Province for the months, July 1923 to February 1924, for which returns have not been received

† Includes Mesopotamia.

Coffee.

The history of the introduction of coffee into India is very obscure. Most writers agree that it was brought to Mysore some two centuries ago by a Mahomedan pilgrim named Baba Budan who on his return from Mecca brought seven seeds with him. This tradition is so universally believed in by the inhabitants of the greater part of South India, that there seems every chance of its being founded on fact. About the beginning of the 19th century there is no doubt coffee had found its way to India and in 1823 a charter was granted to Fort Gloster near Calcutta authorising it to become a cotton mill, a coffee plantation and a rum distillery. Some of the coffee trees planted in fulfilment of that charter are supposed to be still alive and about the same time coffee was successfully grown in the Botanic Gardens Calcutta but the industry of coffee planting nowhere found an abiding place on the plains of India but migrated to the hills of South India, in Mysore more especially and thus into the very region where tradition affirms it had been introduced two centuries previously.

The first systematic plantation was apparently Mr. Cannon's near Chikmagalur. This was established in 1830. It is supposed however that Major Bevan may have actually grown coffee on the Wynad at a slightly earlier date and that Mr. Cockburn's Shevaroy plantation bears the same date as Mr. Cannon's. In 1840 Mr. Olsson formed a plantation at Manantoddy and in 1846 plantations were organised on the Nilgiri hills.

The Position of the Industry—The number of reporting plantations in the year 1922-23 was 2,998, covering an area of 227,676 acres as against 2,964 with an area of 216,746 acres reported a year ago. New land planted with coffee in these plantations during the year amounted to 7,224 acres while the area of old cultivation abandoned was 2,842 acres. This represents a net increase of 4,382 acres over the total area (127,272 acres) under coffee for 1921-22. The total reported area under cultivation in the year 1922-23 was therefore 131,656 acres or an increase of 3 per cent. over that of the preceding year. Of this total area, Mysore accounted for 52 per cent., Coorg 24 per cent., Madras 22 per cent. and Cochin and Travancore together 2 per cent.

It is reported that in some of the coffee-growing districts coffee is giving way to tea or where the altitude is not prohibitive to rubber. The advent of large supplies of cheap

Brazilian coffees in the markets of Europe has by bringing down prices no doubt injured the coffee industry of India very seriously.

Exports of Coffee

	Cwts.
1902-03	269,165
1903-04	291,254
1904-05	329,647
1905-06	360,182
1906-07	228,094
1907-08	244,284
1908-09	302,022
1909-10	332,645
1910-11	272,249
1911-12	241,085
1912-13	267,000
1913-14	260,000
1914-15	290,000
1915-16	177,000
1916-17	198,000
1917-18	198,000
1918-19	219,000
1919-20	272,600
1920-21	238,400
1921-22	235,000
1922-23	169,000
1923-24	218,000

The pre-war average value of the coffee exports was Rs. 79,17,000. In 1923-24 the exports were valued at Rs. 1,58,89,000.

Labour—The daily average number of persons employed in the plantations during 1921-22 was returned at 69,191 of whom 42,036 were permanently employed (namely garden labour 26,209 and outside labour 15,827) and 27,155 temporarily employed (outside labour) as compared with 74,945 persons (32,598 garden and 42,347 outside labour) permanently employed and 24,611 temporary (outside labour) in 1920-21.

INDIAN TOBACCO.

The tobacco plant was introduced into India by the Portuguese about the year 1602. As in other parts of the world, it passed through a period of persecution, but its ultimate distribution over India is one of the numerous examples of the avidity with which advantageous new crops or appliances are adopted by the Indian agriculturist. Five or six species of *Nicotiana* are cultivated, but only two are found in India, namely, *N. Tabacum* and *N. rustica*. The former is a native of South or Central America, and is the common tobacco of India. About the year 1829 experiments were conducted by the East India Company towards improving the quality of leaf and perfecting the native methods of curing and manufacturing tobacco. These were often repeated, and gradually the industry became identified with three great centres, namely, (1) Eastern and Northern Bengal (more especially the District of Rangpur), (2) Madras, Trichinopoly, Dindigul, Coconada and Calicut in Southern India, and (3) Rangoon and Moulmein in Burma. Bengal is the chief tobacco growing Province, but little or no tobacco is manufactured there. The chief factories are near Dindigul in the Madras Presidency, though, owing to the imposition of heavy import duties on the foreign leaf used as a cigar wrapper, some cigar factories have been moved to the French territory of Pondicherry.

The question of improving the quality of Indian tobaccos has received the attention of the Botanical section of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, and three Memoirs have been published recording the results of investigations in that direction. The immediate problem at Pusa is the production of a good cigarette tobacco. Many attempts have been made in the past to introduce into India the best varieties of cigarette tobacco from America, but the results have been disappointing. It is now hoped to build up by hybridization new kinds of tobacco, suited to Indian conditions of growth, which possess in addition the qualities necessary to obtain a better price.

Area under Cultivation.—The cultivation of tobacco is very widespread in Burma. The two main varieties are called Burmese tobacco and "Havana tobacco." Of the Burmese tobacco there are two main varieties—"Kewet-gyl," the large leaved variety and "Kewet-gyun," a smaller-leaved variety with pointed leaves. The former yields a heavier crop, but the latter gives better quality. There is always a great demand on the market for both the Havana and the Burma tobacco. The smooth leaves of the Havana plant are used for the wrappers and the coarser Burmese leaf for the filling.

The most important tobacco tracts in British India are—(1) the Coimbatore and Dindigul tract of Madras, where the *Uet-Kappel* and *Wera Kappel* varieties are largely grown, the former supplying the Trichinopoly cigar, (2) the Godavari Delta of Madras, (3) the

Rangpur tract of Bengal, (4) the Districts of Bihar and Orissa, (5) Guzerat in Bombay and (6) the delta tract of Burma.

The season for harvesting varies in different localities ranging from December to June, but the bulk of the crop is harvested during the months of February, March and April. The leaves when quite dry, are assorted and placed in heaps in stacks to ferment. They are then tied into bundles of 25 or 30, a useless leaf being employed for tying each bundle. The leaves are laid perfectly flat, the bundles being fan shaped. In this condition they are baled, the broom-like ends projecting outwards. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves, different qualities of tobacco are obtained. A black variety is used in India for cake tobacco, and this is the most common product, but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Small Holding Crop.—The area under tobacco in British India is always well above the million acre line, and there are some 100,000 acres in the Indian States. The culture varies, according to the attention given to the crop, from 200lb to as much as 3,000 lb of cured leaf per acre. The long-established Indian theory has been that the crop is suited only to small holdings, as it requires considerable attention and liberal manuring. But these latter conditions, as the history of the Assam tea industry shows, are not necessarily a bar to large plantations and organized production. The possibilities in this direction have been little explored, largely because cultivation in small holdings was current when British influence was established in India, whereas the cultivation of tea owes its introduction entirely to British enterprise. The great bulk of the tobacco grown in the country disappears in local consumption, but the export trade is developing.

Export Trade.—In the last three fiscal years the imports into the United Kingdom from India have risen from 1,677,000 lb. to 3,577,000lb. The trade continues to advance, and in the first five months of the fiscal year 1923-24 the shipments to England reached close upon 800,000lb., as compared with 600,000lb in the corresponding period of last year and 435,000lb in the first five months of the previous year.

Since the duty in England is charged by weight and not by value, India, as an exporter of the relatively cheaper grades, has to pay more duty in proportion than some foreign countries. But the higher degree of preference she will now enjoy will provide a substantial set off, and at the same time stimulate the efforts being made to raise the quality of production. Another factor in the same direction is the effect of the heavier import duties on tobacco shipped to India, and the consequent tendency of middle-class and other consumers to find satisfaction in the homegrown article.

The Cocaine Traffic.

The form of cocaine chiefly used in India is Cocaine Hydrochloride. This salt forms light shining crystals, with a bitterish taste, and is soluble in half its weight of water. The alkaloid cocaine—of which this is a salt—is obtained from the dried leaves of the *Erythroxylon*. Cocaine which grows in Bolivia, Peru, Java, Brazil and other parts of South America. The leaves are most active when freshly dried and are much used by the Natives as a stimulant. Tea made from them has a taste similar to green tea and is said to be very effectual in keeping people awake. In India the Coca plant seems never to have been cultivated on a commercial scale. It has been grown experimentally in the tea districts of Ceylon, Bengal and Southern India and has been found to produce a good quality and quantity of cocaine. As the plant has not been seriously cultivated and as there is no possibility for the present of the drug being manufactured in India, no restrictions have as yet been placed on its cultivation.

Spread of the habit.—The cocaine traffic in India which seems to be reaching alarming proportion in spite of legislation and strict preventive measures is of comparatively recent growth, though it is impossible to estimate how widespread it was in 1903 when the Bombay High Court for the first time decided that cocaine was a drug included within the definition of an intoxicating drug in the Bombay Abkari Act. Since that date the illegal sale of cocaine in India has largely increased and the various provincial Excise Reports bear witness to the spread of the "Cocaine habit." The consumers of the drug, which is notoriously harmful, are to be found in all classes of society and in Burma even school children are reported to be its victims, but in India as in Paris the drug is mostly used by prostitutes or by men as an aphrodisiac. The habit has spread chiefly to those classes which are prohibited by religion or caste rules from partaking of liquor and the well-known Indian intoxicating drugs.

Imports from Europe.—Cocaine and its allied drugs are not manufactured in India, but are imported. Most of the drug which is smuggled into India, comes from Germany and bears the mark of the well known house of E. Merck, Darmstadt. This firm issues cocaine in flat packets of various sizes ranging from 1 to 3 ounces which are easily packed away with other articles and greatly favour the methods of smugglers. Owing to its strength and purity cocaine eaters prefer this brand to any other in the market. Cocaine is also being imported into India from Japan and America. The League of Nations has only recently imposed some restrictions on the export of Cocaine but their effect has not yet been felt in India.

Smuggling.—So far as the cases already detected show, the persons who smuggle the drug by sea from Europe and places outside India, into India, are chiefly sailors, stewards, firemen and sometimes engineers and officers of foreign ships. The ports through which cocaine enters India are Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras, Marmagao and Pondicherry. The main inland distributing centres are Delhi, Lucknow, Meerut, Lahore, Multan, Surat and Ahmedabad. Delhi especially is notorious for the cocaine trade. Great ingenuity is employed in smuggling cocaine through the Custom houses. It is packed in parcels of

newspapers, books, toys and piece-goods and in trunks which have secret compartments. The retail trade in the towns is very cunningly organised and controlled. In addition to the actual retailers, there is a whole army of watchmen and patrols whose duty is to shadow the Excise and Police Officials and give the alarm when a raid is contemplated. During the War several cases of importation of Japanese cocaine were detected, the importers being Japanese and Chinese sailors, but since the cessation of hostilities and the resumption of trade most of the seizures were made from European seamen chiefly Italians. The cocaine was chiefly of German origin. The original marks on the packets and phials are usually destroyed so that the name of the manufacturing firm may not be found out. In 1922-23 The largest seizure of cocaine made by the Excise Department in the Bombay Presidency was one of 10,500 grains while in 1923-24, a seizure of 24,000 grains was effected. In October 1924 the Excise Department made a seizure of 46,500 grains in a single case.

Price.—The amount seized is either given to Hospitals in India or destroyed. It is no longer possible to buy cocaine from any betel nut seller as it was ten years ago, but scores of cases in the Police Courts show that the retail trade thrives, though to a diminished extent, in Bombay. High profits ensure the continuance of the trade. At present the English quotation varies from 21 to 22 shillings per ounce and the price as quoted by licensed chemists in India varies from Rs. 23 to Rs. 30 per ounce. Since the trade with Austria and Germany has revived, the wholesale illicit dealers have put down their prices for wholesale transactions to from Rs. 50 to Rs. 60 per ounce. The retail price of sale by grains varies from Rs. 120 to Rs. 150 per ounce. These profits are further enhanced by adulteration with phenacetin and inferior quinine.

The above prices are for Bombay. They are much higher up-country.

The law in regard to Cocaine.—This varies in different provinces. A summary of the law in Bombay is as follows. No cocaine can be imported except by a licensed dealer and importation by means of the post is entirely prohibited. The sale, possession, transport and export of cocaine are prohibited except under a license or permit from the Collector of the District. A duly qualified and Licensed Medical practitioner is allowed to transport or remove 20 grains in the exercise of his profession, and as far as 6 grains may be possessed by any person if covered by a *bona fide* prescription from a duly qualified Medical practitioner. The maximum punishment for illegal sale, possession, transport, etc., under Act V of 1878 as amended by Act XII of 1912 is as follows: Imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year or fine which may extend to Rs. 2,000 or both and on any subsequent conviction imprisonment for a term which may extend to 2 years or fine which may extend to Rs. 4,000 or both. The law in Bombay has been further amended so as to enable security to be taken from persons who have been convicted of cocaine offences. The new Act also contains a section for the punishment of house owners who let their houses to habitual cocaine sellers.

The Opium Trade.

Two descriptions of opium must be distinguished—*Bengal* opium which is manufactured from poppy grown in the United Provinces, and *Malwa* opium which is almost entirely produced in certain Native States in Central India and Rajputana.

Bengal Opium—Cultivation of poppy is only permitted under license. The cultivator to whom advances are made by Government free of interest is required to sell the whole of his production to the Opium Factory at Ghazipur at a rate fixed by Government, now Rs 7/8 per seer of 70° consistency. The area licensed for cultivation has in recent years been much reduced as a consequence of the agreement between the Government of India and the Chinese Government, and is now restricted to the United Provinces. The following are the figures of the area under cultivation and of production in 1917-18. Bighas cultivated, 331 216. Gross produce in Maunds, 32,321. Number of chests manufactured, 25 146. At the Factory two classes of opium are manufactured.

(1) **Provision** opium intended for export to foreign countries. This opium is made up in balls or cakes, each weighing 3 5 lbs., 70 cakes weighing 140½ lbs being packed in a chest.

(2) **"Excise"** opium intended for consumption in British India. This is made up in cubic packets, each weighing one seer, 60 packets being packed in one chest. It is of higher consistency than "provision" opium.

"Provision" opium is sold by public auction in Calcutta, the quantity to be sold being fixed by Government. This quantity has been reduced in recent years in accordance with the agreement with China, the figures being 15,440 chests in 1911 and 6,700 chests in 1912. Exports to China have been stopped altogether since 1913.

Malwa Opium—The poppy from which Malwa opium is manufactured is grown chiefly in the Native States of Indore, Gwalior, Bhopal, Jaora, Dhar, Ratlam, Mowar and Kotah. The British Government has no concern with the cultivation of the poppy, or the manufacture of the opium but it used to regulate, before exports to China were stopped, the import of Malwa opium into, and the transport through, its territories. As the chief market for Malwa opium was China, and as the States in which the drug is produced had no access to the sea, except through British territory, the British Government were able to impose a duty on the importation of the drug on its way to Bombay for exportation by sea.

No statistics of cultivation or production are available. The poppy is sown in November, the plants flower in February, and by the end of March the whole of the opium has been collected by the cultivators who sell the raw opium to the village bankers. It is then bought up by the large dealers who make it up into balls of about twelve ounces and store it until it is ready for export, usually in September or October. The opium is of 90° to 95° consistency and is packed in half chests. con-

siderable dryage took place in the case of new opium while transported to Bombay.

Sales of Malwa opium for export to China have ceased since January 1913 and the trade has become extinct since 17th December of that year when the last shipment was made. Practically the whole of the Malwa opium exported from Bombay went to China. There is no market for it in the Straits Settlements. A few chests annually are shipped to Zanzibar.

Revenue—The revenue derived by the Government of India from opium in recent years is as follows—

	£
1915-16	1,913,514
1916-17	3,160,005
1917-18	3,078,903
1918-19	3,229,000
1919-20	2,082,000
	Rs
1920-21	3,72,85,000
1921-22	8,03,24,000
1922-23	3,98,68,000
1923-24	4,30,64,000
1924-25 (Budget estimate)	4,33,90,000

Agreement with China—The fluctuations in the revenue derived from opium are directly attributable to the trade conditions arising out of the limitation of opium exports. In 1907 being satisfied of the genuineness of the efforts of the Chinese Government to suppress the habit of consuming opium in China, the Government of India agreed to co-operate by gradually restricting the amount of opium exported from India to China. In 1908 an arrangement was concluded by which the total quantity of opium exported from India was to be reduced annually by 5,100 chests from an assumed standard of 87,000 chests. Under a further agreement, signed in May 1911, the cessation of the trade was to be accelerated on evidence being shown of the suppression of the native production of opium in China, and in accordance with this agreement a further limitation was placed on exports to Chinese ports. The reduction of exports led to an increase in the price of the drug in China and a corresponding rise in the price obtained in India at the auction sales. For some considerable time, however, in 1912 the trade in China was paralysed by the imposition by Provincial Governments in defiance of instructions from the Central Government of restrictions on the importation and sale of Indian opium. Stocks accumulated rapidly at Shanghai and Hongkong and the position in December 1912 had become so acute that a strong and influential demand was made on the Government of India to relieve the situation by the suspension of sales. Sales were accordingly postponed both of Bengal and Malwa opium and in order to afford the Malwa trade the most complete relief, the Government of India undertook to purchase for its own use 11,253 chests of Malwa opium which remained to be exported in 1913. The present position is that the export trade to China has ceased since 1913.

GLASS AND GLASSWARE.

The total value of the glass and glassware imported into India in 1922-23 amounted to Rs 260 lakhs compared with Rs 222 lakhs in the previous year. The imports of glassware in India are showing an upward tendency, they being in 1918-14 over Rs 190 lakhs in value, i.e., over the quinquennial average of Rs 161 lakhs. Austria Hungary and Germany before the outbreak of the war exported bangles, beads, bottles, funnels, chipmunks and globes, etc., to the value of Rs 116 lakhs in 1918-14. The value of average imports from the enemy countries during the five pre-war years was Rs 93 lakhs or about 67% of the trade. With their disappearance from the Indian market, imports from Japan increased to 71% from 8%, the pre-war average. United Kingdom increased her shipments of sheet and plate glass, which before 1914 came largely from Belgium. Japan, however, could not meet the Indian demand, and hence renewed and pioneer efforts were made in India to satisfy the needs of the Indian consumer. After the war imports from what was the Dual Monarchy quickly revived.

Manufacture of Glass in India.—Glass was manufactured in India in centuries before Christ and Pliny makes mention of "Indian Glass" as being of superior quality. As a result of recent archaeological explorations, a number of small crude glass vessels have been discovered indicative of the very primitive stage of the industry. But no further traces of ancient Indian Glass industry as such survive, yet, it is certain that by the sixteenth century it was an established industry producing mainly bangles and small bottles. The quality of the material was inferior and the articles turned out were rough. Beyond this stage the industry had not progressed until the nineteenth century. Manufacture of glass in India on modern European lines dates from the nineteenth of the last century, when some pioneer efforts were made in this line. Since then a number of concerns have been started, a number of them have failed, while some are still clinging to life owing to war conditions. They mainly devote themselves to the manufacture of bangles and lampware side by side with bottle-making on a small scale. This, therefore, is the criterion which determines the two well-defined classes of the industry in its present stage, (1) Indigenous Cottage Industry and (2) the modern Factory Industry.

(1) The Indigenous Cottage Industry which is represented in all parts of the country, but has its chief centres in Ferozabad District of U.P. and Belgaum District, in the South, is mainly concerned with the manufacture of cheap bangles made from "glass cakes or blocks" made in larger factories. The industry is at present in a flourishing state and supplies nearly one-third of the Indian demand for bangles. The quality has been improved by the discovery of new glazing processes and for the present

the turnover in this line has gone up to 20 lakhs of rupees a year. But these bangles have now to face a very hard competition from Japan whose "alky" bangles are ousting the old type Indian ones.

(2) The modern Factory type of organisation of this industry is just in its infancy at present. The existing factories either stop at producing glass cakes for bangles as in Ferozabad or simple kind of lampwares and bottles. With the existing state of knowledge and machinery in India they can neither produce sheet and plate glass, nor do they pretend to manufacture laboratory or table glass. Artistic glassware is out of the question and the private capitalists who have to run their concerns mostly with commercial ends do not think it worth their while to spend money and labour on it. War caused a great decrease in volume—though not so much in value which was much increased—of the imports of the lampware, etc., and in order to meet the Indian demand for them, new factories were started and old revived, which produced only cheap and simple kind of lampware and bottles on small scale. The total production of these Indian Glass Works has not been exactly estimated, but it is generally supposed that they were able to meet in these war years nearly half the Indian demand for this kind of glassware. There are at present 14 factories engaged in the production of lampware, of which two or three only produce bottles and carboys also. The chief centres for the former kind are Bombay, Jabalpur, Allahabad, and Bilhori and Ambala, while bottles are only manufactured at Naini and Lahore, and recently at Calcutta.

During the latter years of the war period, a number of Glass Works were opened in the Bombay Presidency and adjoining districts, local manufacture having been stimulated by the cessation of imports of German, Austrian and Belgian glass.

Causes of failure.—Records of the earlier ventures have shown that the failures in some cases were due in part at least to preventable causes, prominent among which were (1) Lack of enlightened management. (2) Lack of proper commercial basis, as in some cases the proprietors had a number of other more larger concerns to look to. (3) Bad selection of site. An ideal site for a Glass Factory would be determined by the (a) nearness of quartz and fire-clay, (b) nearness of fuel, and (c) by the nearness of market. At least two must be present. In some concerns, two were absent. (4) Specialisation was lacking, some factories in their initial stages trying to manufacture three or four different kinds of glassware simultaneously like lampware, bottles, and bangles, etc. (5) Paucity of sufficient fluid capital for initial expenses for machinery or other improvements or even in some cases for running the concern in the beginning.

But beyond these there are certain real and special causes that contributed to the failure of

some of these and hinder the progress of the rest. Chief among them are (1) The Industry is in its infant stage and hence such failures are but incidental (2) No expert guidance in this line; there is a lack of men and good literature (3) Paucity of skilled labour of higher type. The present Indian workmen in this line and blowers are few in number and illiterate. They, therefore, master the situation and are unamenable to management. (4) Heavy cost of good fuel, the works usually being situated where good sand and quartz can be obtained, and consequently, in most cases, at a great distance from the coal-fields (5) To a certain extent competition from Japan and other European countries

Alkali used is almost entirely of English manufacture being Carbonate of Soda 98.99% in a powdered form. This Alkali has almost completely taken place of the various Alkaline Earths formerly employed by the Glass Bangle manufacturers as the latter cannot be used in the manufacture of glass which is to compete

with the imported article. These points must be carefully noted for future guidance.

The Industry developed considerably under war conditions, but in peace times, in this transition stage, immediate efforts must be made in the direction of what the Indian Industrial Commission say in their Report (Appendix E) viz "The Glass Industry, even in its simplest form is highly technical and can be efficiently carried on only by scientifically trained managers and expert workmen. The present stage has been reached by importing men, only partially equipped with the necessary qualifications, from Europe and Japan, and by sending Indian students abroad to pick up what knowledge they can. The glass industry is a closed trade and its secrets are carefully guarded, so that the latter method has not proved conspicuously successful."

Bibliography—Indian Industries Commission Report (Appendix), Indian Munitions Board, Industrial Handbook, etc. "Notes on Glass Manufacture" By C B Fox. (Bulletin No 29 of Indian Industries and Labour 1922.)

WILD BIRDS' PLUMAGE

The Bill for prohibiting the importation into England of wild birds' plumage, which was introduced into Parliament in 1913, was the occasion of a fierce controversy on the nature of the plumage traffic. Organised opposition to the Bill, although successful in preventing it from becoming law, failed to convince the public that the plumage trade was not one of great cruelty. The controversy continued with unabated vigour until May 1921, when an agreement was arrived at between the two parties. The most important clause in the agreement stipulates that within four months of the Bill becoming law an Advisory Committee shall be appointed by the Board of Trade. This Committee will consist of an independent chairman, two expert ornithologists, three representatives of the feather trade, and four other independent members. The function of this Committee will be to advise the Board of Trade as to additions to and removals from the existing schedule (ostrich and elder duck) of birds whose plumage may be imported. The passing of the Plumage Bill will thus place England abreast of the United States and of her own daughter Dominions in the suppression of a barbarous industry, as all legitimate methods of breeding birds for their plumage will be safeguarded as definite exceptions under the Plumage Bill.

Plumage birds.—The birds most killed on account of their plumage in India are paddy birds, egrets, kingfishers, bestards, junglefowl, pheasants, parakeets, peafowl, hoopoes and rollers. Egrets and rollers (popularly known as Blue Jays) are perhaps the birds which have been most extensively killed in the past, and of these, egrets have attracted the greatest attention. There are three species met with in India the Large, Smaller and Little Egrets. All three are pure white slim birds which develop during the breeding season a dorsal train of feathers, which elongates and becomes "decomposed" as it is expressed, that is to say, the bars are separate and distinct from each other,

thus forming the ornamental plume or aigrette for which these birds are much sought after and ruthlessly destroyed. Thirty years ago the exports were valued at over six lakhs in one year, but since 1895 the export trade has steadily diminished. But, though legitimate exports have been stopped, the trade is so lucrative as to lead to many attempts at smuggling. Within a recent period of 12 months the Bombay Preventive Department, for example, seized egret plumes worth Rs 2,19,047 in India and Rs44,000 in London. The rupee value represents the sum which the exporters paid to those who took the feathers from the birds, so the loss to the trade was considerable. In addition, penalties varying from Rs 5,000 to Rs 10,000 each and amounting altogether to Rs 59,175 were inflicted on the ten merchants concerned in attempting to export the feathers. A case was reported from Rangoon in 1910 of a man being found in possession of 22 lbs of egret feathers valued at Rs 66,000. Although frequently denied, there seems very little reason to doubt, that within the last decade egrets have been successfully bred in captivity by the fisherfolk in the province of Sind. But whether such birds can be bred without cruelty, and if so whether the export of their plumage could be legalised without encouraging barbaries in other areas of the peninsula, is a question which can only be decided as a result of a searching and exhaustive inquiry.

Legislation.—Indian legislation on the subject will be studied with interest by those who have followed the course of legislation on this subject in other countries. Until 1887 no legislation was considered necessary in India. An Act of that year enabled local governments and municipal and cantonment authorities to make rules prohibiting under penalties the sale or possession of wild birds recently killed or taken during their breeding seasons, and the importation into any municipal or cantonment area of the plumage of any wild birds during

those seasons, and local governments were empowered to apply these provisions to animals other than birds.

Afterwards, in 1902, action was taken under the Sea Customs Act to prohibit the exportation of the skins and feathers of birds, except feathers of ostriches and skins and feathers exported *bona fide* as specimens illustrative of natural history. Act VIII of 1912 goes much further than the previous law. It schedules a list of wild birds and animals to which the Act is to apply in the first instance, enables local governments to extend this list, empowers local governments to establish "close times," presumably during the breeding seasons, in the whole of their territories or in specified areas, for wild birds and animals to which the Act applies, and imposes penalties for the capture, sale, and purchase of birds and animals in contravention

of the "close time" regulations, and for the sale, purchase and possession of plumage taken from birds during the close time. There is power to grant exemptions in the interests of scientific research, and there are savings for the capture or killing by any person of a wild animal in defence of himself or of any other person, and for the capture or killing of any wild bird or animal in *bona fide* defence of property.

One defect in the law may be noticed. When an exporter is discovered, the Customs Department can on a magistrate's warrant have his house searched and seize the feathers found there to produce as evidence that he is engaged in the trade. But they have to return the feathers and can only take possession of them if they are discovered presently in course of export.

HIDES, SKINS AND LEATHER

India's local manufactures of skins and leather have steadily increased in recent years. Previous to the outbreak of war, the trade in raw hides in this country was good, there was a large demand for hides, and prices were high. While in the continental markets stocks were high owing to overtrading in the previous year, the United States had a shortage which was estimated at approximately two million pieces. On the declaration of war, the trade which had up till then been brisk was seriously dislocated. Exports to enemy countries, especially to the great emporium of Indian hides, Hamburg, were stopped, and exporters had to find new markets for the raw material. The raw hide business of India, it is well known, has hitherto been largely, if not quite entirely, in the hands of German firms or firms of German origin. Germany has had the largest share of India's raw hides. In the four months before the outbreak of war she took 39 per cent of the total exports. In 1912-13 she took 32 per cent and in 1913-14, 35 per cent. Raw hides were exported to Trieste in considerable quantities whence they were taken to Germany or Austria. In the four months before the outbreak of war 15 per cent of India's exports passed through Trieste, in 1913-14 the percentage was 21.

Exports.—The exports in raw and tanned hides and skins in 1923-24 amounted in value to Rs. lakhs 12.98 compared with 10.76 lakhs in the previous year. About 40 per cent of the exports went to the U. K., 24 per cent to the U. S. A., and 11 per cent to Germany.

Conditions of the Trade.—The trade in hides and skins and the craft in leather manufacture are in the hands either of Mahomedans or of low caste Hindus, and

are on that account participated in by a comparatively small community. The traffic is subject to considerable fluctuations concomitant with the vicissitudes of the seasons. In famine years for instance the exports of untanned hides rise to an abnormal figure. The traffic is also peculiarly affected by the difficulty of obtaining capital and by the religious objection which assigns it to a position of degradation and neglect. It has thus become a monopoly within a restricted community and suffers from the loss of competition and popular interest and favour.

No large industry has changed more rapidly and completely than that of leather. By the chrome process, for example, superior leather may be produced from the strongest buffalo hides in seven days, from cowhide in twenty-four hours, and from sheep and goat skins in six to eight hours, and these operations formerly took thirty days or as much as eighteen months. Of these changes the native tanners of India were slow to take advantage, but in spite of general backwardness the leather produced by some of the tanneries, especially those under European management, is in certain respects equal to the best imported articles. But since the outbreak of war progress has been more rapid and considerable quantities of special forms of chrome leather, for which Indian hides are particularly suitable, have found a ready market in London.

Protecting the Industry.—The report of the Industrial Commission pointed out that the principal difficulty at present in the hides and leather industry was the lack of organization and expert skill. Government action to foster the industry was first taken in September 1919, when a Bill was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council further to amend the Indian

Tariff Act, 1894. The effect of this Bill was officially described as follows: "It is to impose an export duty of 15 per cent on hides and skins with a rebate of 10 per cent on hides and skins exported to other parts of the Empire, and there tanned. Its object is to ensure that our hides and skins shall be converted into fully tanned leather or articles of leather so far as possible in India and falling this in other parts of the Empire, instead of being exported in a raw state for manufacture in foreign countries." Sir George Barnes who was in charge of the Bill and described the tanning industry as one of the most promising Indian industries explained that "the present position is that we have in India at the present time some hundreds of tanneries for the tanning of hides, a large number of which have come into existence in order to satisfy military requirements during the war. We have in fact the foundations of a flourishing tanning industry, but there is reason to fear that it may tend to dwindle and disappear with the diminution of military requirements, if some other support is not given. We want to keep this industry alive, and we believe that in this case protection in the shape of a 15 per cent. export duty is justifiable and ought to be effective. It is clearly just also that the same measure of protection should be extended

to the tanners of skins whose business, as I have already stated, was injured by the necessities of the war. Though Indian tanneries have enormously increased in number during the past three years, they can only deal with a comparatively small proportion of the raw hides and skins which India produces, and it is to the advantage of India and the security of the Empire generally that this large surplus should, so far as possible, be tanned within the Empire, and with this end in view the Bill proposes a 10 per cent rebate in respect of hides and skins exported to any place within the Empire. I should add that it is proposed to limit by notification the benefit of this rebate to hides and skins actually tanned within the Empire and Indian hides and skins re-exported from an Empire port for the purpose of being tanned abroad will not be entitled to any rebate."

Indigenous methods.—India possesses a large selection of excellent tanning materials such as Acacia pods and bark, Indian sumach, the Tanners' cassia, Mangroves, and Myrabolans. By these and such like materials and by various methods and contrivances, hides and skins are extensively cured and tanned and the leather worked up in response to an immense, though purely local, demand.

TRADE MARKS.

The Indian Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) was passed in 1889, but its operation in the earlier years was restricted, especially in Calcutta, in consequence of the lack of adequate Customs machinery for the examination of goods. In 1894, with the introduction of the present tariff, the Customs staff was strengthened for the examination of goods for assessment to duty, and this increase enabled examination to be made at the same time for the purposes of the Merchandise Marks Act. The Act was intended originally to prevent the fraudulent sale of goods bearing false trade marks or false trade descriptions (as of origin, quality, weight, or quantity). While the Act was before the Legislature a provision was added to require that piece-goods should be stamped with their length in yards. In this respect these goods are an exception, for the Act does not require that other descriptions of goods should be stamped or marked, though it requires that when goods are marked the marks must be a correct description. The number of deten-

tions under the Act during the twenty years ending 1912-13 has been —

Average of the five years ending	
1897-98	1,3
1902-03	1,4
1907-08	1,1
1912-13	1,9

Detention is 'but' rarely followed by confiscation, and there have been only 109 such cases during the stated twenty years. Usual detained goods are released with a fine, and this procedure was followed in 19,282 cases of the 29,774 detentions ordered in the same period. In 10,364 cases the detained goods were released without the infliction of a fine. In this period of twenty years 42 per cent of the detentions were on account of the application of false trade marks or false trade descriptions. In 36 per cent. of the cases detention was ordered because the country of origin was either stated or was falsely stated and in 21 per cent because the provisions of the Act for the stamping of piece-goods had been infringed.

INVENTIONS AND DESIGNS

A handbook to the Patent Office in India, which is published by the Government Press, Calcutta, gives the various Acts, rules, and instructions bearing on the subject together with hints for the preparation of specifications and drawings, hints for searchers and other valuable information that has not hitherto been readily accessible to the general public in so convenient a form. In the preface Mr H. G. Graves, Controller of Patents and Designs explains the scope of the Patent laws in India and indicates wherein they differ from English law and procedure.

The foundation of patent legislation throughout the world lies in the English 'Statute of Monopolies' which was enacted in 1623, the 21st year of King James the First. In part this Act has been repealed, but the extant portion of the more important section 6 is as follows — "Provided also that any declaration before mentioned shall not extend to any letters patent and grants of privilege for the term of fourteen years or under, hereafter to be made of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm to the true and first inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making of such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law nor mischievous to the State by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient, the said fourteen years to be accomplished from the date of the first letters patent or grants of such privilege hereafter to be made, but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if this Act had never been made, and of none other."

The existing Indian patent law is contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911, supplemented by the Indian Patents and Designs (Temporary Rules) Act, 1915, and

by the Rules made under those Acts. The Patent Office does not deal with trade marks or with copyright generally in books, pictures, music and other matters which fall under the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914. There is in fact, no provision of law in British India for the registration of Trade Marks which are protected under the Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) which forms Chapter XVIII of the Indian Penal Code.

On the whole, Indian law and procedure closely follow that in the United Kingdom for the protection of inventions and the registration of designs, as they always have done in matters of major interest. One main difference exists, however, as owing to the absence of provision of law for the registration of trade marks India cannot become a party to the International Convention under which certain rights of priority are obtainable in other countries.

The first Indian Act for granting exclusive privileges to inventors was passed in 1856, after an agitation that had been carried on fitfully for some twenty years. Difficulties arising from an uncertainty as to the effect of the Royal Prerogative prevented earlier action and, owing to some informalities the Act itself was repealed in the following year. In 1855 it was re-enacted with modifications, and in 1872 the Patents and Designs Protection Act was passed. The Protection of Inventions Act of 1883, dealing with exhibitions, followed, and then the Inventions and Designs Act of 1888. All these are now replaced by the present Act of 1911.

The existing Acts extend to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Santhal Parganas. This of course includes Burma, but it does not embrace the Native States. Of the latter three, viz. (1) Hyderabad (Deccan), (2) Mysore, (3) Gwalior have ordinances of their own, for which particulars must

be obtained from the Government of the States in question as they are not administered by the Indian Patent Office in Calcutta. The object of the Act of 1911 was to provide a simpler, more direct, and more effective procedure in regard both to the grant of patent rights and to their subsequent existence and operation. The changes made in the law need not here be referred to in detail. They gave further protection both to the inventor, by providing that his application should be kept secret until acceptance, and to the public, by increasing the facilities for opposition at an effective period. At the same time a Controller of Patents and Designs was established, with power to dispose of many matters previously referred to the Governor-General in Council, and provision was made for the grant of a sealed "patent" instead of for the mere recognition of an "exclusive privilege." The provisions of the Act follow with the necessary modifications those of the British Inventions and Designs Act of 1907.

Printed Specification of applications for patents, which have been accepted (8 annas per copy), may be seen free of charge, together with other publications of the Patent Office at the following places —

AHMEDABAD	R C Technical Institute
ALLAHABAD	Public Library
BANGALORE	Indian Institute of Science
BARODA	Department of Commerce and Industry
BOMBAY	Record Office
"	Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Byculla.
	The Bombay Textile and Engineering Association, No 1A, Sussex Road, Parel
CALCUTTA	Patent Office, No 1, Council House Street
"	Bengal Engineering College, Bidpur
CANNSPORE	Office of the Director of Industries, United Provinces
CHINNSURAH	Office of the Commissioner, Burdwan Division
CHITTAGONG	Office of the Commissioner, Chittagong Division
DACCRA	Office of the District Board, Dacca
DELHI	Office of the Deputy Commissioner

HYDERABAD	Industries and Commerce Department of His Highness the Nizam's Government
KARACHI	Office of the City Deputy Collector
LAHORE	Punjab Public Library
LONDON	The Patent Office, 25, Southampton Buildings, W C
MADRAS	Record Office, Egmore
	College of Engineering
MYSORE	Office of the Secretary to Government, General and Revenue Department
NAGPUR	Victoria Technical Institute
POONA	College of Engineering
RANCHI	Office of the Director of Industries, Bihar & Orissa
RANGOON	Office of the Revenue Secretary Government of Burma
ROORKEE	Thomason College
SHOLAPUR	Office of the Collector

PUBLICATIONS on sale at the Patent Office —

	Price Rs a
Patent Office Handbook (Acts, Rules and Instructions)	1 0
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911	0 10
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911 (Urdu and Hindi)	each 0 2
The Indian Patents and Designs Rules, 1912	0 2
Weekly Notifications (Extract from the Gazette of India)	0 1
Annual Subscription with postage	3 0
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index, 1900—1908, and Chronological Lists, 1900—1904)	2 8
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index, 1900—1911, and Chronological Lists, 1905—1911)	3 0
Patent Office Journal (issued quarterly)	each 0 8
Patent Office Journals, 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918, 1919, 1920	1 0
Printed Specifications of Inventions since 1912	0 3

ABSORPTION OF GOLD (both coin and bullion) IN INDIA. (In lakhs of Rupees)

	AVERAGE OF 5 YEARS ENDING									
	1883-84	1883-84	1893-94	1903-04	1908-09	1913-14	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
1 Production (b)										
2 Imports	4.28	3.41	71	2.01	8.40	3.36	3.39	2.44	2.73	8.08
3 Exports			4.12	5.48	10.85	32.79	9.88(a)	45.34(a)	23.57	13.82
4 Net imports (i.e., 2-3)	10	33	2.02	8.23	7.50	4.64	3.01(a)	3.08(a)	21.40	16.08
5 Net addition to stock (i.e., 1+4)	4.13	3.08	2.10	2.25	0.85	23.15	6.37(a)	4.26(a)	2.11	-2.86
6 Balance held in mint and Government Treasury and Currency and Gold Standard Reserve	4.13	3.08	2.81	4.26	12.75	31.51	10.26	44.70	4.84	22
7 Increase (+) or decrease (-) in stock held in mints, etc., as compared with the preceding year										
8 Net absorption (i.e., 5-7)					6.67	19.11	16.93	44.49	24.17	24.32
9 Progressive total of additions to stock	4.13	3.08	2.81	6.67	13.88	32.99	49.92	94.41	118.59	142.91
10 Net progressive absorption	15.24	35.17	61.74	61.80	1,03.19	1,56.81	3,72.61	4,38.89	4,48.78	4,43.95
	15.24	35.17	61.74	61.19	88.31	1,59.94	3,55.68	3,94.41	4,19.57	4,53.32

Note.—The quinquennial average figures are inserted only for comparative purposes. The progressive total of additions to stock (item 9) and net progressive absorption (item 10) are calculated on the annual figures and are not based on these averages. Item 9 is the sum of the yearly figures in item 5 and item 10 the sum of the yearly figures in item 8.

(a) Excludes gold imported and exported on behalf of the Bank of England.

(b) Figures are for calendar year ending 31st December.

Customs Tariff.

General import duties are levied for fiscal purposes and not for the protection of Indian industries. But the tariff has been modified with a view to admitting free or at favourable rates articles, the cheap import of which was considered necessary in the interests of the country. Thus certain raw materials, manures, agricultural implements and dairy appliances are admitted free. Machinery, printing materials, etc. are assessed at 2½ per cent and iron and steel railway material and ships at 10 per cent. High duties are imposed on tobacco liquors and matches.

Re-Imports—Articles of foreign production on which import duty has been once paid, if subsequently exported, are on re-import exempted from duty on the following conditions—

The Collector of Customs must be satisfied—

- (1) of the identity of the articles,
- (2) that no drawback of duty was paid on their export,
- (3) that the ownership has not changed between the time of re-export and subsequent re-import,
- (4) that they are private personal property re-imported for personal use, not merchandise for sale,
- (5) that not more than three years have passed since they were re-exported.

Duty is, however, charged on the cost of repairs done to the articles while abroad which should be declared by the person re-importing the articles in a form which will be supplied to him at the time of re-importation.

To facilitate identification on re-importation an export certificate giving the necessary particulars should be obtained from the Customs Department at the time of shipment of the articles which should be tendered for examination.

This concession of free entry on re-importation is not extended for the benefit of Companies or Corporate Bodies.

Drawbacks—When any goods, capable of being easily identified which have been imported by sea into any Customs port from any foreign port, and upon which duties of Customs have been paid on importation, are re-exported by sea from such Customs port to any foreign port, or as provisions or stores for use on board a ship proceeding to a foreign port, seven-eighths of such duties shall, except as otherwise hereinafter provided, be repaid as drawback.

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Customs Collector at such Customs port and that the re-export be made within two years from the date of importation, as shown by the records of the Customs House, or within such extended

term as the Chief Customs Authority, or Chief Customs Officer on sufficient cause being shown, in any case determines, provided further that the Chief Customs Officer shall not extend the term to a period exceeding 3 years.

When any goods, having been charged with Import duty at one Customs port and thence exported to another are re-exported by sea as aforesaid drawback shall be allowed on such goods as if they had been so re-exported from the former port.

Provided that in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Officer in Charge of the Customs House at the port of final exportation and that such final exportation be made within three years from the date on which they were first imported into British India.

No drawback shall be allowed unless the claim to receive such drawback be made and established at the time of re-export.

No such payment of drawback shall be made until the vessel carrying the goods has put out to sea or unless payment be demanded within six months from the date of entry for shipment.

Every person, or his duly authorised agent, claiming drawback on any goods duly exported, shall make and subscribe a declaration that such goods have been actually exported, and have not been re-landed and are not intended to be re-landed at any Customs port and that such person was at the time of entry outwards and shipment, and continues to be, entitled to drawback thereon.

Merchandise Marks—Importers into India especially from countries other than the United Kingdom, would do well to make themselves acquainted with the law and regulations relating to merchandise marks. In Appendix II will be found the principal provisions of the Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889 and connected Acts and the notifications issued thereunder. The following summary of the regulations in force does not claim to be exhaustive. For those seeking more complete information a reference is suggested to the Merchandise Marks Manual which is published under the authority of the Government of India and obtainable of all agents for the sale of Indian Government publications.

Infringements or offences may be classified conveniently under four heads—

- 1 Counterfeit trade marks,
- 2 Trade descriptions that are false in respect of the country of origin,
- 3 Trade descriptions that are false in other respects, and
- 4 Lengths not properly stamped on piece-goods.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff).

Note — In the expression "ad valorem" used in this schedule the reference is to value as defined in section 30 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878 (VIII of 1878)

No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
I—Food, Drink and Tobacco				
FISH.				
1	FISH SALTED, wet or dry .	Indian maund of 82½ lbs avoirdupois weight		Such rate rates of 3 not exceeding 3 rupees as Govern General Council may by notification in the <i>Gazette India</i> , from time to time prescribe
2	FISH, excluding salted fish		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
3	FISHBONE, including ungaily and scallie, and sharkfins		"	15 " "
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES				
4	FRUITS AND VEGETABLES, all sorts, fresh, dried, salted or preserved—		Rs. as	
	Almonds without shell	cwt	65 0	15 per cent
	" in the shell Persian	"	15 0	15 " "
	" kagari Persian in the shell	"	90 0	15 " "
	" All other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Cashew or cajoo kernels	"	22 0	15 " "
	Cocoanuts, Straits and Dutch East Indies and Siam	thousand	120 0	15 " "
	" Maldives	"	24 0	15 " "
	" other	"	55 0	15 " "
	" kernel (khopra)	cwt	21 0	15 " "
	Currants	"	30 0	15 " "
	Dates, dry, in bags	"	10 0	15 " "
	" wet in bags, baskets and bundles	"	6 0	15 " "
	" " in pots, boxes, tins and crates	"	12 0	15 " "
	Figs dried Persian	"	15 0	15 " "
	" European	"	21 0	15 " "
	Garlic	"	8 0	15 " "
	Pistachio nuts	"	90 0	15 " "
	Raisins, Munakka, Persian Gulf	"	15 0	15 " "
	" other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	All other sorts of fruits and vegetables, fresh, dried, salted or preserved	"	"	15 " "
GRAIN, PULSE AND FLOUR				
5	FLOUR		"	15 " "
6	GRAIN AND PULSE, all sorts, including broken grain and pulse, but excluding flour (see No 5)		"	2½ " "

* The rate on 1st January 1925 and until further notice is annas 7½

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd				
LIQUORS				Rs a. p.
7	ALE, Beer, and Porter, Cider and other fermented liquors	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles		0 8 0 .
8	Denatured Spirit		Ad valorem	7½ per cent
9	LIQUORS, Cordials, Mixtures and other preparations containing spirit—			
	(a) Entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles		80 0 0 or 15 per cent Ad valorem, whichever is higher
	(b) If tested	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof		21 14 0 and the duty to be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength of the spirit exceeds or is less than London proof or 15 per cent. Ad valorem, whichever is higher
16	PERFUMED SPIRITS	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles		36 0 0 or 15 per cent Ad valorem, whichever is higher
11	All other sorts of SPIRIT .	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof		21 14 0 and the duty to be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength of the spirit exceeds or is less than London proof or 15 per cent. Ad valorem, whichever is higher

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	I—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd		Rs a	Rs a p
	LIQUOES—contd			
12	WINE— Champagne and all other sparkling wines not containing more than 42 per cent of proof spirit All other sorts of wines not containing more than 42 per cent of proof spirit Provided that all sparkling and still wines containing more than 42 per cent of proof spirit shall be liable to duty at the rate applicable to "All other sorts of Spirit"	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles "		9 0 0 4 8 0
	PROVISIONS AND OILMAN'S STORES			
13	PROVISIONS, OILMAN'S STORES AND GROCERIES all sorts, excluding vinegar in casks (see No 14)—			
	Butter	lb	1 14	15 per cent
	Cassava Tapioca or Sago whole	cwt	17 0	15 " "
	" " flour		13 0	15 " "
	China preserves in syrup	Box of 6 large or 12 small jars	9 0	15 " "
	" " dry, candied	lb	0 8	15 " "
	China canned fruit	case of 4 dozen	16 0	15 " "
	Cocum . .	cwt	7 0	15 " "
	Ghl	"	60 0	15 " "
	Vermicelli flour Chinese	"	27 0	15 " "
	" Peas "	"	31 0	15 " "
	" Rice "	"	14 0	15 " "
	Yeast Chinese	cwt	21 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of provisions oilman's stores and groceries		Ad valorem	15 "
14	VINEGAR, in casks		" "	2½ "
	SACCHARINE			
15	Saccharine (except in tablets)	lb		Rs a p 20 0 0
16	Saccharine Tablets		Ad valorem	25 per cent or Rs 20 per pound of saccharine contents whichever is higher
	SPICES			
17	SPICES, all sorts— Betelnuts, raw, whole, split, or sliced, also red whole from Goa " " boiled, split or sliced " " Straits	cwt " "	18 0 16 0 25 0	15 per cent 15 " 15 " "

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No	Name of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	I—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd			
	SPICES—contd		Rs a	
	Betelnuts, whole, from Ceylon	cwt	15 0	15 per cent.
	" raw split (sun dried), from Ceylon	"	27 0	15 " "
	" all other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Chillies, dry	cwt	25 0	15 " "
	Cloves	"	65 0	15 " "
	" exhausted	"	16 0	15 " "
	" stems and heads	"	9 0	15 " "
	" in seeds nariavang	"	20 0	15 " "
	Ginger, dry	"	40 0	15 " "
	Mace	lb	1 6	15 " "
	Nutmegs	"	0 8	15 " "
	" in shell	"	0 6	15 " "
	Pepper, black	cwt	25 0	15 " "
	" long	"	45 0	15 " "
	" white	"	50 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of spices	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	SUGAR			
18	CONFECTIONERY			30 ,
19	SUGAR all sorts, including Molasses, but excluding confectionery (see No 18)—			
	Sugar, crystallised and soft not inferior to 8 Dutch standard—			
	From Java 23 Dutch standard and above	cwt	17 8	21 " ,
	" " 16 to 22 Dutch standard	"	15 8	25 " "
	" " 15 Dutch standard and under	"	15 0	25 " "
	" Japan or Formosa	"	19	25 " "
	Refined in China including Hong Kong	"	19 8	25 " "
	From Egypt	"	18 8	25 " "
	" Mauritius	"	16 0	25 " "
	Cane, from other countries	"	16 0	25 " "
	Sugar, crystallised, beet	"	17 8	25 " "
	Molasses	"	3 0	25 " "
	Sugar-candy	"	25 0	25 " "
	Sugar, all other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 " "
	TEA			
20	TEA—			
	Tea, black	lb	0 12	15 " "
	" green	"	1 0	15 " "

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.				
OTHER FOOD AND DRINK			Rs a	
21	COFFEE	cwt	40 0	15 per cent
22	HOPS			Free
23	SALT, excluding Salt exempted under No 24	Indian maund of 82½ lbs a voirdupois weight		The rate at which excise duty is for the time be- ing leviable on salt manu- factured in the place where the import takes place.* Free
24	SALT imported into British India and issued in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council for use in any process of manufacture also salt imported into the port of Calcutta and issued with the sanction of the Government of Bengal to manufacturers of glazed stoneware also salt imported into any port in the provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa and issued in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council for use in curing fish in those provinces			Free
25	ALL OTHER SORTS OF FOOD AND DRINK not other wise specified		Ad valorem	15 per cent
TOBACCO				
26	CIGARS AND CIGARETTES			75 " "
27	TOBACCO unmanufactured	lb		Rs a p 1 0 0
28	All other sorts of TOBACCO manufactured	"		2 4 0
II.—Raw Materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured				
COAL, COKE AND PATENT FUEL				
29	COAL COKE AND PATENT FUEL	Ton		0 8 0
GUMS, RESINS AND LAC				
30	GUMS RESINS AND LAC all sorts—			
	Gambier, block	cwt	27 0	15 per cent
	" Cube	"	27 0	15 " "
	" In flakes or circular pieces	"	45 0	15 " "
	" Other Sorts	"	Ad valorem	15 " "
	Gum Ammoniac	cwt	35 0	15 " "
	" Arabic	"	25 0	15 " "
	" Benjamin res	"	25 0	15 " "

* The rate of excise duty on 1st January 1925 and until further notice is Rs. 1-4-0.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff valuation	Duty
	II—Raw Materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd		Rs a	
	GUMS, RESINS AND LAC, all sorts—contd			
	Gum Benjamin, cowrie	cwt	55 0	15 per cent
	„ Bysabol (coarse myrrh)	„	42 0	15 „ „
	„ Olibanum or frankincense	„	15 0	15 „ „
	„ Persian (false)	„	14 0	15 „ „
	Myrrh	„	42 0	15 „ „
	Rosin	„	13 0	15 „ „
	All other sorts of gums, gum resins, and articles made of gum or gum resin		Ad valorem	15 „ „
	HIDES AND SKINS RAW			
31	HIDES AND SKINS, raw or salted			Free
	METALLIC ORES, AND SCRAP IRON OR STEEL FOR RE-MANUFACTURE			
32	IRON OR STEEL, old	cwt	2 0	10 per cent
33	METALLIC ORES all sorts, except Ochres and other pigment Ores			Free.
	OILS			Rs. a p
34	KEROSENE and MOTOR SPIRIT also any mineral oil other than kerosene and motor spirit which has its flashing point below one hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer by Abel's close test *	Imperial gallon		0 2 6
35	MINERAL OIL which has its flashing point at or above two hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer and is such as is not ordinarily used for any other purpose than for the batching of jute or other fibre, or for lubrication— Batching oil Other sorts	ton	125 0 Ad valorem	7½ per cent 7½ „ „
36	Mineral oil which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purpose— (i) Imported in bulk (ii) Otherwise imported	ton	65 0 Ad valorem	7½ „ „ 7½ „ „
37	All sorts of animal, essential, mineral, and vegetable non essential OILS not otherwise specified (see Nos 34, 35 and 36) — Castor oil Citronella oil Cocconut oil Kajiputti oil Linseed oil raw or boiled Peppermint oil All other sorts of oil	lb „ cwt lb gallon lb „	2 4 2 8 30 0 2 4 3 12 7 0 Ad valorem	15 per cent 15 „ „ 15 „ „ 15 „ „ 15 „ „ 15 „ „ 15 „ „

* Motor spirit is liable to an additional duty of six annas per gallon under Act II of 1917 as amended by Act II of 1919

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd		Rs a	
	SEEDS			
38	OIL-SEEDS, imported into British India by sea from the territories of any Prince or Chief in India			Free
39	SEEDS, all sorts, excluding oil seeds specified in No 38		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	TALLOW, STEARINE AND WAX			
40	TALLOW AND STEARINE, including grease and animal fat, and WAX of all sorts, not otherwise specified —			
	Tallow	cwt	41 0	15 "
	Vegetable wax	"	58 0	15 "
	All other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	TEXTILE MATERIALS			
42	COTTON, raw			Free
43	TEXTILE MATERIALS, the following —			
	Silk waste and raw silk including cocoons—			
	Bokhara	lb	12 0	15 per cent
	Floss		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	Raw silk—Yellow Shanghai, including reeled	lb	7 8	15 "
	Yellow from Indo-China, and places in China other than Shanghai including reeled	"	8 8	15 "
	Mathew	"	5 8	15 "
	Panjam	"	5 0	15 "
	Persian	"	9 0	15 "
	Siam	"	6 0	15 "
	White Shanghai, Thonkoon or Dupplon	"	4 8	15 "
	" other kinds including reeled	"	8 8	15 "
	" other kinds of China, including reeled	"	9 8	15 "
	Waste and Kachra		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	All other sorts, including cocoons			15 "
	Coir fibre	cwt	8 0	15 "
	Raw hemp	"	35 0	15 "
	Raw Flax, Jute and all other unmanufactured textile materials not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
44	WOOL, raw, and WOOL TOPS			Free,
	WOOD AND TIMBER			
45	FIREWOOD		<i>Ad valorem</i>	2½ per cent
46	WOOD AND TIMBER, all sorts, not otherwise specified, including all sorts of ornamental wood		"	15 "

* There is no entry bearing Serial No 41

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
	II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd		Rs a	
	MISCELLANEOUS.			
47	CANES AND RATTANS	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
48	COWRIES AND SHELLS—			
	Cowries, basar, common	cwt	7 8	15 " "
	" yellow, superior quality	"	8 8	15 " "
	" Maldive	"	12 0	15 " "
	" Sankhli	"	140 0	15 " "
	Mother-of pearl, nacre	"	20 0	15 " "
	Nakhla	"	180 0	15 " "
	Tortoise-shell	lb	7 0	15 " "
	" nakh	"	2 4	15 " "
	All other sorts, including articles made of shell, not otherwise described		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
49	IVORY, unmanufactured—			
	Elephant's grinders	cwt	300 0	15 " "
	tasks (other than hollows, centres, and points), each exceeding 20 lb in weight, and hollows, centres, and points each weighing 10 lb and over	"	825 0	15 " "
	Elephants' tusks (other than hollows, centres and points), not less than 10 lb and not exceeding 20 lb each, and hollows, centres, and points each weighing less than 10 lb	"	700 0	15 " "
	Elephants' tusks, each less than 10 lb (other than hollows, centres, and points)	"	470 0	15 " "
	Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 4 lb	"	190 0	15 " "
	Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 3 lb and under 4 lb	"	160 0	15 " "
	Sea-cow or moye teeth, each less than 3 lb	"	100 0	15 " "
	All other sorts unmanufactured not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
50	MANURES, all sorts, including animal bones and the following chemical manures—Basic slag, nitrate of ammonia, nitrate of soda, muriate of potash, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of potash, kainit salts, nitrate of lime, calcium cyanamide, mineral phosphates and mineral superphosphates		.. .	Free
51	PRECIOUS STONES, UNSET AND IMPORTED CUT		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
52	PRECIOUS STONES, IMPORTED UNCUT AND UNSET		..	Free.
53	AND FRAGILE, UNSET		..	Free.
54	PULP OF WOOD, RAGS and other paper-making materials	.	..	Free.
55	ALL OTHER RAW MATERIALS, and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured, not otherwise specified *	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.

* Under Government of India Notification No. 4317, dated 2nd July 1921, and 235, dated the 9th June 1923 unmanufactured mica and Raw Rubber are exempt from payment of import duty.

Customs Tariff.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured.				
APPAREL.				
55	APPAREL, including drapery, boots and shoes, and military and other uniforms and accoutrements, but excluding uniforms and accoutrements exempted from duty (No 56) and gold and silver thread (Nos. 96 and 97) and articles made of silk (No 107)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
56	UNIFORMS AND ACCOUTREMENTS appertaining thereto, imported by a public servant for his personal use			Free
ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES				
57	Subject to the exemptions specified in No 60, ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES, that is to say,—			<i>Rs a</i>
	(1) Firearms other than pistols, including gas and air guns and rifles	Each		15 0
	(2) Barrels for the same, whether single or double	"		15 0
	(3) Pistols including automatic pistols and revolvers	"		15 0
	(4) Barrels for the same, whether single or double	"		15 0
	(5) Main springs and magazine springs for firearms, including gas, guns and rifles	"		5 0
	(6) Gun stocks and breech blocks	"		3 0
	(7) Revolver cylinders, for each cartridge they will carry	"		2 0
	(8) Actions (including skeleton and waster), breech bolts and their heads, cocking pieces, and locks (for muzzle loading arms)	"		1 0
	(9) Machines for making loading or closing cartridges for rifled arms		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent
	(10) Machines for capping cartridges for rifled arms		"	20 "
58	GUNPOWDER for cannons, rifles, guns, pistols and sporting purposes		"	30 " "
59	Subject to the exemptions specified in No 60 all ARTICLES, other than those specified in entry No 57, which are ARMS OR PARTS OF ARMS within the meaning of the Indian Arms Act, 1878 (excluding springs used for air guns which are dutiable as hardware, under No 75), all tools used for cleaning or putting together the same, all machines for making, loading, closing or capping cartridges for arms other than rifled arms and all other sorts of ammunition and military stores, and any articles which the Governor General in Council may by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> declare to be "ammunition" or "military stores" for the purposes of this Act			30 " "

or 50 per cent *ad valorem* whichever is higher

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>			
	ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—<i>contd</i>			
60	The following ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES — (a) Articles falling under the 5th, 6th, 8th 9th or 10th item of No 87 when they appertain to a firearm falling under the 1st or 3rd item and are fitted into the same case with such firearm (b) Arms forming part of the regular equipment of a commissioned or gazetted officer in His Majesty's Service entitled to wear diplomatic, military, naval Royal, Air Force or police uniform, (c) A revolver and an automatic pistol and ammunition for such revolver and pistol up to a maximum of 100 rounds per revolver or pistol (i) when accompanying a commissioned officer of His Majesty's regular forces or of the Indian Auxiliary Force or the Indian Territorial Force or a Gazetted Police Officer, or (ii) certified by the commandant of the corps to which such Officer belongs or in the case of an Officer not attached to any Corps by the Officer Commanding the Station or District in which such Officer is serving, or in the case of a Police Officer by an Inspector-General or Commissioner of Police, to be imported by the Officer for the purpose of his equipment, (d) Swords for presentation as Army or Volunteer Prizes (e) Arms ammunition and Military Stores imported with the sanction of the Government of India for the use of any portion of the Military Forces of a State in India which may be maintained and organised for Imperial Service, (f) Morris tubes and patent ammunition imported by Officers Commanding British and Indian Regiments or Volunteer Corps for the instruction of their men			Free
61	EXPLOSIVES, namely, blasting gunpowder, blasting gelatine, blasting dynamite, blasting roborite, blasting tonite and all other sorts, including detonators and blasting fuse		Ad valorem	15 per cent
	CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES			
62	ANTI PLAGUE SERUM			Free
63	COFFEES, green— (1) Imported in bulk (2) , otherwise	wt. "	Rs a 50 Ad valorem	24 per cent. 24 " "
	OPUM and its alkaloids, and their derivatives	Beer of 80 tolas	Rs a 1,24 0, 00 or 25 per cent Ad valorem whichever is less	

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd			Rs a	
	CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES—contd			
65	CINCHONA BARK and the alkaloids extracted therefrom including Quinine			Free
66	CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES all sorts not otherwise specified—			
	Alkali, Indian (saji khar)	cwt	8 8	15 per cent
	Alum (lump)	"	8 0	15 " "
	Ammonium chloride—			
	Marlate of Ammonia crystalline	"	28 0	15 " "
	Salammoniac, sublimed	"	30 0	15 " "
	Other sorts including compressed	"	32 0	15 " "
	Arsenic (China manall)	"	80 0	15 " "
	other sorts	"	Ad valorem	15 " "
	Bleaching Powder	cwt	11 0	12 " "
	Calcium chloride	"	5 8	15 " "
	Carbide of Calcium	"	20 0	15 " "
	Carbonate of Ammonia		38 0	15 " "
	Epsom salts (in bulk)		4 8	15 " "
	Magnesium chloride		4 12	15 " "
	Potassium bichromate		34 0	15 " "
	Peppermint crystals	lb	30 0	15 " "
	Silicate of Soda (in liquid form)	cwt	9 8	15 " "
	Soda ash including calcined natural soda and manufactured sesqui carbonates	"	6 8	15 " "
	Soda bicarbonate	"	9 0	15 " "
	Soda bichromate	"	20 8	15 " "
	Soda, caustic solid	"	12 8	15 " "
	flake	"	18 0	15 " "
	powdered	"	18 8	15 " "
	Soda Crystal in bulk	"	7 0	15 " "
	Sodium Sulphide	"	12 0	15 " "
	Sulphate of Copper	"	18 0	15 " "
	Troma or natural soda uncalcined	"	3 8	15 " "
	All other sorts of Chemical products and preparations not otherwise specified †		Ad valorem	15 " "
	Aloe-wood		" "	15 " "
	Anafoetida (hing)	cwt	100 0	15 " "
	coarse (hingra)	"	40 0	15 " "
	Atary, Persian		Ad valorem	15 " "
	Banjochan (bamboo camphor)	lb	0 8	15 " "
	Calumbe root	cwt	10 0	15 " "
	Camphor refined other than powder	lb	2 12	15 " "
	Camphor powder, from Japan	"	2 6	15 " "
	" " " China including Hongkong	"	2 0	15 " "
	Cassia Ligno	cwt	22 0	15 " "
	China root (shobchini) rough	"	20 0	15 " "
	" " scraped	"	35 0	15 " "
	Cubeba	"	135 0	15 " "
	Galangal, China	"	15 0	15 " "
	Sajep	"	250 0	15 " "
	Storax, liquid (rose meliss or salarax)	"	50 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of drugs, medicines and narcotics.		Ad valorem	15 " "

† Under Government of India Notification No 1796 dated 1st April 1922, 1830, dated 10th November 1923 and 2338, dated 9th June 1924 Urea, Carbo Limon and Sulphur are exempt from the payment of import duty

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd				
CONVEYANCES				
67	COAL-TUBS, tipping wagons and the like conveyances designed for use on light rail track, if adapted to be worked by manual or animal labour and if made mainly of iron or steel and component parts thereof made of iron or steel		<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 per cent
	TRAMCARS, motor-omnibuses, motor lorries, motor vans, passenger lifts, carriages, carts, jinrikshas, bathchairs, perambulators, trucks, wheel barrows, bicycles, tricycles, and all other sorts of conveyances not otherwise specified, and component parts and accessories thereof, except such parts and accessories of the motor vehicles above-mentioned as are also adapted for use as parts or accessories of motor cars, motor cycles or motor scooters (see No 68)		"	15 " " "
68	MOTOR-CARS, motor-cycles, motor-scooters, and articles adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof provided that such articles as are ordinarily also used for purposes other than as parts and accessories of motor-vehicles included in this item or in No 67 shall be dutiable at the rate of duty specified for such article		"	30 " "
CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS				
69	The following AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS, namely, winnowers, threshers, mowing and reaping machines, binding machines, elevators, seed-crushers, chaff-cutters, root-cutters, ensilage cutters, horse and bullock gears, ploughs, cultivators, scarifiers, harrows, clod crushers, seed-drills, hay tedders, and rakes, also agricultural tractors, also component parts of these implements or tractors, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the implements or tractors for which they are imported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture.*			Free
70	ARTICLES PLATED WITH GOLD AND SILVER	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent
71	CLOCKS AND WATCHES, and parts thereof		"	30 " "
72	CUTLERY, excluding plated cutlery (see No 69)		"	15 " "
73	The following DAIRY APPLIANCES, namely, cream separators, milk sterilising or pasteurising plant, milk aerating and cooling apparatus, Churns, butter dryers and butter workers, also component parts of these appliances provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the appliances for which they are imported and that they cannot ordinarily be used for other than dairy purposes			Free

* Under Government of India Notifications Nos 239, dated the 2nd February 1924 and 4257, dated the 15th September 1924, the following are also exempt from payment of import duty —

- (1) Spraying machines used for agricultural purposes, and component parts thereof which can readily be fitted into their proper places in the machines and cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture.
- (2) Galvanised latex spouts used on rubber plantations for treatment in various cases

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.				
OUTLETRY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS—contd.				
74	ELECTRICAL CONTROL GEAR AND TRANSMISSION GEAR, namely, switches, fuses and current breaking devices of all sorts and descriptions, designed for use in circuits of less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250 volts and regulators for use with motors designed to consume less than 187 watts, bare or insulated copper wires and cables any one core of which has a sectional area of less than one-eightieth part of a square inch and wires and cables of other metals of not more than equivalent conductivity, and line insulators, including also cleats, connectors, leading in tubes and the like, of types and sizes such as are ordinarily used in connection with the transmission of power for other than industrial purposes, and the fittings thereof		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
75	HARDWARE, IRONMONGERY AND TOOLS, all sorts not otherwise specified			
76	INSTRUMENTS, APPARATUS, AND APPLIANCES, imported by a passenger as part of his personal baggage and in actual use by him in the exercise of his profession or calling			Free.
77	MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS AND PARTS THEREOF		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent
78	TELEGRAPHIC INSTRUMENTS AND APPARATUS, and parts thereof, imported by or under the orders of a railway company		"	10 " "
79	WATER-LIFTS, SUGAR-MILLS, OIL-PRESSES, and parts thereof, when constructed so that they can be worked by manual or animal power	Free
80	All other sorts of IMPLEMENTS, INSTRUMENTS, APPARATUS AND APPLIANCES, and parts thereof, not otherwise specified *		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
DYES AND COLOURS				
81	DYING AND TANNING SUBSTANCES, all sorts, and PAINTS AND COLOURS and painters' materials, all sorts—		Rs a	
	Alizarine dye, dry, not exceeding 40 per cent.	1b	1 12	15 per cent
	" " " over 40 per cent. but not exceeding 50 per cent.	"	2 0	15 " "
	" " " over 50 per cent but not exceeding 60 per cent.	"	2 4	15 " "
	" " " over 60 per cent but not exceeding 70 per cent	"	2 8	15 " "

* Under Government of India Notification No. 245, dated the 19th May 1923, apparatus for wireless telegraph imported in accordance with the terms of the Notification of the Government of India in the Commerce Department No. 6061, dated the 22nd October 1921, is liable to duty at 3½ per cent. *ad valorem*.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>				
GLASSWARE AND BATHENWARE—<i>contd</i>			Rs a p	
<i>Japan—</i>				
	Beshtal, plain and fancy all colours, including vase	Dozen pairs	0 1 4	30 per cent.
	Bonerikada (golbala)	"	0 4 6	30 " "
<i>European—</i>				
	Common, including plain colours, painted and flowered—			
	Garnet and ruby excluding pasalai	"	0 11 6	30 " "
	All colours excepting garnet and ruby but including pasabdrang	"	0 4 6	30 " "
	Gift and fancy, all sizes, including Kerihira Chandlers, Salmadar, "K" flower and Momachi and including pressed and painted.	"	1 6 0	30 " "
	Pasalai and machine polished, thin, including pathi flower and fancy round rings.	"	0 11 0	30 " "
	Common mirror bangles including chasma and Rankdarbar	"	0 12 0	30 " "
	Pasalai	"	0 8 0	30 " "
	All other kinds		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 " "
HIDES, SKINS AND LEATHER				
86	HIDES AND SKINS not otherwise specified, LEATHER AND LEATHER MANUFACTURES all sorts, not otherwise specified		" "	15 " "
MACHINERY				
87	MACHINERY, namely, such of the following articles as are not specified in any of the following numbers, namely, Nos 67, 68, 69, 73, 74, 89, 108, 114, 127, 132, and 184—		" "	2½ " "
	(1) prime-movers, boilers, locomotive engines and tenders for the same, portable engines (including power-driven road rollers, fire engines and tractors,) and other machines in which the prime-mover is not separable from the operative parts,			
	(2) machines and sets of machines to be worked by electric, steam, water, fire or other power, not being manual or animal labour, or which before being brought into use require to be fixed with reference to other moving parts,			
	(3) apparatus and appliances, not to be operated by manual or animal labour, which are designed for use in an industrial system as parts indispensable for its operation and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose,			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

No.	Name of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd		Rs. a.	
	MACHINERY—contd.			
	(4) control gear, self-acting or otherwise and transmission gear designed for use with any machinery above specified including belting of all materials and driving chains but not driving ropes,			
	(5) bare hard-drawn electrolytic copper wires and cables and other electrical wires and cables, insulated or not, and poles, troughs, conduits and insulators designed as parts of a transmission system, and the fittings thereof			
	<i>Note</i> —The term "industrial system" used in sub-clause (3) means an installation designed to be employed directly in the performance of any process or series of processes necessary for the manufacture, production or extraction of any commodity			
88	COMPONENT PARTS OF MACHINERY, as defined in No 87, namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of the machine or apparatus and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose, Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the machine to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable	...	<i>Ad valorem</i>	2½ per cent.
89	MACHINERY and component parts thereof, meaning machines or parts of machines to be worked by manual or animal labour, not otherwise specified (see Nos 69, 78, and 79) and any machines except such as are designed to be used exclusively in industrial processes which require for their operation less than one quarter of one brake-horse-power	...	" "	15 " "
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL.			
90	IRON—			
	ANGLE—			
	Angle and T, not fabricated— Crown and superior qualities	ton	200 0	10 " " Rs. s. p. 20 0 0
	Other kinds	"	Specific	20 0 0
	" " if galvanised tinned, or lead coated	"	200 0	10 per cent.
	Angle, channel and tee fabricated	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs a	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd</i>			
	IRON OR STEEL—<i>contd</i>			
	STRUCTURES fabricated partially or wholly, not otherwise specified, if made mainly of wholly steel bars, sections plates or sheets, for the construction of buildings, bridges, tanks, well-curbs, trestles, towers and similar structures or for parts thereof, but not including builders' hardware (<i>see</i> No 75) or articles specified in Nos 87, 87, 88, or 136		<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 per cent
	TIN plates and tinned sheets, including tin taggers	ton	Specific <i>Ad valorem</i>	Rs a p 60 0 0 15 per cent
	TIN plate cuttings			
	TRAMWAY TRACK MATERIAL—			
	Rails, fishplates, tie bars, switches, crossings and the like materials of shapes and sizes specially adapted to tramway track		"	10 " "
	WIRE rope		"	10 "
92	IRON OR STEEL—			
	ANCHORS and cables		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
	BOLTS and nuts including hook bolts and nuts for roofing		"	10 " "
	HOOPS AND STRIPS—			
	Hoops Crown and qualities similar or superior	ton	230 0	10 " "
	" other kinds	"	170 0	10 " "
	" " If galvanised tinned, planished, lead coated or aluminium coated	"	230 0	10 " "
	Strips Crown and qualities similar or superior	"	230 0	10 " "
	" other kinds	"	170 0	10 " "
	" " If galvanised tinned, planished, lead coated or aluminium coated	"	230 0	10 " "
	NAILS, RIVETS AND WASHERS, all sorts—			
	Nails, wire or French	cwt	Specific	Rs a p 3 0 0
	" rose, deck, and flat-headed	"	20 0	10 per cent
	" bullock and horse-shoe	"	50 0	10 " "
	Panel pins, 16 gauge and smaller	"	20 0	10 " "
	Nails, other kinds including galvanised, tinned or lead coated and tacks	"	30 0	10 " "
	Rivets, black boiler-makers or structural	"	12 0	10 " "
	" other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 " "
	Washers, black, structural	cwt	17 0	10 " "
	" other sorts, including galvanised nickel plated, tinned or lead coated and dome shaped, spring or locking washers	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 " "
	PIPES AND TUBES, and fittings therefor, that is to say, bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, plugs, valves, cocks and the like—			
	If rivetted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets		"	25 " "
	All other kinds	"	"	10 " "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs a	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd</i>			
	IRON OR STEEL.—<i>contd</i>			
	PLATES not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, including sheets $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick or over—			
	Boiler fire-box and special qualities not fabricated	ton	300 0	10 per cent
	Chequered, not fabricated	"	180 0	10 " "
	Galvanised, plain, not fabricated	"	280 0	10 " "
	Ship, tank, bridge and common, not fabricated	"	Specific	Rs a p 50 0 0
	Cuttings, all kinds	"	25 0 0	25 0 0
	All kinds, fabricated	"	Ad valorem	25 per cent
	SHEETS under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, not fabricated—			
	Black, whether corrugated or flat	ton	Specific	Rs a p 30 0 0
	Galvanised, whether corrugated or flat	"	45 0 0	45 0 0
	Cuttings of the above kinds of sheets	"	Ad valorem	15 per cent
	If annealed which have been either cold rolled smoothed (including planished) pickled or cleaned by acid or other material or process	ton	200 0	10 " "
	Other sorts, including cuttings not otherwise specified	"	Ad valorem	10 " "
	SHEETS under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, fabricated—			
	All sorts	"	"	15 " "
	WIRE—			
	Barbed and 1 stranded fencing	"	"	10 " "
	Netting	"	Rs a p 60 0 0	60 0 0
	All other kinds	ton	Specific	15 per cent
	IRON OR STEEL all other kinds not otherwise specified	"	Ad valorem	15 per cent
93	IRON OR STEEL CANS OR DRUMS—			
	When imported containing kerosene and motor spirit which is separately assessed to duty under No 84, namely—			
	Cans, tinned, of four gallons capacity	can	0 8	15 per cent
	Cans or drums, not tinned, of two gallons capacity—			
	(a) with faucet caps	can or drum	1 8	15 " "
	(b) ordinary	"	0 6	15 " "
	Drums of four gallons capacity—			
	(a) with faucet caps	drum	2 3	15 " "
	(b) ordinary	"	1 8	15 " "
	IRON OR STEEL CANS OR DRUMS, other sorts	"	Ad valorem	15 " "
	METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL			
94	CURRENT SILVER, BRONZE, AND COPPER COIN of the Government of India		.. .	Fres.
95	GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND COIN	"
96	GOLD PLATE, gold thread and wire and gold manuf- factures, all sorts.	.. .	Ad valorem	30 per cent

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuations.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd			
	METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—contd		Rs. a	
27	SILVER PLATE, SILVER THREAD and wire and SILVER MANUFACTURES, all sorts	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent
8	ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL, and manufactures thereof, not other- wise specified—			.
	Aluminium circles	lb	0 15	15 "
	" sheets	"	0 14	15 "
	Brass, patent or yellow metal sheets and sheathing, weighing 1 lb or above per square foot, and brasses and plates	cwt	60 0	15 "
	" patent or yellow metal (including gun metal) ingots.	"	35 0	15 "
	" " " " old	"	30 0	15 "
	" sheets, flat or in rolls, and sheathing, weighing less than 1 lb per square foot		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	" wire		"	15 "
	" all other sorts		"	15 "
	Copper, bolt and bar, rolled		"	15 "
	" brasses, sheets, plates and sheathing	cwt	65 0	15 "
	" sheets, planished		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	" nails and composition nails	.	"	15 "
	" old	cwt	36 0	15 "
	" pigs, tiles, ingots, cakes, bricks and slabs	"	55 0	15 "
	" China, white, copperware	lb	3 0	15 "
	" foil or danks, plain, white, 10 or 11 in X 4 to 5 in	hundred leaves	2 0	15 "
	" foil or danks, plain, coloured, 10 to 11 in X 4 to 5 in	"	2 8	15 "
	" wire, including phosphor-bronze	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	" all other sorts, unmanufactured and manufactured, except current coin of the Government of India which is free		"	15 "
	German silver		"	15 "
	Lead, pig	cwt.	22 0	15 "
	Lead, all sorts (except pig)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	Quicksilver	lb	2 4	15 "
	Tin, block	cwt.	175 0	15 "
	" foil, and other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>conad</i> METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—<i>conad</i>		Rs a p	
	ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL and manufactures thereof, not otherwise specified—<i>conad</i>			
	Zinc or spelter, tiles, slabs or plates hard or soft	cwt	25 0 0	15 per cent
	" " all other sorts including boiler tiles and sheets		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	All other sorts of metals and manufactures thereof.		" "	15 " "
	PAPER, PASTEBOARD AND STATIONERY			
99	PAPER AND ARTICLES MADE OF PAPER AND PAPER MACHE, PASTEBOARD, MILLBOARD, AND CAR- BOARD all sorts, and STATIONERY including ruled or printed forms and account and manuscript books, drawing and copy books, labels, adver- tising circulars, sheet or card almanacs and calendars, Christmas, Easter and other cards, including cards in booklet form, including also waste paper and old newspapers for packing except old newspapers in bales and bags but excluding trade catalogues and advertising circulars imported by packet boat or parcel post (see No 100) and also excluding the des- criptions given below*			15 " "
	Old newspapers in bales and bags	cwt	6 8 0	" "
	News printing paper, glazed and unglazed —			
	White or grey	lb	0 2 8	15 " "
	Coloured	"	0 2 6	15 " "
	Printing paper, white or coloured —			
	Real Art	"	0 6 6	15 " "
	Imitation Art, machine finish super calen- dered, ivory finish, antique, stereo, litho, poster cartridge (other than drawing or photographic cartridge) and cover paper	"	0 4 0	15 " "
	Other sorts		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Packing and wrapping paper —			
	Nature brown, and machine-glazed pressings machine-glazed wrappings	lb	0 2 3	15 " "
	Manilla, machine-glazed or unglazed, and sulphite envelope	"	0 2 9	15 " "
	Kraft and imitation kraft	"	0 3 3	15 " "
	Other sorts including tissues	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Writing paper—			
	Bond, bank, or glazed and unglazed	"	0 6 6	15 " "
	Cream laid other than Mechanical	"	0 4 6	15 " "
	Mechanical Cream laid	"	0 4 0	15 " "
	Other sorts		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Straw boards	cwt	8 0 0	15 " "
100	TRADE CATALOGUES AND ADVERTISING CIRCULARS IMPORTED BY PACKET, BOOK OR PARCEL POST,			Free

* Under Government of India Notification No 2960, dated 10th July 1924, postage stamps, whether used or unused, are exempt from payment of import duty

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd			
	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—contd		Rs a.	
107	SILK PIECE-GOODS, and other manufactures of silk—			
	Silk piece-goods, (white or coloured, plain or figured and all widths) from Japan and China (including Hongkong)—			
	<i>Japan—</i>			
	Pai, Thama, Junken and Nankin, all kinds, including striped, printed, embossed and pine-apples	lb	26 8	30 per cent
	Satins and Kohaku, all kinds, including striped, printed, woven and embossed.	"	30 0	30 " "
	Twill, all kinds	"	28 0	30 " "
	Jarina (Gold embroidered)	"	34 0	30 " "
	Fugi and Boseki, all kinds	"	15 0	30 " "
	Fancies, printed and woven, including Georgetown, Kobe-crepes, crepe-de-chine, (ohirami), ninons and gauzes	"	25 0	30 " "
	Embroideries, excluding Burmese scarves	"	52 0	30 " "
	Shawls, dhuties, scarves, excluding Burmese, mufflers, handkerchiefs and bowlers	"	47 0	30 " "
	Dupettes and China Silk Patkas	"	20 0	30 " "
	Burmese Scarves (a) Pai	"	45 0	30 " "
	(b) other kinds	"	50 0	30 " "
	Cotton and Silk mixed satins, embroidered	"	16 0	30 " "
	Cotton and silk mixed satins, other kinds	"	8 0	30 " "
	" " Hosiery	"	28 0	30 " "
	" " Fugi and Boseki, all kinds	"	12 0	30 " "
	Silk Fents	"	13 0	30 " "
	<i>China (including Hongkong but excluding Canton)—</i>			
	Honans, all kinds, and patkas	"	8 0	30 " "
	Shantung, all kinds, and Patkas	"	5 0	30 " "
	Corded, all kinds, except Woohow	"	4 0	30 " "
	White cord (Woohow), all kinds	"	12 0	30 " "
	Crepe Gasse and pai, all kinds	"	25 0	30 " "
	Satins and fancies, all kinds	"	27 0	30 " "
	Cantons, all kinds	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 " "
	Silk piece-goods, apparel and other manufactures of silk not otherwise specified.*	"	"	30 " "
	MISCELLANEOUS			
108	AEROPLANES, aeroplane parts, aeroplane engines and aeroplane engine parts.	"	"	2½ " "
109	ART, the following works of—(1) statuary and pictures intended to be put up for the public benefit in a public place, and (2) memorials of a public character intended to be put up in a public place, including the materials used, or to be used in their construction, whether worked or not	"	"	Free.

* Under Government of India Notification No 4375, dated 22nd September 1924, the following are liable to duty at 15 per cent *ad valorem*

(1) Silk ligatures

(2) Elastic silk hosiery required for medical purposes, comprising elbow pieces, thigh

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>			
	MISCELLANEOUS—<i>contd.</i>			
110	ART works of excluding those specified in No 109		Rs a Ad valorem	15 per cent [*]
111	Bangles— Calculated plain, flat without border	dozen pairs	2 4	15 " "
	" other sorts	"	Ad valorem	15 " "
	" (rubber) rings excluding coils	"	0 7	15 " "
112	BOOKS printed, including covers for printed books maps charts, and plans proofs music and manuscripts			Free
113	BRUSHES AND BROOMS		Ad valorem	15 per cent
114	BUILDING AND ENGINEERING MATERIALS including asphalt, bricks, cement other than Portland cement chalk and lime clay other than China clay (see No. 118) pipes of earthenware tiles fire bricks not being component parts of any article included in No 87 or No 101 and all other sorts of building and engineering materials not otherwise specified including bitumen and other insulating materials		"	15 " "
	PORTLAND CEMENT	cwt	8 0	15 per cent
115	CANDLES		Ad valorem	15 " "
116	CHINA CLAY	ton	85 0	15 " "
117	CINEMATOGRAPE FILMS — Exposed standard positive films new or used other films	foot	0 4 Ad valorem	15 " "
118	CORDAGE AND ROPE AND TWINE OF VARIETABLE KINDS (EXCLUDING COIR YARN)	"	"	15 " "
	COIR YARN	cwt	12 8	15 " "
119	FIREWORKS *		Ad valorem	30 " "
120	FURNITURE BAGGAGE AND APPAREL, not otherwise described for steam, sailing, rowing and other vessels.		"	15 " "
121	IVORY, manufactured		"	30 " "
122	JEWELLERY AND JEWELS		"	30 " "
123	MATCHES— (1) In boxes containing on the average not more than 100 matches (2) In boxes containing on the average more than 100 matches.	Gross of box or For every 25 matches or fraction thereof in each box per gross of boxes.		Rs. s. 1 8 0 6
	Undipped splints such as are ordinarily used for match making	lb		Rs a p 0 4 6
	Veneers such as are ordinarily used for making match boxes including boxes and parts of boxes made of such veneers	"		0 6 0
124	MATS AND MATTING		Ad valorem	15 per cent
125	OIL CAKES		"	15 " "
126	OILCLOTH AND FLOOR CLOTH		"	15 " "
127	PACKINGS—BAGS AND BOTTLES—all sorts, excluding packing forming a component part of any article included in Nos 87, 88 and 101		"	15 " "

* Under the Government of India Notification No 4467, dated 2nd September 1922, such fireworks as are specially prepared as danger or distress lights for the use of ships are liable to duty at 15 per cent. ad valorem

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd		Rs a.	
	MISCELLANEOUS—contd			
128	PERFUMERY, not otherwise specified—			
	Gowls husked and unhusked	cwt	50 0	15 per cent
	Kapurkachi (medicary)	"	25 0	15 " "
	Patch leaves (patchouli)	"	30 0	15 " "
	Rose-flowers, dried	"	16 0	15 " "
	All other sorts		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
129	PITCH, TAR AND DAMMER—			
	Coal pitch	cwt.	5 0	15 " "
	Coal tar	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Stockholm pitch	"	20 0	15 " "
	Stockholm tar	"	16 0	15 " "
	Dammer Batu	"	7 0	15 " "
	Other sorts		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
130	PNEUMATIC RUBBER TYRES and tubes for motor cars, motor lorries, motor-cycles, and motor-scooters.			30 " "
181	POWDERING AND COMPOSITIONS			15 " "
182	PRINTING AND LITHOGRAPHING MATERIAL, namely, presses, type, ink, aluminium lithographic plates, brass rules, composing sticks, chase, imposing tables, and lithographic stones, stereo blocks, wood blocks, half-tone blocks, electrotypes, blocks, roller moulds, roller frames and stocks, roller composition, standing screw and hot presses, perforating machines, gold blocking presses, galley presses, proof presses, arming presses, copper plate printing presses, rolling presses, ruling machines, ruling pen making machines, lead and rule cutters, type casting machines, type setting and casting machines, rule banding machines, rule nitroing machines, bronzing machines, leads, wooden and metal quoins, shooting sticks and galleys, stereo-typing apparatus, metal furniture, paper folding machines, and paging machines, but excluding paper (see No. 99).			2½ " "

No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs. a.	Rs. & p.
	MISCELLANEOUS—<i>contd</i>			
133	PRINTS, ENGRAVINGS AND PICTURES including photographs and picture post cards		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
134	RACKS for the withering of tea leaf		"	2½ " "
135	RUBBER tyres and other manufactures of rubber not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> No 130) *		"	15 " "
136	SHIPS AND OTHER VESSELS for inland and harbour navigation including steamers, launches, boats and barges, imported entire or in sections Provided that articles of machinery as defined in No. 87 or No 88 shall, when separately imported not be deemed to be included hereunder		"	10 " "
137	SMOKERS' REQUISITES, excluding tobacco (Nos 26 to 28) and matches (No 128)		"	30 " "
138	SOAP		"	15 " "
139	STARCH AND FARINA		"	15 " "
140	STONE AND MARBLE, and articles made of stone and marble		"	15 " "
141	TOILET REQUISITES, not otherwise specified		"	15 "
142	TOYS, games, playing cards and requisites for games and sports, excluding bird-shot Bird-shot	cwt	35 0	30 " "
143	ALL OTHER ARTICLES wholly or mainly manufactured, not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	IV—Miscellaneous and unclassified			
144	ANIMALS, living, all sorts			Free
145	CORAL		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
146	FODDER, BRAN AND POLLARDS			2½ " "
147	SPECIMENS illustrative of natural science, and medals and antiquary coins		"	Free.
148	UMBRELLAS, including parasols and sunshades, and fittings therefor		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
149	ALL OTHER ARTICLES NOT OTHERWISE SPECIFIED, including articles imported by post.		"	15 " "

*Under Government of India Notification No 308, dated 8th February 1924, rubber tyres and tubes used exclusively for aeroplanes are liable to duty at 2½ per cent *ad valorem*.

Schedule III.—(Export Tariff).

No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	Jute other than Bimlipatan Jute		Rs a p.	Rs a.
1	RAW JUTE—			
	(1) Cuttings	Bale of 400 lbs		1 4
	(2) All other descriptions	"		4 8
2	JUTE MANUFACTURES when not in actual use as coverings, receptacles or bindings for other goods—			
	(1) Sacking (cloth, bags, twist, yarn, rope and twine).	Ton of 2,240 lbs.		20 0
	(2) Hessian and all other descriptions of jute manufactures not otherwise specified *	"		32 0
	RICE.			
3	RICE , husked or unhusked, including rice flour, but excluding rice bran and rice dust, which are free	Indian maund of 82½ lbs. avoirdupois weight	.	0 3
	TEA.			
4	TEA	100 lbs		1 8
5	RAW HIDES AND SKINS IF EXPORTED FROM BURMA—			
	(1) Arsenicated and air dried hides—			
	(a) Cows (including calf skins)	lb	0 5 6	5 per cent
	(b) Buffaloes (Do do)	"	0 3 6	5 "
	(2) Dry salted hides—			
	(a) Cows (including calf skins)	"	0 5 0	5 "
	(b) Buffaloes (Do do)	"	0 3 6	5 "
	(3) Wet salted hides—			
	(a) Cows (including calf skins)	"	0 4 0	5 "
	(b) Buffaloes (Do do)	"	0 2 0	5 "
	(4) Goat and Kid Skins	piece.	1 6 0	5 "
	(5) Sheepskins	"	0 12 0	5 "
6	RAW HIDES AND SKINS IF EXPORTED FROM ANY PLACE IN BRITISH INDIA OTHER THAN BURMA —			
	(1) Arsenicated and air dried hides—			
	(a) Cows (including calf skins)—			
	Framed	lb	0 12 0	5 "
	Unframed	"	0 8 0	5 "
	(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins)—			
	Framed	"	0 6 6	5 "
	Unframed	"	0 4 0	5 "
	(2) Dry salted hides—			
	(a) Cows (including calf skins)	"	0 6 6	5 "
	(b) Buffaloes (Do do)	"	0 3 6	5 "
	(3) Wet salted hides—			
	(a) Cows (including calf skins)	"	0 4 0	5 "
	(b) Buffaloes (Do do)	"	0 2 6	5 "
	(4) Goat and Kid Skins	piece	1 8 0	5 "
	(5) Sheep Skins	"	1 0 0	5 "

* Under Government of India Notification No. 1423, dated 17th November 1923, Jute Bags such as are used for paper making are exempt from payment of export duty provided that the Customs Collector is satisfied that they are useless for any purpose to which cloth or rope is ordinarily put.

The broad characteristics of the trade of India are familiar to readers of the Indian Year Book. India is chiefly an agricultural country for 72 per cent of its people are directly dependent upon agriculture for their means of livelihood. Consequently the prosperity of the land is largely determined by the character of the south west monsoon rains. An area which every year grows larger is protected by irrigation and the extension of these works together with the increased resisting power of the people and the growth of the manufacturing industry is expected to make the population immune to the shock of such famines as those of 1896-97, 1899-1900 and 1918-19. But many of the irrigation works such as tanks and wells depend on the rains for their replenishment. Consequently the rains mainly determine the export trade and the consequent purchasing power of the people. Another feature that arises from these conditions is that the imports are chiefly manufactured goods and the exports produce.

The main conclusions to be drawn from the trade statistics of the last official year are indicated in the annual Review of the Trade of India by Mr C G Freke, Director General of Commercial Intelligence from which the following details are mainly drawn.

The year 1923-24 marked a slow but distinct advance towards India's commercial recovery. The improvement in trade which characterised the previous year was maintained and there was steady development on sound and healthy lines towards more stable economic conditions. A study of trade movements in 1923-24 seems to suggest that we have moved away from violent fluctuations and that sober and steady alterations may be looked for in succeeding years. Even with world trade at its present low ebb India's exports have expanded from a pre war average of Rs 219½ crores to Rs 349 crores in the year under review. The world's stocks of most of India's staple exports are low and this latter figure represents a low estimate of the quantity of her goods which humanity must buy if current standards of living are to be maintained. The final liquidation of accumulated stocks of imports was practically completed and another good monsoon gave India her third year of good crops in succession.

Two factors which hamper her further progress are the unsettled political conditions in Europe and the high prices of imports relatively to the prices which India obtains for most of her exports. All over the world countries which are primarily agricultural are suffering from this difference between the average increase in the prices of manufactured goods and the corresponding average increase in the prices of raw materials. And in 1923-24 India paid 90 per cent more than in 1913-14 for her imports while she received only 45 per cent more than in 1913-14 for her exports. The reparations problem remained unsolved throughout the year and in the spring of 1923 the occupation of the Ruhr disorganised economic and political conditions throughout Europe. For the first half of the year the low wages paid to German workers combined with the steady depreciation of her currency enabled Germany to undersell her competitors in nearly all markets of the world but towards the close of the year the steady strengthening of the demand of her workers to be paid on a gold basis weakened her competition to some extent. At the same time the German mark gradually passed out of practical economics. And the French franc had a perilously rapid downfall during the later months of the year but it was fortunately steadied and brought up again just at its close. India's three best individual customers are the United Kingdom, Japan and the United States of America and the wholesale price levels in those countries were relatively stable during the year.

Exports.—The most striking feature of Indian trade as a whole was that exports showed an increase of 50 crores over those of the previous year while imports decreased by 5 crores. The large increase in the former has to be discounted to some extent as 27 crores of it is attributable to raw cotton of which there were large exports at high prices on account of the shortage of the American crop.

The following figures have been compiled to show the values of imports and exports of merchandise on the basis of declared values in 1913-14. These statistics are necessarily approximate but they are sufficiently accurate to afford a reliable measure of the course of trade.

(In crores of Rupees)

	1913-14	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Imports	183	101	142	124	138	120
Exports	244	198	172	182	214	240
Total trade in merchandise excluding re-exports	427	299	314	306	352	360

They illustrate the extent to which Indian trade is returning to its pre war dimensions especially on the exports side. And it has always to be borne in mind that in 1913-14 trade was distinctly better than the pre war normal.

On the import side cotton piece goods fell in quantity by 107 million yards to 1,486 million yards and in value by Rs 1½ crores to Rs 57 crores. This was due to a decrease of Rs 6½ crores in grey goods which was only partly set off by an increase of Rs 5 crores in coloured

goods. The total value of the import trade excluding cotton piece goods decreased by 2 per cent from Rs 174 crores to Rs 171 crores. The quantity of sugar all sorts including molasses and confectionery imported fell by 5 per cent from 504,000 tons to 476,000 tons while the value remained almost stationary at Rs 184 crores. Machinery and millwork decreased in value from Rs 23 crores to Rs 19 crores while railway plant and rolling stock showed a small improvement from Rs 11 to Rs 11½ crores. Iron and steel showed a small increase

in quantity with a fall of 8 per cent in value which amounted to nearly Rs 18 crores. The value of the imports of hardware decreased from Rs 5 crores to Rs 4½ crores while motor cars improved from Rs 1½ crores to Rs 2 crores. Importations of coal were further reduced from Rs 3 crores to Rs 1½ crores but mineral oil increased from nearly Rs 7 crores to Rs 8½ crores. The quantity of all marine and aniline dyes imported increased by 2½ million lbs to 16½ million lbs but their value stood at Rs 2½ crores which approximated closely to the previous year's figure. In liquors the quantity increased with a small decrease in value. Imports of raw cotton increased from Rs 1½ crores to Rs 2½ crores but there was a fall in cotton twist and yarn from Rs 9½ crores to nearly Rs 8 crores.

On the **Export** side raw cotton increased from Rs 71 to Rs 98½ crores and the total value of raw cotton and cotton manufactures exported increased by Rs 25½ crores to Rs 110½ crores. Raw jute increased in quantity by 14 per cent to 680 000 tons but decreased in value by 11 per cent from Rs 22½ crores to Rs 20 crores. Gunny bags exported increased in quantity and value while gunny cloth showed an increase in quantity with a small decrease in value. The total value of raw jute and jute manufactures shipped fell slightly from Rs 63 crores to Rs 62½ crores. Shipments of rice increased in quantity by 81 000 tons or 2.2 million tons while their value showed a small decrease of Rs 14 lakhs and amounted to Rs 94.9 crores. Exports of wheat showed a large increase and amounted to 638 000 tons valued at Rs 9 crores. The tea trade also showed a marked improvement, shipment increasing in quantity by 50 million lbs and in value by Rs 9½ crores to 338½ million lbs valued at Rs 31½ crores. The total value of goods exported again increased in the year under review by Rs 2½ crores to nearly Rs 30 crores.

The Balance of Trade in merchandise in favour of India reached the record figure of a 145 crores which was partly liquidated by million imports of gold to the value of Rs 29 crores and silver to the net value of Rs 18 crores by the sale of council bills, purchases of India of sterling and sales of gold in India against sterling payments.

Imports of Merchandise.

Cotton Manufactures—Another year of high prices had the effect of checking the recovery in demand for cotton manufactures which was anticipated after a prolonged period of agricultural prosperity. The prices of raw cotton in America dominate the world's piecegoods markets and the year under review was one of high and widely fluctuating prices. The prices of middling American at New Orleans was in the neighbourhood of 28 cents per lb both at the opening and at the close of the year. But it varied between 22 cents in July and 36½ cents in December. Up to the end of July there was an expectation that the American cotton crop would prove of sufficient size to bring about reasonable level of values but the damage it suffered during August was so great that a sharp upward movement was experienced in September and by the beginning of October the hope of an adequate yield was generally abandoned and prices moved accordingly. As usual Indian buying was slack till the character of the monsoon was clear and even when the rains had proved to be good no large orders were placed until September. October and by that time prices had risen sharply owing to the rapid advance in the price of the raw material. Stocks in all the principal centres in India were scarce and there would have been a strong cold weather demand but for the damping effect of a very considerable increase in prices. The year closed with stock low and a feeling that there would be a strong demand as soon as lower prices of the raw material should permit more reasonable quotations for the manufactured products.

The imports of cotton manufactures were valued at Rs 67½ crores as compared with Rs 70 crores in 1922-23 and Rs 57 crores in 1921-22. The decrease was in cotton twist and yarn and grey piece goods while white and coloured goods increased.

The value of the imports represented 20½ per cent of the total import trade in 1923-24 as compared with 30 per cent in 1922-23 and 21 per cent in 1921-22. The chief descriptions of imports during the last three years and the pre-war year were as follows—

Imports of Cotton manufactures	1913-14 (pre war year)	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Twist and yarn	Rs (lakhs) 4.16	Rs (lakhs) 11.51	Rs (lakhs) 9.26	Rs (lakhs) 7.94
Piece goods—				
Grey (unbleached)	25.45	22.65	30.44	23.06
White (bleached)	14.29	12.67	15.01	15.44
Coloured printed or dyed	17.86	7.69	12.60	17.69
Others of all descriptions	6.4	2.5	4.6	6.6
TOTAL PIECE-GOODS	58.14	43.16	58.61	56.64
Slavery	1.20	63	80	94
Adkerchiefs and shawls	69	10	16	23
Sad	89	72	70	71
Other sorts	1.62	82	70	62
GRAND TOTAL	66.30	56.94	70.13	67.48

Cotton Twist and Yarn—There was a noticeable decrease in the imports of cotton twist and yarn the quantity falling by 15 million lbs or 25 per cent to 44½ million lbs and the value by Rs 1 32 lakhs or 14 per cent to Rs 7 94 lakhs. The total quantity of the imports was approximately the same as in 1913 14 imports from the United Kingdom fell from Rs 5 99 to Rs 4 61 lakhs and Japanese from Rs 3 20 to Rs 2 85 lakhs. The high cost of cotton hampered the British yarn trade and the earthquake in September 1923 temporarily suspended Japanese activities. Prices were higher than in the preceding year and the average declared value per lb rose from Rs 1 9 0 in 1923 23 to Rs 1 12 6 in 1923 24.

Cotton Piece goods—The following table compares the imports of the three important classes of piece-goods in millions of yards during

each of the last eleven years —

—	Grey (unbleached)	White (bleached)	Coloured printed or dyed
Year	Million yards	Million yards	Million yards
1913 14	1 534 2	793 3	831 8
1914 15	1 320 2	604 2	494 8
1915 16	1 148 2	611 4	358 7
1916 17	847 0	589 8	454 9
1917 18	625 5	502 8	395 6
1918 19	583 4	286 6	227 3
1919 20	533 8	322 0	208 3
1920-21	580 2	421 8	489 3
1921 22	635 6	306 2	188 3
1922 23	931 0	402 5	243 8
1923 24	704 0	415 8	347 5

Percentage share of the United Kingdom and Japan in the imports of Cotton Piece goods

	1913-14		1921 22		1922-23		1923-24	
	United King dom	Japan	United King dom	Japan	United King dom	Japan	United King dom	Japan
Cotton piece goods grey	98 8	5	82 8	13 1	89 5	9 6	80 2	13 7
Cotton piece-goods white	98 5		97 8	6	98 -	6	97 3	6
Cotton piece goods coloured	92 6	2	88 0	3 6	86 9	6 3	87 4	6 7

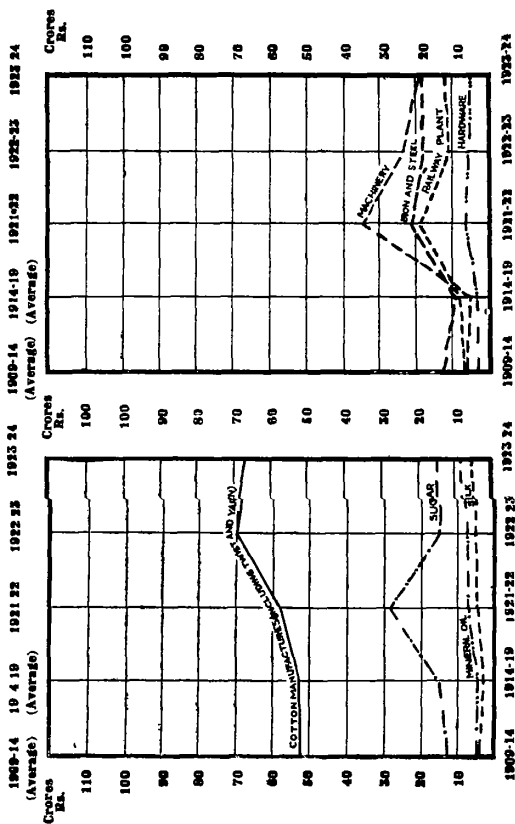
Silk—Raw and Manufactured—There was a fall of 2½ per cent both in the quantity and value of raw silk imported. The imports amounted to 1 365 000 lbs valued at Rs 1 18 lakhs as compared with 18 29 000 lbs and Rs 1 58 lakhs in 1922 23. As in the preceding year 93 per cent of the imports came from China and Hongkong and the remainder mainly from Siam and Japan. Imports by overland routes from Western China, Siam and the Shan States amounted to 669 000 lbs valued at Rs 93 lakhs as compared with 583 632 lbs and Rs 77 lakhs in 1922 23. Silk yarn noils and warp increased to 987 000 lbs valued at Rs 71 lakhs from 897 000 lbs and Rs 62 lakhs in the preceding year owing to larger arrivals from Italy, China and the United Kingdom. A half of the total quantity under this head came from Italy and 21 per cent from Japan.

Silk piece-goods, the most important description of manufactured silk imported, decreased in quantity by nearly 2 per cent to 14,087,000

yards while the value of the imports increased slightly by one per cent to Rs 2 30 lakhs. Over 98 per cent of the total quantity came as usual from the Far East (China, Hongkong and Japan).

Metals and Manufactures thereof—The total quantity of metals and manufactures thereof imported during 1923 24 increased to 808 000 tons from 801 300 tons in 1922 23 but the value showed a decrease by a crore of Rupees to Rs 24½ crores. Iron and steel represented Rs 18 crores of this total and occupied the third place in order of importance among imports as in the preceding year. If we include under this heading machinery and millwork, railway plant and rolling stock, cutlery, hardware, implements and instruments and vehicles (excluding carriages and carts) the total value would aggregate Rs 67 crores. The first quarter of 1923 saw the occupation of the Ruhr, which entirely dislocated the German steel industry and also materially reduced the steel output

IMPORTS.



of France and Luxemburg, owing to the curtailment of fuel supplies. And continental supplies of iron and steel hardly became an appreciable factor in world's supplies again until the last quarter of that year and their supplies to India were consequently much restricted in the year under review. The United States also considerably curtailed her exports owing to a strong home demand for industrial developments. The United Kingdom where the industry suffered from a disastrous slump in 1921 regained in 1923 her position as the chief exporting country. An important factor in this recovery was that prices were remarkably steady throughout the year. And even when continental suppliers were able to underquote British suppliers certainty and promptness of delivery gave the latter a distinct advantage. The United Kingdom output of 3 700 000 tons of steel in 1921 was the smallest recorded for over a quarter of a century and represented a decline of 5 300 000 tons on the previous year. In 1922 the output advanced to nearly 6 million tons and in 1923 to 8½ million tons as against 7 million tons in the pre war year 1913.

Machinery and Millwork—As in the two preceding years machinery and millwork maintained its position as second to cotton manufactures in India's import trade in 1923-24. There has been a steady reduction in the value of importations since the boom year 1921-22. The total imports of machinery of all kinds including belting for machinery and printing presses during 1923-24 were valued at Rs 20 crores as compared with Rs 24 crores in 1922-23, Rs 35 crores in 1921-22 and Rs 24 crores in 1920-21.

Railway Plant and Rolling Stock—Imports under this head on private and Government accounts combined were valued at Rs 14 crores (Rs 11 79 lakhs private and Rs 2 28 lakhs Government) as compared with Rs 18 76 lakhs (Rs 11 06 lakhs private and Rs 2 70 lakhs Government) in 1922-23 and Rs 21 86 lakhs (Rs 18 91 lakhs private and Rs 2 95 lakhs Government) in 1921-22.

Motor Vehicles—Notwithstanding an import duty of thirty per cent there was a remarkable increase in the imports of motor cars which numbered 7 984 as compared with 4 323 in 1922-23 and 2 895 in 1921-22. With the exception of the two abnormal years immediately after the close of the war this represents the largest importation on record. The total recorded values also increased by 48 per cent to Rs 2 05 lakhs. The expansion was due partly to increased imports of small light cars but more particularly was it due to drastic price cuttings mainly on the part of the United Kingdom and Continental manufacturers. Of the total imports 41 per cent came from Canada, 36 per cent from the United States, 13 per cent from the United Kingdom. The average declared value of cars imported from Canada was Rs 1 968 (Rs 1 982) as compared with Rs 2 424 (Rs 3 169) for each car from the United States and Rs 4 511 (Rs 7 312) from the United Kingdom the values per unit in the preceding year being shown in brackets. The relative fall in the average cost of cars from the United Kingdom

is noticeable. Bengal had 86 per cent of the trade, Bombay 29 per cent, Madras 14 per cent and Burma 13 per cent.

Hardware—This is a comprehensive heading and includes among others the following heads—

	1922-23 Rs (lakhs)	1923-24 Rs (lakhs)
Agricultural implement	23	21
Other implements and tools (except machine tools)	79	68
Builders hardware	35	24
Domestic hardware	9	9
Enamelled ironware	24	31
Metallamps	57	60
Metallamps parts	12	9
Stoves	6	7
Safes etc	3	4
Gas mantles	6	5
Other sorts	2 61	2 04

Sugar—Sugar held fourth place in India's import trade in 1923-24 as in the preceding year the total value of all kinds of sugar including molasses and confectionery imported being Rs 15½ crores. Cotton manufactures ranked first as usual with Rs 67½ crores and they were followed by machinery and millwork including belting (Rs 20 crores) and iron and steel (Rs 18 crores). The imports of sugar refined and unrefined excluding molasses and confectionery decreased in quantity by 7 per cent to 411 500 tons and the value stood at Rs 14 78 lakhs as against Rs 14 85 lakhs in 1922-23. High prices ruling in Java during the latter half of the year restricted business but the bulk of the imports arrived during August to October when prices were low. Java continued to be the main source of supply and accounted for nearly 90 per cent of the total quantity imported as compared with 84 per cent in 1922-23. Imports therefrom (including consignments from the Straits Settlements which are forwarding agents of Java sugar) fell slightly from 373 700 tons in 1922-23 to 371 200 tons. This quantity was distributed as follows—Bengal 154 500 tons or 42 per cent, Bombay 99 600 tons or 27 per cent, Karachi 87 900 tons or 24 per cent, Burma 20 000 tons or 5 per cent, Madras 9 500 tons or 2 per cent of the total. Mauritius sugar, mostly imported into Bombay dwindled to 1,800 tons as compared with 31 400 tons a year ago—this reduction being due to the diversion of this sugar to the United Kingdom as a result of the preference accorded to it.

Mineral Oils—Mineral oils imported into India from foreign countries are comprised mainly of kerosene fuel oils and lubricating oils. The imports of petrol from abroad are insignificant. The bulk of this oil coming coastwise from Burma. The total quantity of foreign mineral oils imported in the year under review increased to 169 million gallons from 138 million gallons in the preceding year. The increase was almost equally contributed by kerosene and fuel oils. Nearly 69 million gallons of kerosene oil (bulk oil 62 million gallons and case oil 7 million gallons) valued at Rs 4.42 lakhs were imported from abroad in 1923-24 as compared with 50 million gallons (bulk oil 46 million gallons and 4 million gallons in tins) valued at Rs 3.38 lakhs in 1922-23 and 46½ million gallons (bulk oil 41 million gallons and 5 million gallons in tins) and Rs 3.46 lakhs in 1921-22. The quantity exceeded by 2 million gallons the average annual imports during the five pre-war years.

The importations of fuel oil into India to meet the growing demands of railways steamships and industrial plant have steadily risen from 34 million gallons in 1919-20 48 million in 1920-21 58 million in 1921-22 62½ million in 1922-23 to a record figure of 80½ million. Imports from Persia which is the largest supplier amounted to 60 million gallons or nearly 75 per cent of the total quantity imported as compared with about 51 million gallons in each of the two preceding years. Borneo's supplies rose strikingly from 5 million gallons to 16½ million gallons while the imports from the Straits Settlements fell from 5 million gallons to 3½ million gallons. Lubricating and batching oils decreased to 16 million gallons valued at Rs 1.74 lakhs from 18 million gallons and Rs 1.79 lakhs in 1922-23. The United States supplied 11 million gallons and the remainder came mostly from Borneo (3 million gallons) and the United Kingdom (1½ million gallons). Imports of petrol from abroad were as stated above insignificant being only 2.700 gallons while the imports into India proper of petrol and other motor spirit from Burma amounted to 14½ million gallons as compared with 15½ million gallons in 1922-23 and 17 million gallons in 1921-22.

Paper and Pasteboard—Under paper the revival of trade recorded in the previous year continued and increases were recorded in all the major headings. The quantity of paper and pasteboard imported increased by 15 per cent from 60,300 tons to 69,700 tons. In respect of value there was a decline of 8 per cent from Rs 2.79 lakhs to Rs 2.71 lakhs owing particularly to the lower prices of German paper although nearly all prices showed an easier tendency.

Printing paper was imported to the extent of 19,900 tons as compared with 19,340 tons in the preceding year while the value decreased to Rs 86½ lakhs from nearly Rs 96 lakhs. News printing paper which was specified separately from April 1923 accounted for 10,030 tons valued at Rs 33 lakhs. A noticeable feature was the increase in the imports of printing paper from Germany which

supplied 5,500 tons valued at Rs 22½ lakhs, as compared with 2,200 tons and Rs 10 lakhs in 1922-23. The share of the United Kingdom receded from Rs. 35 to Rs 28 lakhs and that of Norway from Rs 30 to Rs 20 lakhs. The quantity imported from Norway the United Kingdom and Sweden decreased from 6,900 5,700 and 2,000 tons in 1922-23 to 5,800 5,000 and 1,100 tons respectively last year. The Netherlands increased her supplies from 660 to 900 tons while there were reduced imports from Belgium and Japan. The United States of America has almost disappeared from the trade supplies from that country amounting to 15 tons only as compared with 44 tons in 1922-23 and 204 tons in 1921-22.

Provisions—This comprehensive head covers a large variety of articles of which the principal are (in order of importance) canned and bottled provisions farinaceous and patent foods milk condensed biscuits and cakes bacon and hams cheese jams and jellies pickles and sauces cocoa and chocolate margarine butter ghee lard and vinegar. The total value of imported provisions increased slightly from Rs 2.77 lakhs in 1922-23 to Rs 2.80 lakhs in 1923-24.

Canned and bottled provisions increased in quantity from 100,000 cwts to 107,000 cwts but decreased in value from Rs 75 lakhs to Rs 70 lakhs of which the United Kingdom supplied Rs 35 lakhs and the United States of America Rs 4 lakhs. The share of Australia fell to Rs 1½ lakhs. Prices declined in sympathy with reduced prices in the United Kingdom the main source of supply.

Liquors—The total of liquors imported increased in quantity but decreased in value owing particularly to cheaper continental beer and spirits. The total imports were 4,700,000 gallons as compared with 4,605,000 gallons in 1922-23 an increase of 8 per cent while the value amounted to Rs 3.14½ lakhs a decrease of 13.28 lakhs or 8 per cent. Ale and beer brand gin spirit present in drugs liquors and wines showed increases while there were noticeable decreases in rum whiskey and perfumed spirits.

Salt—The duty on salt manufactured in India was raised from Rs 1.4 to Rs 2-8 per maund on the 1st March 1923. The fact that the enhanced rate was to be in force for one year after which the question of its continuance would be considered again necessarily limited clearances to the immediate requirements for consumption and there was a corresponding reduction also in imports. The imports of salt from abroad showed a decrease of 12 per cent in quantity from 542,000 tons to 475,000 tons while the value fell by 35 per cent from Rs 1.69 lakhs to Rs 1.10 lakhs. Foreign salt was as usual imported almost entirely into Bengal and Burma the former importing 419,000 tons or 88 per cent of the total quantity and the latter 55,300 tons or over 11 per cent as compared with 484,000 tons and 57,800 tons respectively in the preceding year.

Dyeing and Tanning Substances—Synthetic dyes increased in quantity by 18 per cent from 14 million lbs to 16½ million lbs, but in value by only 2 per cent from Rs 2.47 lakhs to Rs 2.51 lakhs. The increase in value was due entirely to alizarine dyes which rose by 10 per cent both in quantity and value and amounted to 5,809,000 lbs, valued at Rs. 47½ lakhs, as compared with 5,284,000 lbs valued at Rs. 43 lakhs in the preceding year. The aniline dyes imported increased in quantity by 24 per cent from 8,742,000 lbs to 10,809,000 lbs, while their value (Rs 2,02½ lakhs) was approximately the same as in the preceding year on account of the reduced prices of German supplies. The average declared value of alizarine dyes was Rs 0 18 1 per lb as in 1922-23, while in the case of aniline dyes it fell to Rs. 1 14-0, as compared with Rs 2 5-0 in 1922-23. Noticeable features were the increases in the imports of British Alizarine dyes from 878,000 lbs to 2,431,000 lbs and of German aniline dyes from 6,726,000 lbs to 8,331,000 lbs. Germany almost regained her pre-war importance as a supplier, although the value of her imports fell from Rs 184 to Rs 181 lakhs. British supplies advanced from Rs 20 to Rs 27 lakhs and those from Netherlands probably in transit from Germany from Rs 14 to Rs 18 lakhs. American shipments also increased from Rs 9 to Rs 11 lakhs.

Glass and Glassware—The value of glass and glassware imported decreased to Rs 2.46 lakhs from Rs 2.60 lakhs in 1922-23. Japan maintained her lead in this trade with Rs 81 lakhs and was followed by Germany (Rs 43 lakhs), Czechoslovakia (Rs 42 lakhs) the United Kingdom (Rs 32 lakhs), and Belgium (Rs 24 lakhs). With the exception of bangles all the principal descriptions specified showed decreases in value. Imports of bangles from Japan and Czechoslovakia increased. More beads and false pearls also came from Japan while the supplies from Germany and Italy decreased. In bottles and phials the quantity increased, but the value decreased owing to a large increase in the imports of a cheap class of phials from Japan. Germany also sent more bottles and phials than in 1922-23. There were decreases in the imports of funnels, gloves and glass parts of lamps from Germany and Japan, of sheet and plate glass from Belgium, and of tableware from Japan.

Tobacco—The activity of the Indian cigarette manufacturing industry was reflected in the figures of imports of unmanufactured tobacco and cigarettes. There was a remarkable increase in unmanufactured tobacco from 1,228,000 lbs, valued at Rs 17 lakhs, to 4,567,000 lbs valued at Rs 48½ lakhs together with a decrease in cigarettes from 4,087,000 lbs valued at Rs 1.85 lakhs, to 3,463,000 lbs valued at Rs 1.57 lakhs in 1923-24. These figures include imports of cigarettes by postal packets which were not separately specified prior to April, 1922. The United States of America sent 3,889,000 lbs of unmanufactured tobacco, as compared with 708,000 lbs in 1922-23. Nearly 97 per cent. of the total quantity of cigarettes imported came from the United Kingdom, as compared with 94 per cent in the preceding year. The imports of American and Egyptian cigarettes decreased. These figures suggest that the high rate of import duty

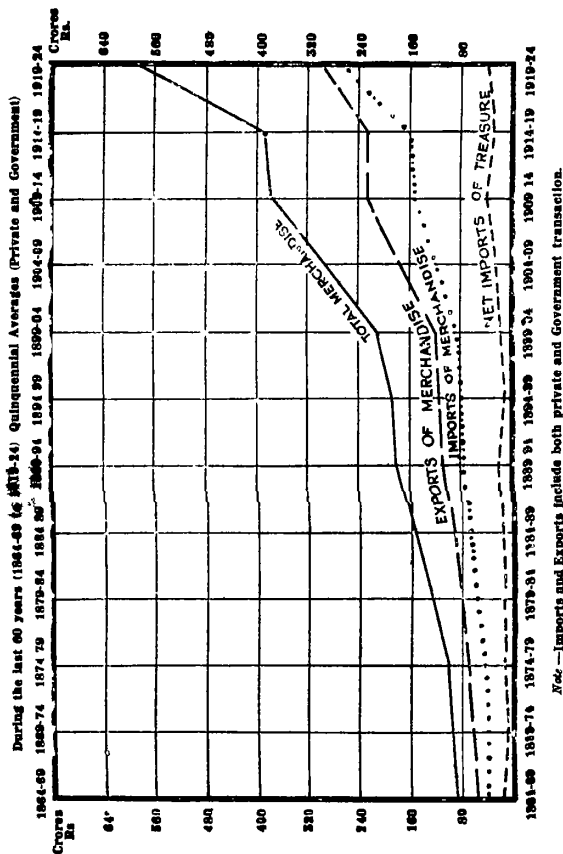
of 75 per cent. has stimulated the manufacture of Indian cigarettes from imported tobacco. Cigars were in greater demand with lower prices, the imports rising from 24,800 lbs valued at nearly Rs. 2 lakhs to 27,200 lbs valued at Rs 1½ lakhs. Tobacco for pipes and cigarettes decreased to 279,200 lbs worth Rs 17½ lakhs, from 309,800 lbs and Rs 20 lakhs in 1922-23.

Precious Stones and Pearls—The value of precious stones imported in the year under review decreased from Rs 1,32 lakhs to Rs 89 lakhs, of which over Rs 86 lakhs consisted of diamonds. This was largely due to a falling in prices, owing partly to speculation and partly genuine slackness of demand. The chief supplier of diamonds was as usual, Belgium which accounted for Rs 46 lakhs. The United Kingdom sent Rs 24 lakhs of precious stones, Belgium Rs 46 lakhs, and France Rs 10 lakhs, as compared with Rs 35 lakhs, Rs 77 lakhs and Rs. 3 lakhs, respectively in the preceding year. Pearls unset were valued at Rs 91 lakhs, as compared with Rs 94 lakhs in 1922-23. The imports were, as usual, mostly from the Bahrain Islands and Maskat, which together supplied Rs 86½ lakhs worth as compared with Rs 79 lakhs in 1922-23.

Coal—The imports of foreign coal showed a further decrease to 592,000 tons, as compared with 882,000 tons in the preceding year. The most noticeable feature was the decrease in the supplies from the United Kingdom which fell from 497,000 to 79,000 tons, a decrease of 418,000 tons. This was partly set off by increases of 20,000 tons from the Union of South Africa, of 135,000 tons from Portuguese East Africa, and of 87,000 tons from Australia. Imports from Japan dropped from 83,000 tons in 1921-22 and 88,000 tons in 1922-23 to 700 tons in 1923-24.

Matches—Imports of matches were steady at 11 million gross, although the value decreased from Rs 1,62 lakhs to Rs 1.46 lakhs. Nearly 9 million gross worth Rs 1,18½ lakhs were safety matches, of which 52 per cent came from Japan and 44 per cent from Sweden. Other kinds of matches amounted to 2½ million gross, of which Sweden supplied 56 per cent and Japan 39 per cent. The interesting feature of the trade was the large increase in the imports of Swedish matches, which amounted to over 5 million gross as compared with 2½ million gross in 1922-23, while the arrivals of Japanese matches dropped from 8 million gross to 8½ million gross. The share of Japan in the total quantity of matches imported was 49 per cent and of Sweden 46 per cent as compared with 74 and 23 per cent., respectively, in the preceding year. Imports from Norway and Czechoslovakia increased in quantity but showed decreases in value. The high import duty was the direct cause of a new Japanese trade in splints complete in every way except for the head, and empty boxes. So that the only manufacturing processes applied to these goods in India were the dipping and the packing. With effect from 1st March, 1924, a high specific duty has also been imposed on undipped splints, veneers for match boxes, and empty boxes, which came in formerly at an *ad valorem* import duty of 15 per cent.

Cement—With the expansion of the Indian cement industry imports of cement declined from 134,000 tons, valued at Rs. 1,06 lakhs, to 113,000 tons valued at Rs 76 lakhs.



Exports of Merchandise

Cotton—The year ending March 1924 was one of general depression in the Lancashire spinning industry, particularly in the section using American cotton. The section of the spinning industry using Egyptian cotton did somewhat better. The uncertainty of the position was intensified by the character of the American cotton season. With practically a record acreage there seemed every hope of a large crop, but succeeding condition reports steadily diminished this hope and the crop eventually ginned was only 12,676 thousand bales (400 lbs) excluding flutes. The Egyptian crop decreased to 1,447 000 bales from 1 659,000 bales in 1922 and 1,076 000 bales in 1921. The Indian crop in 1923-24, in spite of an increased area of 6 per cent was estimated at 5,074 000 bales, the same figure as in 1922-23, as against 4,485,000 bales in 1921-22.

On May 11th it had dropped to 14 18d but was just over 16 00d by the end of that month. From 17 28d half way through June a gradual decline took place and on the 1st of August 13 40d the lowest point of the year was recorded. From that date over 2d per lb was added before the beginning of September and nearly 3d more during the course of that month whilst in November the price was raised another 4d from 17 75d to 21 72d. A set back in early December reduced the quotation to 18 50d but through bullish activities the month closed at 21 06d only 1d per lb less than the highest point of the year. Prices then took a downward turn and reached 16 46d on 28th March 1924. The trend of prices in the Bombay market responded generally to the price movements of American cotton. Broach cotton at Bombay was quoted at Rs 527 per candy (784 lbs) at the beginning of April, and with small fluctuations prices tended to weaken during the first few months of the year, the lowest quotations of the year Rs 444 being recorded in August, when monsoon prospects were good. Prices then began to move upwards and there was a sharp rise by the end of November when the highest quotation Rs 715 was reached. Subsequently prices fell and Rs 545 was the quotation on 28th March, 1924.

Indian mill consumption was reduced by two mill strikes in Ahmedabad and Bombay respectively and by a period of poor demand for yarn and cloth. Export was brisk, the high prices of American cotton leading to an increased demand for the cheaper Indian product. Exports from India during the year rose to 3,764,000 bales as compared with 3,863,000 bales in 1921-23. The value, on account of the high range of prices, rose by 39 per cent from Rs 71 crores to Rs 98 crores and represented 25 per cent of the grand total value of all Indian merchandise exported during the year, as compared with 24 per cent in the preceding year. Stocks of unsold cotton in Bombay on 31st August 1923 were only 367,000 bales as compared to 988 000 in the preceding year (on 31st August, 1924, stocks

amounted to 233,500 bales only) Japan was as hitherto, India's best customer and took 1,723,000 bales (value Rs 42,62 lakhs) or 46 per cent of the total quantity exported, as compared with 1,621,000 bales or 48 per cent, in 1922-23 and 1,760,000 bales or 59 per cent, in 1921-22.

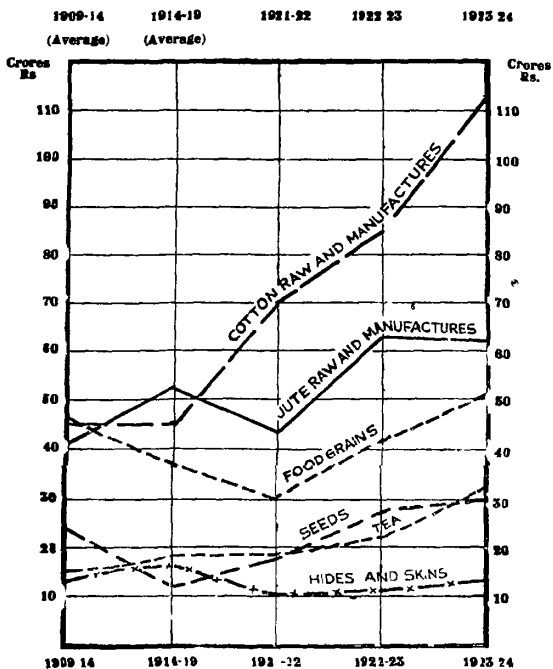
Cotton yarn—The production of yarn in the Indian mills during the year was the lowest on record since 1904-05, amounting only to 606½ million lbs as compared with 706 million lbs in 1922-23, 693 million lbs in 1921-1922, and 683 million lbs in 1913-14. In the early part of the year Indian yarns found themselves unable to compete with the cheaper Japanese yarns and the resulting fall in demand led to an accumulation of stocks. The disastrous earthquake in Japan in September was the direct cause of a brisker demand which had the effect of a considerable reduction in stocks and a temporary rise in prices. Thereafter owing to the abnormal rise in the price of raw cotton business became difficult and trade at the end of the year was in a depressed state. The mill strikes at Bombay and Ahmedabad in January February, were not unmixed evils, as they enabled mill owners to clear their stocks. Demand however was slack and there was no improvement in prices.

Cotton Piece goods—The previous year's depression in the Indian cotton mill industry continued through the first half of the year under review. Prices were reduced but in the absence of demand stocks still accumulated. There was a short-lived but valuable spurt in clearances during November and the first half of December which helped the mills to clear stocks and to put through a certain number of forward contracts. Thereafter, as in the case of imported goods, prices rose owing to the great increase in the cost of the raw material, and demand fell away. There is little direct competition between Manchester goods and Indian goods, but competition of Japanese piece-goods with the latter is severe. And it is significant that in 1923-24 imports from Japan reached the high figure of 123 million yards as compared with 108 million yards in 1922-23 and 90 million yards in 1921-22. The earthquake at the end of September gave a temporary set-back to Japanese supplies, and this was a factor which assisted the strengthening of demand for Indian goods from the end of October onwards. But the set-back was only temporary, as the Japanese cotton mills had not been working full time and the reduction in spindleage was partly offset at once by an increase in working hours.

Jute and Jute Manufactures—The figures of 1923-24 again showed an increase in weight, but this was accompanied by a slight decrease in value. The total weight of raw and manufactured jute shipped increased by 12½ per cent from 1,250,000 tons to 1,407,000 tons, but the value of the exports showed a fall of one per cent from Rs 63 crores to Rs 62½ crores. The following statement shows the quantities exported during 1913-14 and the last three years—

	1913-14	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Jute (in thousand tons)	768	468	578	690
Bags (in millions)	869	387	844	414
Cloth (in million yards)	1,061	1,121	1,254	1,349

EXPORTS.



Raw jute showed an increase in quantity of 14 per cent over 1922-23 but the figures were still 14 per cent below those of 1918-19. But it is satisfactory to note that the number of bags and the yardage of cloth exported were both greater than the corresponding figures of either the preceding year or the pre-war year.

Tea—The total production of tea in India

was estimated at 375 million lbs. in 1923, as compared with 312 million lbs. in 1922 and 274 million lbs. in 1921. Assam contributed 68 per cent or nearly two thirds of the total Northern India (excluding Assam) 25 per cent and Southern India nearly 12 per cent. The statement below shows the development of the industry during the past 18 years—

	1905	1915	1920	1921	1922	1923
<i>Acreage</i>	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Assam	339 200	382 800	420 200	417 200	412 100	411 800
Rest of Northern India	153 500	181 300	193 800	200 000	203 300	203 600
Southern India	33 800	68 000	88 400	91 200	92 800	94 900
Burma	1 500	2 800	1 700	(b)	(b)	(b)
TOTAL	528 000	634 900	704 100	709 000	708 200	710 300
<i>Production</i>	lrs (1 000)	lrs (1 000)	lrs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)
Assam	1 190.5	24.52	234.314	181.503	199.955	237.601
Rest of Northern India	4.8	94.695	(a) 5.23	61.362	75.126	92.076
Southern India	11.910	31.610	35.655	31.399	36.548	45.679
Burma	107	146	134	(b)	(b)	(b)
TOTAL	221 400	32 203	345 340	274 264	311 639	375 356

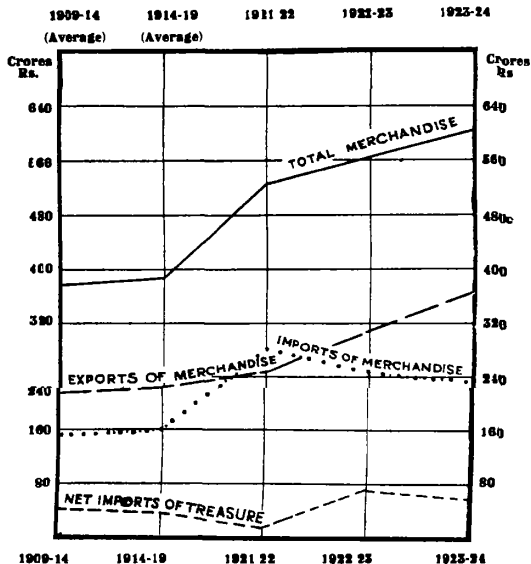
The total area under tea in India during 1923 was 710 000 acres as against 708 000 acres in the previous season and the estimated yield increased by 64 million lbs to 375 million lbs. Over 80

per cent of the area lies in Assam and in the adjoining districts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri. Exports during the same years were as follows—

	1905-06	1915-16	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	lrs (1 000)	lrs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)
From Northern India (Calcutta and Chittagong)	199.37	101.403	284.086	253.96	296.778
From Southern India (Madras ports)	12.680	25.840	27.233	30.386	38.580
From Bombay Sind and Burma	1.80	11.27	2.559	4.114	5.417
TOTAL	214.224	338.470	313.878	288.296	338.755

It will be observed from the above statements that the bulk of India's production is exported abroad, but local consumption is also reported to be steadily increasing.

During the last three years as Compared with Averages of the pre-war
and war periods (Private and Government)



Foodgrains and Flour—In 1923-24, the exports of foodgrains and flour amounted to 1,487,000 tons valued at nearly Rs. 51 crores, showing an increase of 22 per cent in quantity

and 20 per cent in value. The detailed exports during the last three years as compared with the average figures of the five pre-war years are shown in the following table—

	Pre-war average	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	Tons (000)	Tons (000)	Tons (000)	Tons (000)
Rice not in the husk	2,398	1,366	2,038	2,177
Rice in the husk	42	39	87	30
Rice flour				
Wheat	1,308	81	220	633
“ flour	55	64	50	57
Pulse	291	80	147	275
Barley	227	10	16	169
Jowar and bajra	41	5	13	14
Maise	40	2	23	57
Other sorts		5	1	1
TOTAL TONS (000)	4,411	1,633	2,598	3,429
VALUE Rs (lakhs)	4,581	2,999	4,248	5,087

The important crops are rice and wheat. Sixty-four per cent of the total quantity of grain, pulse and flour exported consisted of rice, 20 per cent wheat and wheat-flour, 8 per cent pulse including beans, gram, lentils, etc., and 5 per cent barley.

Wheat—Wheat is a cold-weather crop and consequently any year's exports are principally of the previous year's crop. The crop of 1922-23 was estimated at nearly 10 million tons on an area of 80½ million acres and showed a small increase over the estimated production (9.8 million tons) of 1921-22. The following table shows the figures of production and exports of wheat in the last four years and the pre-war year 1913-14—

Total production of wheat and total exports by sea to foreign countries

	Production	Exports.
	Tons (1,000)	Tons (1,000)
1913-14	8,367	1,205
1920-21	6,706	235
1921-22	9,530	51
1922-23	9,982	220
1923-24	9,754	633

Two excellent wheat-harvests in succession had filled local granaries and there was consequently a fair surplus for export. Shipments increased markedly from 220,000 tons valued at Rs. 2,44 lakhs to 638,000 tons valued at Rs. 9,11 lakhs in 1923-24.

Oilseeds—Seeds ranked fifth in order of importance in India's export trade, the first

four being cotton, jute, raw and manufactured, foodgrains and tea. The total exports showed an increase of nearly 7 per cent in quantity and 9 per cent in value and amounted to 1,265,000 tons, valued at Rs. 29,32 lakhs, as compared with 1,177,000 tons and Rs. 27,35 lakhs in 1922-23. Ninety five per cent. of the total quantity of oilseeds exported consisted of linseed (29.4 per cent.), rapeseed (26.8 per cent.), groundnuts (20 per cent.), cotton seed (12 per cent.), and castor seed (6.8 per cent.). The bulk of the oilseed crops are harvested towards the end of one financial year and marketed in the following year.

Hides and Skins—The exports of raw hides and skins increased by 7 per cent in quantity and 21 per cent in value from 45,700 tons valued at Rs. 5,71 lakhs in 1922-23 to 48,900 tons valued at Rs. 6,93 lakhs in 1923-24. The chief item of note was the increased exportation of raw hides due to two factors, stronger Continental demand, particularly from Germany and Italy, and the reduction in the export duty. Of cow skins Germany took 9,461 tons valued at Rs. 97 lakhs and Italy 4,894 tons valued at Rs. 45 lakhs in 1923-24, while Germany took 11,615 tons valued at Rs. 1,32 lakhs and Italy 5,386 tons valued at Rs. 57 lakhs in 1922-24, and of buffalo skins Germany took 1,124 tons valued at Rs. 7½ lakhs, and Italy 182 tons valued at Rs. 1½ lakhs in 1923-24, while Germany took 1,663 tons valued at Rs. 14 lakhs, and Italy 1,558 tons valued at Rs. 13½ lakhs in 1923-24. Thus in 1923-24 of the 25½ lakhs worth of raw hides exported from India, 21½ lakhs worth went to these two countries. The export duty on raw hides and skins was reduced, with effect from the 1st March, 1923, from 15 per cent. with a rebate of 10 per cent. on shipments tanned within the Empire, to an all-round rate of 5 per cent.

India's exports normally exceed her imports in the case of all the countries with which she deals in large quantities excepting the United Kingdom where the reverse has always been the case. It is however of interest to note that the excess of imports over exports in the case of the United Kingdom declined to Rs 41 crores in 1923-24 from Rs 70 crores and Rs 102 crores respectively in the two preceding years. The average during the five war years was only Rs 14 crores and that during the five years immediately preceding the war was Rs 8 crores.

The percentage share of the United Kingdom in the import trade fell from 60.2 in 1922-23 to 57.8 in 1923-24 while her share in the export trade increased from 22.4 to 25 per cent. The share of His Majesty's Dominions and other British Possessions in imports was 6.8 per cent almost on the level of the preceding year the smaller imports of Mauritius sugar being set off by larger arrivals of Kenya cotton. In the export trade their share fell from 18.3 to 13.9 per cent. The whole British Empire had 48.8 per cent of the total trade (64.6 per cent in imports and 88.9 per cent in exports) as compared with 52 per cent (87.2 per cent in imports and 40.7 per cent in exports) in 1922-23. The share of the United States of America in the import trade was 5.6 per cent being about the same as in the preceding year while her share in the export trade which showed some improvement in 1922-23 decreased in 1923-24 to 9.4 per cent from 11.1 per cent. Japan's share in the import trade showed no appreciable change but on the export side her share improved from 13 to 14.1 per cent owing to larger exports of cotton to that destination. Germany's share in imports was 5.2 per cent as compared with 5.1 per cent in 1922-23 while her share in the export trade decreased to 6.9 per cent from 7.2 per cent. Belgium had 2.4 per cent of the import trade and 3.8 per cent of exports as compared with 2.7 per cent and 3.6 per cent respectively in 1922-23. The share of Java in the import trade increased on account of larger imports of sugar from that country while Mauritius considerably reduced her supplies. Larger imports of raw cotton from Kenya Colony and coal from Portuguese East Africa increased the share of East Africa in the import trade.

In iron and steel the United Kingdom improved her position considerably in 1923-24 and had over 67 per cent of the trade as compared with 58 per cent in 1922-23 and nearly 70 per cent in the pre war year 1913-14 while the other important sources of supply Belgium Germany and the United States lost ground. The shares of Belgium and the United States were, however higher than before the war. In machinery the position of the United Kingdom was stationary at nearly 85 per cent while the United States of America slightly improved her share to 10.2 per cent as compared with 9.6 per cent in 1922-23 and 8.8 per cent in the pre war year 1913-14. The United Kingdom lost ground in hardware by 2.7 per cent to 46.9 per cent while the United States showed an increase of 1.3 per cent to 16.4 per cent. The shares of Germany and Japan showed small decreases. In mechanically propelled vehicles motor cars motor cycles etc Canada increased her share by 7 per cent to over 27

percent and the United States from nearly 33 per cent to over 35.3 per cent while the share of the United Kingdom further declined in the year under review from nearly 31 per cent to 26.2 per cent. The position of the United Kingdom in railway plant and rolling stock remained unchanged at 94.1 per cent. Under the head Instruments the United Kingdom improved her position, while that of the United States of America was the same as in the preceding year and Germany's share was reduced. In cotton manufactures the share of the United Kingdom decreased from 84.5 to nearly 82 per cent. Japan showed a small improvement from 11.7 to 12.4 per cent. In silk manufactures China improved her share from 31.5 to 34.6 per cent while Japan's share fell by from 61 per cent to 41 per cent and Italy improved her position from 7.3 to 11.7 per cent. Java dominates the sugar market and increased her share from 82 to 89.1 per cent while the share of Mauritius showed a heavy decrease and was only 0.4 per cent as compared with 6.6 per cent in 1922-23 and 16.9 per cent in the pre war year 1913-14. In liquors the share of the United Kingdom decreased while France and Germany improved their position. The United States of America decreased her share in mineral oils from 60.6 per cent to 54.4 per cent and the share of Persia also fell while that of Borneo increased. Germany considerably improved her position in the paper trade at the expense of Norway and Sweden.

Turning to the exports the United Kingdom increased her share in the tea trade from 86.8 to 88.4 per cent while Australia on account of the competition of Java tea further reduced her share to 0.9 per cent from 1.2 per cent in 1922-23 and 3.1 per cent in 1913-14. Direct trade with Russia does not yet claim a share and the portion taken by the Persian Gulf littoral also decreased. In raw jute Germany came first with 25.6 per cent as compared with 24.8 per cent while the share of the United Kingdom and the United States fell by more than 3 per cent each to 23 and 12 per cent respectively. In jute manufactures the noticeable feature was the fall in the share of the United States of America from 45.8 to 40.2 per cent. The United Kingdom, Australia and the Argentina showed small increases. The share of Japan in the exports of raw cotton again decreased in the year under review from 48.6 to 43.2 per cent and of China from nearly 15 to 7 per cent while Italy improved her position from 6.8 to 15.2 per cent and the United Kingdom from 5.9 to 8.7 per cent. Oilseeds is a composite head. The United Kingdom showed a small improvement from 28.8 to 29.7 per cent and France from 29.1 to 29.8 per cent. The shares taken by Belgium and Germany decreased while the Netherlands showed a small increase. Under foodgrains the United Kingdom considerably improved her position and was the best customer with 22.4 per cent as compared with 12.2 per cent in 1922-23 and 20.7 per cent in 1913-14. The shares of the other principal importing countries—Ceylon Germany and the Straits Settlements—showed decreases. In hides and skins the shares taken by both the United Kingdom and the United States fell from 42.3 and 25.6 to 40.1 and 24.3 per cent, respectively,

Germany and Italy improved their position while Spain considerably reduced her share.

Japan ranked second in importance in India's foreign trade as in the two preceding years. The value of her total trade with India increased to Rs 64½ crores from Rs 55 crores owing mainly to the increased price of raw cotton which constitutes the chief item in Indo Japanese trade. Imports from Japan decreased in value from Rs 14½ crores to Rs 13½ crores while exports rose from Rs 40 crores to nearly Rs 51 crores. Imports of cotton manufactures

including twist and yarn were valued at Rs 8½ crores as compared with Rs 8½ crores in 1922-23 and represented 60 per cent of the total import trade as against 56 per cent in the preceding year. Cotton piecegoods increased to 123 million yards valued at Rs 4½ crores from 108 million yards and Rs 4½ crores while twist and yarn fell to 20½ million lbs. valued at nearly Rs 3 crores from 26½ million lbs. and Rs 3½ crores in 1922-23. The following table gives the figures of imports under the three main groups of grey white and coloured goods—

In thousands of yards

	1913 14	1921 22	1922 23	1923 24.
Grey	7 108	83 490	90 037	96 172
White	58	1 861	2 375	2 307
Coloured, &c	1 735	4 924	15 366	23 422

There was again in 1923-24 a heavy decrease in the imports of matches from 8 million gross valued at Rs 1.15 lakhs in 1922-23 to 5¼ million gross and Rs 70 lakhs. The value of silk manufactures imported also fell from Rs 1.62 lakhs to Rs 1.99 lakhs both silk yarn and piecegoods sharing in the decrease. Glass and glassware were valued at nearly Rs 81 lakhs as compared with Rs 80 lakhs in 1922-23. Imports of coal hardware brass apparel and cement decreased while camphor umbrellas fittings and wood manufactures increased. Under exports raw cotton accounted for 84 per cent of the total value as in the two preceding years. The quantity rose by 6 per cent to 1,722,000 bales and the value by 24 per cent to Rs 42½ crores. Japan increased her demands of rice to 128,000 tons valued at Rs 2.12 lakhs from 80,000 tons and Rs 1.26 lakhs in 1922-23. Pig iron also increased by 32,000 tons to 144,000 tons valued at Rs 1.02 lakhs. The quantity of raw jute exported increased from 11,500 tons to 12,300 tons but the value decreased from Rs 28 lakhs to Rs 35 lakhs. The number of gunny bags exported increased from 10.8 millions to 11.4 millions and the value from Rs 43 lakhs to Rs 51 lakhs. Shipments of rapeseed and sesamum cakes bone meal sheep skins and indigo increased while there were decreases in shellac paraffin wax and pig lead.

The United States occupied the third place in India's foreign trade as in the two preceding years. The value of India's total trade with that country decreased by over a crore of rupees to nearly Rs 47 crores. Imports fell from Rs 13½ crores to Rs 12.8 crores and exports from Rs 34.9 crores to Rs 34 crores. The principal articles imported from the United States were mineral oils (Rs 4½ crores) machinery and mill work (Rs 2 crores), motor vehicles

(Rs 1 crore) iron and steel and hardware (Rs ½ crore each). These five articles accounted for 70 per cent of the total import trade as in the two years 1921-22 and 1922-23. Imports of mineral oils increased from 53.8 million gallons to nearly 58 million gallons and the value from Rs 4.12 lakhs to Rs 4.56 lakhs. Machinery and mill work decreased by 12 per cent in value to Rs 1.96 lakhs. The quantity of iron and steel imported again decreased in 1923-24 by 52 per cent from 88,000 tons to 18,000 tons and the value by 47 per cent from Rs 1.39 lakhs to Rs 73 lakhs. Imports of motor cars increased to 2,866 in number valued at Rs 69½ lakhs from 1,386 and Rs 44 lakhs in 1922-23 while hardware decreased from Rs 77½ lakhs to Rs 72 lakhs. There were increases under railway plant and rolling stock imported and aniline dyes while sugar, copper braziers and sheets cotton piecegoods and cigars/smokes decreased. The value of instruments showed a small improvement of Rs ½ lakh. The number of rubber tyres for motor vehicles increased from 23,800 to 25,800, but the value fell from Rs 16 lakhs to Rs 18½ lakhs.

The bulk of the exports to the United States consisted of raw and manufactured jute (Rs 10½ crores) shellac (Rs 5 crores) raw hides and skins (Rs 3 crores) and raw cotton and castor seed (about one crore each). These articles accounted for 86 per cent of the total value of exports to the United States as compared with 90 per cent in 1922-23.

Germany occupied the fourth place in India's foreign trade as in the preceding year. The value of the imports was nearly Rs 12 crores as in 1922-23 while exports increased by 11 per cent to Rs 25 crores. The total value of the Indo German trade increased by Rs 2½ crores to Rs 37 crores. The following figures show the value of the Indo German trade

Balance of Trade.

During the past three years as compared with the pre-war average:—

	Pre-war average	1921-22.	1922-23	1923-24.
	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)
Imports .	9,35	7,25	11,89	11,89
Exports, including re-exports	22,36	16,34	22,64	25,11

It will be observed that the balance of trade is in India's favour by over Rs 18 crores as compared with Rs 11 crores in 1922-23 and Rs 13 crores, the pre-war average

Balance of Trade and Movements of Treasure

Balance of Trade.—There was a large surplus of exports over imports of private merchandise in the year under review, amounting to over Rs 184 crores as compared with a credit balance of Rs 82 crores in 1912-23 and a debit balance of Rs 21 crores in 1921-22. The average credit balance was Rs 78 crores in the five pre-war years and Rs 76 crores in the five war years.

The following table shows the movements of merchandise and the trade balance in each month of 1923-24 —

Month	Private merchandise		(In lakhs of rupees)	
	Imports	Exports	Excess Net Imports— Net Exports+	Excess in the corresponding month of 1922-23
1923—				
April	21,00	30,67	+ 9,67	+ 5,96
May	19,28	30,10	+ 10,82	+ 8,51
June	18,01	29,89	+ 11,88	+ 8,08
July	16,39	16,10	+ 9,71	+ 6,31
August	17,01	23,43	+ 6,42	+ 4,04
September	18,71	23,42	+ 4,71	+ 3,41
October	20,59	25,53	+ 4,94	— 1,27
November	210	27,63	+ 6,53	+ 8,19
December	16,41	30,70	+ 15,29	+ 8,89
1924—				
January	22,61	36,95	+ 14,34	+ 8,06
February	18,19	35,78	+ 17,54	+ 12,28
March	19,31	41,76	+ 22,45	+ 14,13
Total	2,27,61	3,61,91	+ 1,34,30	— 31,61

Movements of Treasure—The following table shows the imports of coin and bullion on private account during the last three years as compared with the averages of the pre war and war periods—

ERRATA.

Page 805 Column I, line 4, for "Rs. 21 crores" read "Rs. 22 crores."

Column II, last paragraph, lines 3 and 4, for "3rd and the 5th January 1924" read "13th February 1924"

	1922	1923	1924	1925	—12 16
1922 23	41 91	13	20 71	2 64	59 35
1923 24	29 25	6	21 78	3 40	—47 57

Imports of gold decreased from Rs 41 crores to Rs 29 crores mainly owing to its increased price. Gold bullion decreased by Rs 9 crores to Rs 21 crores owing to smaller shipments from the United Kingdom and France and the value of sovereigns and other British gold coin imported also decreased from Rs 10 crores to Rs 7 crores due mainly to smaller arrivals from the United Kingdom and Western Australia. Of the total value of gold imported during the year under review the United Kingdom contributed Rs 16½ crores Australia and New Zealand Rs 2½ crores Natal Rs 3½ crores and the United States Rs 2½ crores. France also supplied Rs 1½ crores and Aden and Mesopotamia together Rs 2½ crores. South African gold was diverted to India after the mines were released in August 1923 from their obligations to send the whole production to the United Kingdom. Besides these imports gold equivalent to 2 million sovereigns was sold by the Government of India in London for delivery in India against sterling paid to the Secretary of State in London. The exports of gold were valued at Rs 6½ lakhs as compared with Rs 18 lakhs in the previous year. The sterling price of gold per ounce in London reached the highest point at 98s on the 21st January 1924 and closed at 96s at the end of March the corresponding highest and lowest quotations for 1922 23 being 95s in April 1922 and 88s 2d in March 1923. In Bombay the price of gold per tola rose from Rs 25 3 on the 1st April 1923 to Rs 26 6 on the 31st March 1924 the corresponding quotations for 1922 23 being Rs 25-13 in April 1922 and Rs 25 2 in March 1923.

In the case of silver however the imports on private account established a fresh record the gross imports exceeding the previous year's figures by about a crore and amounting to Rs 21 4-5 crores, owing to larger arrivals

of bar silver from the United States. Imports of the white metal into India during the year were consigned principally from the United Kingdom (nearly Rs 10 crores) the United States (Rs 8½ crores) Australia and New Zealand (Rs 89 lakhs) Mauritius (Rs 86 lakhs) Mesopotamia (Rs 38 lakhs) China (Rs 30 lakhs) and Arabia (Rs 25 lakhs). It is worthy of note that while the imports from the United Kingdom remained stationary those from the United States of America more than doubled in the year under review. The value of silver exported rose by Rs 86 lakhs to Rs 3 40 lakhs there being larger shipments to China (Rs 1½ crores) Mauritius (Rs 70 lakhs) and Ceylon (Rs 30 lakhs). Imports on Government account were valued at Rs 82 lakhs as compared with Rs 23 lakhs a year ago. The increase was due to larger arrivals of Government of India rupees from Aden and Mesopotamia. Exports of silver on Government account were considerably reduced being valued at Rs 52 000 only as against Rs 5 lakhs in 1922 23.

Imports of currency notes increased from Rs 1 02 lakhs to Rs 1 17 lakhs on private account and from Rs 80 lakhs to Rs 68 lakhs on Government account while exports decreased from Rs 11 to Rs 9 lakhs on private and from Rs 18½ to Rs 11 lakhs on Government account.

Silver prices were lower and steadier in 1923 24 than in 1922 23. The highest point 34½d per ounce was reached on the 3rd and the 5th January 1924 and the lowest point 30½d was touched on the 11th 16th and 30th July and 24th August 1923. The difference between the highest and the lowest prices was thus 3½d as compared with the variation of 7d between the highest price 37½d on the 22nd May 1923 and the lowest 30½d on the 15th December 1922.

Import and Export Trade.

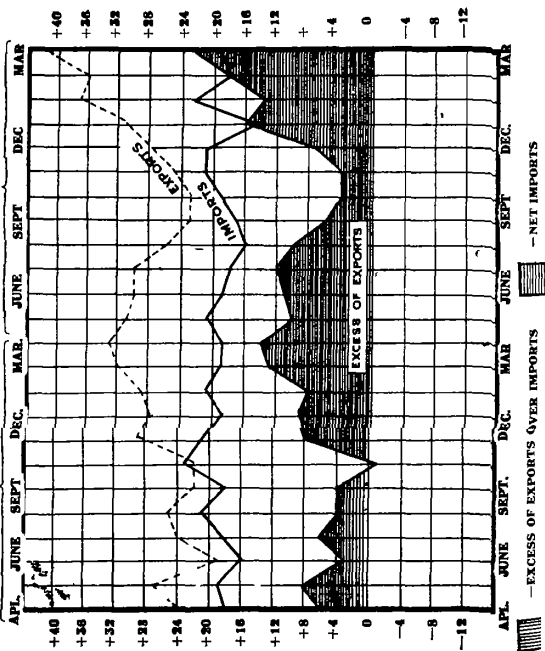
The following table shows the imports from and exports to European and other foreign countries —

Countries	Imports				Exports			
	1920-21		1921-22		1922-23		1923-24	
	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)	Rs (lakhs)
European Countries								
Russia	22	5	1	15				
Sweden	1,89	96	1,13	133		28	25	28
Norway	1,70	38	82	68		25	38	38
Germany	4,75	7,25	11,89	11,89		16,34	22,64	25,11
Netherlands	3 03	2,36	2,22	2,28		2,73	4,08	5,96
Belgium	5,33	3,33	6,32	5,31		8,03	11,37	13,90
France	3,64	2,23	1,96	2,23		9,90	15,57	20,05
Spain	34	29	6	9		1,84	3,17	3,79
Switzerland	2,28	1,02	1,10	1 63		1	2	1
Italy	4,13	2,90	2,10	2 73		5,85	10,29	21,82
Austria	64	20	29	76		85	1,26	1,54
Hungary				42				
Turkey, European	10					24	28	46
Other Countries	19	52	90	1,67		58	88	1 33
Total European Countries	28,24	22,59	29,00	31,82	45,46	46 90	70,21	94,63

DIRECTION OF TRADE

Table showing the Share of the British Empire and Foreign Countries in the total trade of India

	1920-21				1921-22				1922-23				1923-24			
	Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports	
	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)	Rs (Crores)
United Kingdom	56	205	-149	49	151	-102	70	140	-70	90	132	-42	90	132	-42	90
Other British Possessions	54	17	+ 37	52	26	+ 20	68	16	+ 42	51	15	+ 36	51	15	+ 36	51
TOTAL BRITISH EMPIRE	110	222	-112	101	177	-76	138	156	-28	141	147	-6	141	147	-6	141
Europe	45	28	+ 17	47	23	+ 24	69	29	+ 40	95	31	+ 64	95	31	+ 64	95
United States of America	38	35	+ 3	26	22	+ 4	35	13	+ 22	34	13	+ 21	34	13	+ 21	34
Japan	24	26	- 2	39	14	+ 26	41	14	+ 27	51	14	+ 37	51	14	+ 37	51
Other Foreign Countries	41	25	+ 16	32	30	+ 2	40	20	+ 20	41	23	+ 18	41	23	+ 18	41
TOTAL FOREIGN COUNTRIES	148	114	+ 34	144	89	+ 55	186	76	+ 109	221	81	+ 140	221	81	+ 140	221
GRAND TOTAL	258	336	-78	245	266	-21	314	232	+ 81	362	228	+ 134	362	228	+ 134	362

Imports and Exports Trade of India (Private Merchandise only) and Excess of Exports over Imports.
1922-23 1923-24

Bombay Stamp Duties.

	Rs. a		Rs. a
<i>Acknowledgment of Debt</i> ex. Rs. 20	0 1	<i>Bill of Lading</i>	0 8
<i>Affidavit or Declaration</i>	2 0	<i>Bond</i> (not otherwise provided for)—	
<i>Agreement or Memo of Agreement—</i>		Not exc. Rs. 10	0 2
(a) If relating to the sale of a bill of exchange	0 4	Exc. Rs. 10, but not exc. Rs. 50	0 4
(b) If relating to sale of a Government security, or share in an incorporated company or other body corporate—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, a. 2 for every Rs. 10,000 or part.		Exc. Rs. 50, but not exc. Rs. 100	0 8
(c) If not otherwise provided for	1 0	Exc. Rs. 100 & does not exc. Rs. 200	1 0
<i>Appointments in execution of a power—</i>		Exc. Rs. 200 & does not exc. Rs. 300	2 4
(a) Of trustees	15 0	Up to Rs. 1,000, every Rs. 100 or part	0 12
(b) Of properly moveable or immoveable	30 0	For every Rs. 500 or part, beyond Rs. 1,000	3 12
<i>Articles of Association of Company—</i>		<i>Bond, Administration, Customs, Security or Mortgage Deed—For amount not exceeding Rs. 1,000, same duty as a Bond</i>	
(a) Where the company has no share capital or the nominal share capital does not exceed Rs. 2,500	25 0	In any other case	10
(b) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 2,500 but does not exceed Rs. 1,00,000	50 0	<i>Cancellation</i>	5
(c) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 1,00,000	100 0	<i>Certificates or other Document relating to Shares</i>	0
<i>Articles of Clerkship</i>	250 0	<i>Charter Party</i>	2 0
<i>Award, any decision in writing by an Arbitrator, other than by an Order of the Court. The same duty as a Bond for the amount or value of the property to which the award relates as set forth in such award subject to a maximum</i>	20 0	<i>Cheques</i>	0 1
<i>Bill of Exchange payable on demand</i>	0 1	<i>Composition—Deed</i>	20 0
Where payable otherwise than on demand but not more than one year after date or sight (if drawn singly)—Not exc. Rs. 200, a. 3, exc. Rs. 200, not exc. Rs. 400, a. 6, exc. Rs. 400, not exc. Rs. 600, a. 9, exc. Rs. 600, not exc. Rs. 800, a. 12, exc. Rs. 800, not exc. Rs. 1,000, a. 15, exc. Rs. 1,000, not exc. Rs. 1,200, R. 1 a. 2, exc. Rs. 1,200, not exc. Rs. 1,600, R. 1 a. 8, exc. Rs. 1,600, not exc. Rs. 2,000, R. 2 a. 4, exc. Rs. 2,500, not exc. Rs. 5,000, R. 4 a. 8, exc. Rs. 5,000, not exc. Rs. 7,500, R. 6 a. 12, exc. Rs. 7,500, not exc. Rs. 10,000, R. 9, exc. Rs. 10,000, not exc. Rs. 15,000, R. 13 a. 8, exc. Rs. 15,000, not exc. Rs. 20,000, R. 18, exc. Rs. 20,000, not exc. Rs. 25,000, R. 23 a. 8, exc. Rs. 25,000, not exc. Rs. 30,000, R. 27, and for every add. Rs. 10,000, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 30,000, Rs. 2		<i>Conveyance, not being a Transfer—</i>	
Where payable at more than one year after date or sight, same duty as a Bond.		Not exceeding Rs. 50	0 8
		Exceeding Rs. 50, not exceeding Rs. 100	1 0
		Exceeding Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 200	2 0
		Exceeding Rs. 200 but does not exceed Rs. 300	4 8
		For every Rs. 100 or part in excess of Rs. 100 up to Rs. 1,000	1 8
		For every Rs. 500, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 1,000	7 8
		<i>Copy or Extract—If the original was not chargeable with duty, or if duty with which it was chargeable does not exceed 1 Rupee</i>	1 0
		In any other case	2 0
		<i>Counterpart or Duplicate—If the duty with which the original instrument is chargeable does not exceed one rupee—The same duty as is payable on the original. In any other case</i>	2 0
		<i>Delivery Order</i>	0 1
		<i>Entry in any High Court of an Advocate or Vakil</i>	0 0
		In the case of an Attorney	500 0
		<i>Instruments—Apprenticeship</i>	10 0
		Divorce	2 0
		Other than Will, recording an adoption or conferring or purporting to confer Authority to adopt	20 0

	Rs. a		Rs. a
Lease —Where rent is fixed and no premium is paid, for less than 1 year, same duty as Bond for whole amount, not more than 3 years, same as Bond for average annual rent reserved, over 3 years, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to amount or value of the average annual rent reserved, for indefinite term, same as Conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount or value of the average annual rent which would be paid or delivered for the first ten years if the lease continued so long, in perpetuity, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to one fifth of rents paid in respect of first 50 years. Where there is premium and no rent, same as Conveyance for amount of premium. Premium with rent, same as Conveyance or amount of premium in addition to the duty which would have been payable on the lease if no fine or premium or advance had been paid or delivered.		In respect of each receipt for any payment of a premium on any renewal of an original policy—One half of the duty payable in respect of the original policy in addition to the amount, if any, chargeable under Art 53 (Receipts)	
Letter —Allotment of Shares	0 2	(4) Accident and Sickness —Against Railway accident, valid for a single journey only	0
Credit	0 2	In any other case—for the maximum amount which may become payable in the case of any single accident of sickness where such amount does not exceed Rs. 1,000, and also where amount exc Rs 1,000, for every Rs 1,000 or part	0 2
License	10 0	(5) Life, or other Insurance, not specially provided for —	
Memo of Association of Company —If accompanied by Articles of Association	80 0	For every sum insured not exceeding Rs 250	0 2
If not so accompanied	80 0	For every sum insured exceeding Rs 250 but not exceeding Rs 500	0 4
Notarial Act	2 0	For every sum of Rs 1,000 in excess of Rs 500	0 6
Notes or Memo intimating the purchase or sale—		If drawn in duplicate, for each part—	
(a) Of any Goods exceeding in value Rs 20	0 4	Half the above rates	
(b) Of any Stock or marketable Security exceeding in value Rs 20—Subject to a maximum of Rs 20, a 2 for every Rs 10,000, or part		In case of a re-insurance by one Company with another— $\frac{1}{2}$ of duty payable in respect of the original insurance, but not less than 1 anna, or more than 1 R	
Note of Protest by a Ship's Master	1 0	Policies of all classes of Insurance not included in Article 47 of Schedule 1 of Stamp Act of 1899 covering goods Merchandise personal effects, trunks and other property against loss or damage, are liable to the same duty as Policies of Fire Insurance	
Partnership —Where the capital does not exceed Rs 500	5 0	Power of Attorney —	
In any other case	20 0	For the sole purpose of procuring the registration of one or more documents in relation to a single transaction or for admitting execution of one or more such documents	1 0
Dissolution of	10 0	When required in suits or proceedings under the Presidency Small Causes Courts Act 1882	1 0
Policy of Insurance —		Authorising 1 person or more to act in a single transaction other than that mentioned above	2 0
(1) Sea —Where premium does not exceed rate of 2a, or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of amount insured	0 1	Authorising not more than 5 persons to act jointly and severally in more than 1 transaction, or generally	10 0
In any other case for Rs. 1,500 or part thereof	0 1	Authorising more than 5 but not more than 10 persons to act	20 0
(2) For time —For every Rs 1,000 or part insured, not exc. 6 months	0 2	When given for consideration and authorising the Attorney to sell any immoveable property—The same duty as a Conveyance for the amount of the consideration.	
Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 12 months	0 4	In any other case, for each person authorised	2 0
If drawn in duplicate, for each part—Half the above rates, for Sea and Time			
(3) Fire —When the sum insured does not exceed Rs. 5,000	0 8		
In any other case	1 0		

	Rs.	Rs.
Promissory Notes—		
(a) When payable on demand—		
(i) When the amount or value does not exceed Rs 250	0 1	
(ii) When the amount or value exceeds Rs 250 but does not exceed Rs 1,000	0 2	
(iii) In any other case	0 4	
(b) When payable otherwise than on demand—The same duty as a Bill of exchange for the same amount payable otherwise than on demand		
<i>Protest of Bill or Note</i>	2 0	
<i>Protest by the Master of a Ship</i>	2 0	
<i>Provy</i>	0 2	
<i>Receipt for value exo Rs 20</i>	0 1	
Reconveyance of mortgaged property—		
(a) If the consideration for which the property was mortgaged does not exceed Rs 1,000—the same duty as a Bond for the amount of such consideration as set forth in the Reconveyance		
(b) In any other case	10 0	
Release—that is to say, any instrument whereby a person renounces a claim upon another person or against any specified property—		
(a) If the amount or value of the claim does not exceed Rs 1,000—the same duty as a Bond for such amount or value as set forth in the Release.		
(b) In any other case	10 0	
Respondentia Bond—The same duty as a Bond for the amount of the loan secured		
Security Bond—(a) when the amount secured does not exceed Rs 1,000—the same duty as a Bond for the amount secured.		
(b) In any other case	10 0	
Settlement—The same duty as a Bond for the sum equal to the amount or value of the property—settled as set forth in such settlement.		
Revocation of Settlement—The same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned as set forth in the instrument of revocation but not exceeding ten rupees.		
Share-warrant to bearer issued under the Indian Companies Act—One and a half times the duty payable on a conveyance for a consideration equal to the nominal amount of the shares specified in the warrant		
Shipping Order		
Surrender of Lease—When duty with which lease is chargeable does not exceed Rs 5—The duty with which such Lease is chargeable.		
In any other case		5 0
Transfer of Shares—One half of the duty payable on a Conveyance for a consideration equal to the value of the share.		
Transfer of any Interest secured by a Bond, Mortgage-deed, or Policy of Insurance—If duty on such does not exceed Rs. 5—The duty with which such Bond, &c., is chargeable.		
In any other case		10 0
—Of any property under the Administrator General's Act 1874, Section 31.		10 0
—of any trust property without consideration from one trustee to another trustee or from a trustee to a beneficiary—five rupees or such smaller amount as may be chargeable for transfer of shares.		
Transfer of Lease by way of assignment and not by way of under lease—The same duty as a conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount of the consideration for the transfer		
Trust, Declaration of—Same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned, but not exceeding		15 0
Revocation of—Ditto, but not exceeding		10 0
Warrant for Goods		0 8

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.

At the commencement of the year there were six coast stations for communication with ships and twelve inland stations together with three stations in the Bay of Bengal, maintained by the Department of Posts and Telegraphs. In the latter part of 1921 and beginning of 1922 the question of bringing the inland stations up to date was re-considered. These stations were built some years ago and are entirely un-

dermoderised so as to form a high-speed network to supplement the existing land lines. This was termed the "Inland" system. It was further decided that local governments should be permitted to erect groups of small stations to feed and distribute from the Inland system. These are called "Feeder" stations. In addition it was decided to allow private indi-

private purposes under license. Owing to the necessity for curtailing all unproductive expenditure, the end of 1922 saw the definite postponement of the development of the Inland scheme and consequently it is unlikely that any Feeder stations will be erected in the near future.

Progress Delayed—The Department of Posts and Telegraphs now keeps only the Coast stations fully open. The Inland stations have been placed on a basis which enables their valuable plant to be kept in working order but they perform no services. This together with the closing and dismantling of two or three small or entirely unproductive stations will result in considerable saving, a portion of which it is proposed to use annually to bring the stations up to date. Therefore no improvement in the general radio service will be apparent for some time. In the meanwhile the high speed service between Rangoon and Madras is nearing completion which should considerably improve the telegraph facilities between these places and prove remunerative. The improvement of existing stations referred to consists in putting in modern radio plant and providing that the stations are operated from the local telegraph offices. If a pair of stations can be so treated each year the main links of the Inland service should be complete in about five years.

Long Distance—A great deal of valuable experimental work has been carried out and considerable improvement in working, especially as regards long distance reception and the reduction of atmospheric effects has resulted. An experimental service from England was given a good trial during the year and this has now developed into a regular service for a short period each day at 75% of the existing cable rates. From this we should obtain experience which will be most valuable when the Imperial station is being designed.

Very little progress has been made as regards the Indian station for the Imperial scheme, but signs are not wanting that a long delayed decision will shortly be arrived at. The position of India in respect to other radio stations in the world demands the most efficient station if all the traffic which will be on offer is to be accepted and dealt with on a commercial basis.

Broadcasting—Proposals to permit Broadcasting by private enterprise have been worked out and are now only awaiting the settlement of some minor details before being formally presented to Government. There is no question that India will offer very great possibilities to a properly organised broadcasting service not only for entertainment and educational purposes but also for business purposes, i.e., broadcasting quotations, business news, etc.

It was intended to proceed with the erection of a Government radio school at Karachi to take

the place of the existing temporary and inadequate establishment and to include therein suitable workshops and an experimental establishment. This has been postponed in view of the financial situation and the instruction of Government and private students must perforce be continued in the temporary premises. During the year the school has been fairly well occupied with training students for the Department, Army and also a few from Indian States.

The question of the organisation of State owned radio sets in the States in India has been considered and will probably be settled this year. In the meanwhile some of the States are purchasing small sets, mostly for telephony.

Private Agency—A large number of licenses have been granted to private persons in British India for the erection of sets and the form of radio work should steadily develop more especially as the manufacture and scale of apparatus in India by private enterprise is in contemplation. There is no doubt that the majority of parts for small radio sets could be more cheaply manufactured in this country than they can be imported and further such an industry would find the right kind of skilled labour already in India.

Prospects—Finally, the development of radio by Government has been almost entirely restricted for the reasons given above, but the development by private enterprise has been encouraged and it is to this source that India must look in the immediate future for internal radio communication. There are three most promising lines of development, viz—

(a) Erection of small sets either for speech or Morse in districts where no land lines exist and to link such districts with the existing landlines. In this connection it may be remarked that modern small radio sets are capable of using either Morse or speech at will and if used for speech can be operated by the ordinary desk telephone instrument in daily use all over India.

(b) Broadcasting

(c) The use of radio as a substitute for land line to form the trunk telephone route between two cities which already have telephone facilities.

All of these will open up a new industry which if properly fostered would very soon extend its sales outside the limits of India.

In the meanwhile a great deal of work has been done both as regards legislature and general organisation to clear the ground, with the result that Government is in the position to exercise the complete control over radio development while at the same time being able, because of its powers, to foster private enterprise to the fullest possible extent.

The Indian National Congress.

For a complete history of the movement represented by the Indian National Congress the reader is referred to earlier editions of The Indian Year Book. The Congress was founded in 1885 by Mr Allan Octavian Hume, a retired member of the Indian Civil Service, and it held its first session in Bombay at Christmas of that year, the fundamental principles of the Congress were laid down to be—

Firstly, the fusion into one national whole of all the different and discordant elements that constitute the population of India,

Secondly, the gradual regeneration, along all lines, mental, moral, social and political of the nation thus evolved, and

Thirdly the consolidation of union between England and India by securing the modification of such of the conditions as may be unjust or injurious to the latter country

With these objects in view the Congress pursued an uneventful career until 1907. It undoubtedly exercised a great influence in inducing a spirit of national unity amongst the diverse peoples of India, in focussing the chief political grievances, and in providing a training ground for Indian politicians. But in 1907 the Extremists, chiefly of the Deccan and the Central Provinces, who had for some time chafed under the control of the older generation, succeeded

in wrecking the Surat session of the Congress and produced a split which had long been seen to be imminent. The senior members of the Congress therefore re-organised its work on definite terms. They laid down that—

"The objects of the Indian National Congress are the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self governing members of the British Empire, and a participation by them in the rights and responsibilities of the Empire on equal terms with those members. These objects are to be achieved by constitutional means by bringing about a steady reform of the existing system of administration and by promoting national unity, fostering public spirit and developing and organising the intellectual moral economic and industrial resources of the country"

For some years following 1907 efforts were made to heal the split and these were without avail until 1916 when a reunited Congress met at Lucknow under the presidency of Babu Ambika Charan Muzumdar of Faridpur in Bengal. But the union then effected was purely superficial, the difference between the Moderates and the Extremists was fundamental, the Extremists captured the machinery of the Congress and from the period of the special session held at Calcutta in September 1920 the Congress passed entirely under the domination of Mr Gandhi.

THE NON-CO-OPERATION MOVEMENT

It was in 1920 that Mr Gandhi, who had only in the previous year unsuccessfully started his Passive Resistance struggle as a protest against the Rowlatt Act, conceived his idea of non-co-operation. Originally intended to be a protest against the British policy towards Turkey, the "fighting" of two other grievances was later on added to its first object, namely the punishment of officials in the Punjab Martial Law regime and the securing of Swaraj for India. Mr Gandhi and Mr Shaikat Ali were able in 1920 to get the Calcutta Special Congress to endorse their programme of "progressive non-violent non-co-operation" which was reiterated by the annual session at Nagpur, which, on Mr Gandhi's motion, changed its old creed into "the attainment by India of Swaraj by all legitimate and peaceful means". Before and after the Nagpur session, the Congress leaders claimed large success for their movement in the boycott of Government-aided schools, boycott of Law Courts, the collections to Tilak Swaraj Fund and the stimulation of the use of khaddar (see the Indian Year Book, 1922, pp 689, 690). The stern measures adopted by local Governments led to the imprisonment of a large number of active Congressmen with the result that the Ahmedabad Congress in 1921 made a "grim resolve" to challenge the "repression movement" by appointing Mr Gandhi as dictator and by resolving to start a "No Tax" campaign at Bardoli. The riots in Chauri Chaura in 1922, preceded by the Bombay riots in 1921 during the Prince of Wales' visit (see 1922 and 1924 editions of this book) opened Mr. Gandhi's eyes to the impossibility of main-

taining a non-violent atmosphere under existing conditions. He suspended his proposed civil disobedience campaign, and replaced it by what is known as the Bardoli Programme which suspended all the aggressive items of non-co-operation in favour of the promotion of inter-communal unity and khaddar. Soon after, Mr Gandhi was arrested for sedition, tried and sentenced to undergo imprisonment for six years (See 1923 and 1924 editions).

This turn of events threw cold water on the enthusiasm of non-co-operators who got discouraged. In order, therefore, to sound the country's readiness for aggressive action once more, the All India Congress Committee appointed a Committee, known as the Civil Disobedience Committee, in June 1922. The Committee toured the country and in October, 1922, produced two reports, one favouring council entry to offer obstruction to Government and the other recommending the adoption of the Bardoli Programme. A battle royal ensued between the two parties at the Gaya Congress. The anti-Council Party won the day and the Councilites, led by the Congress President Mr C. R. Das, formed the Swarajya Party in order to push their own Council programme. The Swarajya Party by its continuous propaganda gained considerable support in the country. The No-Change Party seeing the trend of public opinion got the Congress to lift the ban on Council entry. The Swarajists secured a large number of seats in various provincial Councils and in the Assembly. The annual Congress at Comragh, under the presidency of Mr. Mahomed Ali, put an end to the Council entry controversy.

THE CONGRESS IN 1924.

The Congress had an eventful career in 1924. Mr. Gandhi, who had an attack of appendicitis of a serious form in the Yerowda Jail was released by the Government of Bombay immediately, the No-Changers revived their hopes of fighting the Swarajists to a finish. In the meanwhile the Swarajists in the Assembly and in the C P and Bengal provincial Councils managed to get the respective budgets rejected. This, preceded by their refusal to take office in Bengal and C P, appealed to the popular imagination. The scene of activities suddenly changed to Juhu near Bombay, where Mr. Gandhi had gone for his convalescence. He invited Messrs C R Das and Motilal Nehru the Swarajist leaders to discuss the political situation. Political India was in a feverish state and was indulging in speculations of all sorts over the Council entry question. After nearly six weeks discussion in May 1924 Mr. Gandhi in a statement to the Press definitely dissociated himself from the Council Programme and the Swarajist obstructive policy while the Swarajist leaders in a separate statement defended their policy. Public controversy again centred round the Council question. The differences culminated in June at Ahmedabad when Mr. Gandhi succeeded against Swarajist opposition in getting the All India Congress Committee to endorse his policy of excluding Swarajists from that body. Though at the same meeting he subsequently got the original decision rescinded he shocked the Swarajists by his spinning resolution which made it incumbent on the Swarajists and No Changers alike to send 2,000 yards of handspun yarn every month. The Swarajist protests were of no avail.

The Bengal Ordinance

After the Ahmedabad meeting, Mr. Gandhi realised the serious differences in the country and wrote in his paper to the effect that people who were the first to vote with him were the last to follow him. The serious state of communal tension in various parts of India added to Mr. Gandhi's worries. He therefore set himself to bring about unity once more between the warring elements in the country.

In the meanwhile, the Government of Bengal with the sanction of the Governor General pro-

mulgated an Ordinance in order to check the forces of the growing revolutionary movement in Bengal. Under this Ordinance and under Regulation III of 1818 they effected several arrests including a few Swarajists. Mr. C R Das at once set the cry that the Government of Bengal feeling the growing power of the Swarajists got the Ordinance promulgated only to suppress the Swarajist movement. He therefore appealed for unity in the country to fight the Communists. Mr. Gandhi went to Calcutta and after a series of consultations with the Swarajist leaders drew up what is now known as the Gandhi Swarajist Pact by which Mr. Gandhi agreed to suspend the non-co operation movement and to recognise the Swarajists as the accredited representatives of the Congress on legislative bodies while in return the Swarajists agreed to his spinning franchise which had down 2,000 yards of hand spun yarn every month as the subscription to Congress membership instead of the four annas a year as decided by the Nagpur Congress.

Before this agreement was arrived at Mr. Gandhi turned his activities to the communal tension in the Punjab. Finding his advice for unity to be of no avail he decided to observe a three weeks' fast at Delhi in August last. A Conference of leaders of several communities was summoned by Mahomed Ali and the Conference dispersed after passing some resolutions in favour of Hindu Moslem unity.

Bombay Conference

This Conference was succeeded by another at Bombay in November 1924. Its object was to secure a united platform of all parties once more under the Congress flag. The Conference after a prolonged discussion passed a resolution condemning the Bengal Ordinance, but would not characterise it as directed against the Swarajists. On the principal subject, namely, the securing of unity of all parties the Conference contented itself by appointing a Committee of more than a hundred persons with power to co-opt Mrs. Besant, Mr. Sastri, Mr. Chintamani, Mr. Das, Mr. Nehru and a host of others representing different parties took part in the Conference besides Mr. Gandhi.

THE BELGAUM CONGRESS.

The Congress which met at Belgaum during Christmas week under Mr. Gandhi's presidency was a tame affair. It was the only Congress, however, which concluded within 24 hours of its opening. Just prior to the Congress meeting Mr. Gandhi succeeded in enlisting the No-Changers' support to his pact with the Swarajists. The principal objection to the pact raised by the No-Changers was that the Swarajists should not be raised to the status of being officially recognised by the Congress. But Mr. Gandhi having succeeded in enlisting the support of No-Changers at a private Conference, the work before the Congress was smooth sailing. Mr. Gandhi's presidential address was a defence of his pact and the spinning franchise. The

Congress at his instance endorsed the Bengal Pact and changed its franchise to 2,000 yards of charka yarn every month as above referred to. Mrs. Besant who had, since the inauguration of the non co-operation movement, been opposing the Nagpur creed signed it and attended the Belgaum Congress as a delegate. It is noteworthy that she accepted the spinning franchise. The Congress also condemned the Bengal Ordinance and supported Messrs Gandhi, Das and Nehru in the view that it was directed against the Swarajists. Among the other resolutions passed by the Congress was one suspending the non co-operation programme. Thus the movement received its final burial at the hands of the very author of its being.

The National Liberal Federation.

The definite breach between the moderate and extremist elements in the Congress at its special session in Bombay in August 1918 (vide 1919 edition of this book) witnessed the birth of the National Liberal Federation which has, since then, been the platform of Indian moderate leaders. It held its first session in Bombay in 1918, Sir Surendranath Banerjee presiding. The federation adopted for its creed the old Congress formula which was set aside by the Nagpur Congress. The 1924 session of this body met at Lucknow during Christmas under the Presidentship of Dr R. P. Paranjpye, ex Minister of Education to the Government of Bombay. Dr Paranjpye's presidential address was an earnest plea for the continuance of the methods of Mehta and Gokhale in their political pursuits. The President condemned the non-cooperation movement and expressed the opinion that unity between Liberals and the Gandhi Party was impossible of achievement in view of the fundamental differences in outlook.

The Conference passed about twenty resolutions touching a variety of subjects. The resolution placing on record Mr. Montagu's services to India and expressing the sorrow of the Conference at his premature death took precedence.

A resolution demanded complete provincial autonomy and the introduction of partial responsibility in the Central Government.

The financial condition of provincial Governments formed the subject of another resolution, which was incorporated with another condemning the Lee Commission's recommendations, the acceptance of which by His Majesty's Government it characterised as 'utter disregard of Indian opinion'.

On the lines of the All Parties Conference resolution, the Federation condemned the Bengal Ordinance.

The position of Indians overseas, removal of untouchability, promotion of Hindu-Muslim unity and like subjects were all dealt with separately by other resolutions passed by the Federation.

Conditions of Unity.

The outstanding feature of the proceedings however, was the reply given by the Subjects Committee of the Federation to the invitation of Mr. Gandhi for the unity of all parties. Though the subject was not taken up by the open Conference, the resolution itself clearly set forth the conditions under which alone the Liberals were ready to coalesce with the Congressmen. The resolution stated that the Liberal Party, in view of strong convictions they hold as to what is in the best interests of India's political and national progress, could only join the Congress if that body definitely declares that it stands for Dominion Self Government to be attained by constitutional methods.

The Liberal Party are for the abandonment of the non-cooperation movement and of all the projects of mass civil disobedience. They cannot consent to the agreement reached between Mr. Gandhi on one side and Mr. Das and Mr. Nehru on the other that the Swaraj Party members of the Legislative Assembly and Councils should be the accredited spokesmen and representatives of the Congress in the Legislatures, nor can they agree to the Congress decisions on charkha yarn franchise and khaddar.

If as is evident, the Congress does not agree to these proposals, the Liberal Party will propose as the next best thing that there should be co-operation between the different political parties upon those matters in which there is agreement. The Liberal members of the committee of the All Parties Conference are to advocate the views stated above.

The Moslem League.

The All India Moslem League came into being in 1908 out of the universal desire among leading Mussalmans at that time for an effective organisation to protect their communal interests. With a view to secure separate Muslim representation in the legislative bodies of the land under the Minto-Morley scheme of constitutional reforms then under discussion, Indian Moslems who had been hitherto keeping aloof from politics organised the League. Its original objects were the promotion of loyalty to British

Government, the protection of political and other rights of Mussalmans and to place their needs and aspirations before Government in temperate language and to promote inter-communal unity without prejudice to the other objects of the League. Moslem opinion slowly advanced, and in 1918 the securing of self-government within the British Empire was included in the objects. The League was a powerful and influential body in 1918 and 1919 and what is known as the Lucknow pact of com

munal representation arrived at between the League and the Congress in 1916 was bodily incorporated in the Government of India Act, 1919. The birth of the Khilafat Committee however overshadowed the League which from 1916 had almost disappeared till April 1923 when it met for a brief period under the presidency of the late Mr. Bhurri but had to be adjourned for want of a quorum. In 1924, however, some influential Moslem leaders like Mr. M. A. Jinnah thought that the Khilafat Committee's functions having ceased in view of the Turkish deposition of the Khalifa decided to revive the League which met under Mr. Jinnah's chairmanship at Lahore in May 1924. The Lahore session practically did nothing else save to reorganise the scattered branches of the League.

The Bombay Session.—In December, 1924, the regular annual session of the League was held in Bombay and attracted a good number of delegates from all parts of India. The League passed many resolutions one of which appointed a big Committee to draft proposals for Muslim representation in legislative and local bodies and in the services of the country. Another resolution condemned the British policy towards Egypt and warned the British Government that the attitude would be interpreted by Indian Moslems as inimical to Moslem interests. The Bengal Ordinance formed the subject of a resolution. Among other resolutions passed by the League was one demanding that the N.W. Frontier Provinces be made a regular province like Madras, Bombay and Bengal under the Government of India Act.

The Khilafat Committee.

The Central Khilafat Committee owed its origin to the reticence shown by the All India Congress Committee in 1920 to the question of the Khilafat and Non co-operation Messrs. Gandhi and Shaukat Ali started this organisation with a view to educative propaganda throughout the country and if possible, to capture the Congress. The object of the Committee was stated to be the righting of the Khilafat 'wrongs'. As a result of intensive propaganda mainly led by Mr. Gandhi himself, prominent Indian publicists supported the view that the Indian Moslems being deeply concerned over the "exploitation of the Holy places of Islam," had a right to expect the Hindus to help them in securing their rights soon after the Madras Khilafat Conference under the chairmanship of Mr. Shaukat Ali unfolded a programme of progressive non co-operation and appealed to the country for support. The Khilafat Committee, with the huge funds at its disposal, was able to draft in a large number of delegates to the Calcutta special Congress in 1920 when the non co-operation programme was accepted by that body. Two more objects added to it, namely the

obtaining of Swaraj and the 'righting of the Punjab wrongs'.

With the deposition of the Khalifa last year by the Kemalists and the revival of the Moslem League, the Committee's activities have been considerably restricted. Recently the Committee sent a deputation to Nejd to intervene and settle the dispute between the warring elements. Though the Government of India were willing to permit a deputation of the Committee to Turkey, the Turkish Government did not quite like the idea which had consequently to be abandoned.

The Session of 1924—The 1924 session of the Khilafat Conference which was held at Belgaum under the chairmanship of Dr. S. Kitchner passed a number of resolutions. One of these characterised the British action in Egypt consequent on the murder of Sirdar Sir Lee Stack, as outrageous and welcomed the success of the Riffs in Morocco. Another resolution condemned the action of King Emir Ali in stopping the supply of provisions to Mecca. As for the rest, the Conference endorsed the resolutions passed by the Congress.

The Indian Legislature.

The Indian Legislature was called together three times during 1924, the first meeting being in Delhi during February and March, the second in Simla in May June and the third in Simla in September. The Delhi meeting was the annual Budget Session, the May meeting was specially summoned for the consideration and passage of an official Steel Industry (Protection) Bill and that of September was the usual autumn meeting. An innovation was made in arranging the date for the conclusion of the year's Session, properly so-called. Hitherto, the Legislative Session has been terminated by prorogation at the end of the Budget meeting, so that it has been co-terminous with the official financial year. This involved the State opening of the new Session when the Legislature again met in Simla. But Simla is not so convenient for the purpose as Delhi. It does not equally lend itself to a display of ceremonial suitable to the occasion. His Excellency the Viceroy, therefore, decided that in 1924 and in future prorogation should take place at the end of the autumn meeting in Simla, so that the Delhi Spring meeting should be opened with formality, its final sitting being merely adjourned.

The change produced a curious effect in connection with the Presidency of the Legislative Assembly. The Constitution provides that for the first four years under the Constitution of 1919 the President shall be nominated by the Governor-General and that thereafter the President shall be elected by the House, but it lays down that if the House is in session when the fourth year of its life expires the nominated President then in office shall continue in office till the end of the session. The four years expire on 3rd February 1925. The expectation hitherto has been that Sir Frederick Whyte, the first President, would hold office until prorogation at the end of March 1925, but if the House is then not prorogued but merely adjourned till the Simla meeting the new arrangement will mean Sir Frederick's retention of office until the beginning of 1926. Unofficial members of the Assembly have petitioned His Excellency not to summon the Delhi Session of 1925 until 5th February, so that the fourth year of the Constitution will expire before the Assembly meets. The House could thereupon at once proceed to elect its own President. But the amount of business for submission to the Legislature usually makes the summoning of a meeting before the end of January imperative and it is semi-officially announced that the Legislature will be called together about 15th January 1925. How the matter will develop cannot at the time of writing be forecast.

The Annual Budget.

The Annual Budget is usually presented in both Houses of the Legislature on the morning of 1st March. Complaints have been made that the announcement of its terms in the middle of the business day is undesirable and in 1924, accordingly, it was laid before both Houses at half-past four in the afternoon of the last day of February.

The Hon Sir Basil Blackett, Finance Member, in his annual statement to the Assembly and the Hon Mr McWaters, Finance Secretary, in simultaneously presenting the Budget in the Council of State, showed that the past year had been one of steady, though sometimes difficult, trade, favourable to India on the balance. "The volume of both imports and exports continued to expand and there was every prospect that the visible balance of trade in favour of India would almost reach a record."

On the revenue side of the Budget Customs receipts showed at 40.42 crores, against an estimate of 45.10 crores. Railway receipts were 1.4 crores under estimate, but working expenses were 1.98 crores down, so that net receipts were 58 lakhs better than the estimate. Opium revenue was 58 lakhs up on the estimate but Posts and Telegraphs 23 lakhs down. Under Interest, Currency and Miscellaneous there was an improvement of 148 lakhs on the estimate, largely owing to high prices for short money in London, and under Salt, despite the doubling of the Salt Duty, the total revenue was 8.4 crores, or 3 crores less than the estimate, this result, the Finance Member explained being due not to smaller consumption (an assurance that was challenged) but to manoeuvres in the trade following, first, anticipation of the raising of the duty and, second, anticipation of its reduction by the Legislature on the present Budget.

On the expenditure side, the Budget showed a saving of 74 lakhs owing to the favourable rate of the year's rupee loan, a saving of 90 lakhs under sinking fund and a non-recurrent receipt of 41 lakhs from the disposal of temporary military lines. Adjustments for these and smaller details left a deficit of 36 lakhs.

Further, there was a windfall of about 31 millions sterling, profits from the control of enemy ships in the war. The exact amount was only settled in 1923-24, in negotiation with His Majesty's Government. The Finance Member proposed to credit 2.44 lakhs of this to the current year and to reserve the rest for special expenditure in 1924-25.

The Budget showed the general financial position to be better than a year previously. The floating debt in the hands of the public in the form of Treasury Bills had been reduced from 22 crores to about 2 crores. A large reserve had been built up during the year against sterling requirements. There appeared no need for a sterling loan, nor for a bigger rupee loan than twenty crores. A striking feature of the financial situation was the continued popularity of Post Office Cash Certificates.

A prominent feature of the Finance Member's speech was his proposal to institute a regular sinking fund for the avoidance and extinction of debt. Hitherto obligations of this nature had been met by various methods but without a general plan. The new scheme would amount to the provision of 4 crores for debt repa-

and avoidance every year for five years, after which period the working of the arrangement might be re-examined and continued or revised. It was also announced that Government were considering the organisation of a Provincial Loan Fund for similarly placing the management of borrowing by the Provincial Government on a scientific basis.

Railway stores for State lines worked by companies had been held by the Bombay High Court to be State stores and therefore not liable to import duty. An appeal had gone to the Privy Council and if the former judgment was upheld Government would have to repay 2 crores to the railway companies and would lose a source of income in future. It was proposed to introduce legislation to make all Government Stores subject to Customs Duty, Provincial Government being refunded through a special assignment whatever they thus had to pay for their own imports.

Exchange for the ensuing year, for Government remittances, the Budget took at 1 4 1/2.

Military expenditure for 1924-25 would, with this basis of exchange calculation, amount to 58 1/2 crores, i.e., 83 lakhs less than the figure assumed by the Retrenchment Committee, 3 19 crores less than the original Budget figure for 1923-24 and 1 1/2 crores less than the revised estimate.

For 1924-25 the total expenditure of Government, with exchange at this rate, and eliminating railway transactions, as legislation to separate railway finance from general finance was pending, was shown in the new estimate at 104 57 crores. Revenue on the existing basis of taxation was estimated at 107 93 crores, including a contribution of 4 27 from railways, which were expected to pay this to general revenues after the introduction of the financial separation scheme. Customs were taken at 45 02 crores, including payments on Government stores, income tax at 18 22 crores, a reduction of 85 lakhs owing to depression in the Bombay cotton mill industry.

Various methods were suggested for dealing with the surplus of 8 86 crores thus anticipated. Government proposed some minor reductions in customs and excise duties, including the reduction of the excise duty on motor spirit to 4 annas per gallon. The Finance Member reminded the House that so long as the Provincial Contributions remained as at present they interposed 9 crores of obligations between the Central Government and general reduction of taxation. On the other hand, there was general desire for the reduction of the Salt Tax, which was raised from Rs 1 4-0 to Rs 2 6-0 a maund in the preceding Budget. To reduce the Salt Tax to Rs 2 per maund would demand 1 82 crores out of the surplus and to reduce it to its former level of Rs 1 4-0 would require 3 82 crores, or practically the whole surplus.

"If we retain taxation at its present figure and give away our surplus in whole or in part to the Provincial Governments, we can face the year 1925-26 with some hope not merely of achieving a balance but with the brighter expectation that some further reductions in expenditure or some normal growth in the

yield of our existing sources of income will again give us a small surplus. If, however, we were to reduce the salt tax to Rs 1 4-0 a maund, we have an initial deficiency of 3 16 crores to face in 1925-26. The receipts in 1924-25 would be abnormal partly because dealers would at once replenish their depleted stocks if the duty were reduced to Rs 1 4-0 and partly because we give the dealers six months' credit. For the first five months of 1924-25 we shall in any case be collecting some revenue at the rate of Rs 2 8-0 a maund. A reduction to Rs 1 4-0 in the 1924-25 Budget would not therefore have its full effect on our figures till 1925-26."

Government left the choice between a Rs 2 and a Rs 1 4-0 Salt Tax to the Assembly, but pointed out that 'if we reduce the Salt Tax to Rs 1 4-0 we are in truth proclaiming to the Provinces that neither in 1924-25 nor in 1925-26 can we offer them any certain prospect of relief. We are at the same time postponing indefinitely the date at which we can force any reasonable possibility of reducing other onerous taxes or increasing our expenditure on beneficial services."

Government therefore proposed to dispose of the surplus by applying 1 82 crores to reduction of Salt Tax to Rs 2 and 1 50 crores to reduction of Provincial Contributions.

The two days' general debate with which the discussion of the Budget began and indeed the whole discussion lasting several days, produced practically no criticism of the Government proposals, or of Government financial stewardship, on merits, and were completely overshadowed by the efforts of the Swarajists to utilise the occasion to advance their aim to overturn the Constitution. The Swarajist leader early in the session referred to the accusation that his party were wreckers and destroyers and replied to it that yes, they were out to destroy things of evil and rightly or wrongly they regarded the recent political reforms as a thing of evil.

The political combat began in the earliest stages of the session. The recent general election had resulted in Swarajists entering the Assembly to the number of about 45, instead of staying outside as they formerly did. Their leader in the House was Pandit Motilal Nehru and under him an aggressive member of the party and leader of the left wing of it was Mr V J Patel. Other new members of the House who either belonged to the party or voted with them on critical divisions were Sir Purshottamdas Thakurdas, representing the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber, Mr Mahomed Ali Jinnah, Mr N O Kelkar, Lala Hans Raj, and Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya. At the outset of the session the House contained a large number of "Independent" members, belonging to no party, and standing somewhere between the constitutional Liberals and the Swarajists. The Liberals made little or no organised attempt to win these to their fold. Pandit Motilal Nehru, having no majority without them, additionally wooed them from the beginning. A considerable group of Independents, on the other hand, formed themselves into a party of the same name, under the chair-

manship of Mr Jinnah. Their aim was to gain power through organisation and their leanings were towards the extremists rather than towards the Constitutional party. This situation speedily resulted in the development of a so-called Nationalist party, which consisted of the Swarajists and Mr Jinnah's Independents, and existed to enable the two component parties to work together within the House. Every member of it had to sign terms of membership. These bound members to vote in the House according to the decisions of a two-thirds majority of the Nationalist party. The effect was to place the Independent members votes and influence at the disposal of the Swarajists.

If the Viceroy opened the session in State on 31st January. In his opening address he reviewed cheerfully the progress of events in which India is interested outside India and, turning to Home affairs, specially dwelt upon the political situation and in particular the revolutionary movement in Bengal. Of the latter, he said, of its conspiracies to assassinate public servants and of its association with communist agencies outside India. Government had long been aware and to "permit these sinister designs to advance on their way to results that no process of law can remedy" was out of the question. As to the general political situation, His Excellency pointed to the handicap which the change of Government in England and the arrival of a Labour Ministry in office placed upon his freedom. But he pointed out that each of the recent Governments in England, of whatever political complexion, had accepted the Reforms in India as the rock foundation of British policy in India—"The cardinal policy of the reforms remains the same for all. It is the policy of the British nation and not of any party. I came to India charged with the solemn duty of carrying out those reforms. I have seen the first courses of the edifice of parliamentary institutions and traditions and I stand pledged to carry onward the erection of the structure. But the future must largely depend upon the people of India and the actions of the Legislature."

"There is now a split in India, if I am to credit all I read, which is bent upon destruction or the Reforms unless it immediately attains that which it is impossible for any British Government to grant forthwith, that is, complete Dominion self government. No change in the constitution can be effected by legitimate and peaceful methods save with the assent of the British Parliament, that is, the British people. I gather that there is a disposition in some quarters to believe that the hands of the British Parliament can be forced and that a situation may be created which may impel the reforms and thus cause Parliament to act contrary to their desire and better judgment. These influences make no appeal to the British people and the British Parliament would emphatically repudiate and reject them. As a devoted friend of India, I am convinced that action based on reason and justice will alone prevail with the British people and will prove the only safe road to the ultimate goal to be attained."

Constitution Makers

First place on the first day for unofficial resolutions was won in the ballot by Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachari, Deputy President of the House, and a prominent member of the Nationalist party, for a resolution running, "This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he be pleased to take at a very early date the necessary steps (including if necessary procuring the appointment of a Royal Commission) for reviving the Government of India Act so as to secure for India a full self governing Dominion status within the British Empire and Provincial autonomy in the Provinces." The Hon. Sir Malcolm Hailey, Home Member, opposing the motion, showed that it did not accord with the Government of India Act in so far as immediate grant of Dominion status was different from the goal of responsible government as laid down in the Act, and that this new demand was inconsistent with the comparatively recent pronouncement of leading members on the unofficial side of the House, while it also repudiated the specific provision that realisation of the ideal should be by successive stages. He critically examined the assumptions underlying the new demand and pointed to the difficulties of the situation of which the mover had taken no account, such as the position of the Indian States, communal jealousies, the protection of minorities and the problem of defence. But, he said, Government were prepared to institute an investigation of complaints against the working of the reforms scheme in practice, to assess the causes and to consider remedies. "We claim that this must precede any general inquiry into the policy and scheme of the Act, or general advance within the Act itself."

Pundit Motilal Nehru moved the following amendment to the motion, "That the following be substituted for the original resolution. This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council to take steps to have the Government of India Act revised with a view to establish full responsible government in India and for the said purpose (a) to summon at an early date a representative round table conference to recommend with due regard to the protection of the rights and interests of important minorities the scheme of a constitution for India and (b) after dissolving the central Legislature to place the said scheme for approval before a newly elected Indian Legislature for its approval and submit the same to the British Parliament to be embodied in a Statute." The Pundit condemned the present Government of India Act from preamble to end. He offered Government the co-operation of his party if Government would give them what they wanted otherwise they would continue to non-cooperate. Sir Purushottamdas Thakurdas and Pundit Madan Mohan Malaviya were among the most prominent supporters of the amendment, as to which the Hon. Sir Basil Blackett said that "the difference between us is mainly as to whether we should tear up the Act, reconsider the whole structure and lose the basis from which we are at present advancing." The debate lasted three days, with intervals between them. Sir Abdul Qayum, from the N.W.F.P., Mr. Abdul

Captain Hira Singh speaking for the Sikhs and the army, were the most prominent Indian speakers against either resolution or amendment and strongly opposed both, on the ground that conditions in India were not ripe for the granting of the demands made. Diwan Bahadur Ramachandran, a lifelong Liberal, supported the demands. Sir Sivaswamy Iyer, leader of the Liberal Party, criticised both the extremist demands and tactics and the Home Member's speech. Diwan Bahadur Rangachariar fought for his own resolution till the last moment and then withdrew it in favour of the Swarajist amendment. The Home Member, winding up the debate, reiterated Government's willingness to institute an inquiry into the defects and difficulties revealed by the working of the reform scheme and somewhat elaborated the lines on which they were willing for the inquiry to proceed.

In the end the Swarajist amendment was carried on a division by 76 votes to 48.

The fight was continued over the Budget, when the President said that in deference to the wishes of a large number of members he would on the first demand for appropriation of funds allow the discussion to go beyond the strict limits of the vote. Pundit Motilal Nehru proceeded to move the rejection of the first demand, which was for the necessary grant for the Customs Department, and declared that he did so on the general ground of refusing to vote money because of the general grievance against the entire administration. After a prolonged debate the motion for rejection was carried by 83 votes to 56. The demand for the grant for the Income Tax Department was similarly thrown out by 61 to 60. The demand under Salt by 62 to 53 and that under opium by 62 to 57. The House then adjourned for the day.

The Independent members of the Nationalist party were much chagrined that by virtue of their signature of the party conditions Pundit Motilal Nehru had been able to carry them into his lobby for the rejection of several appropriations when they had only intended to throw out the first as a matter of protest. When, therefore, the next day's business began the Swarajist leader stated that having "established the principle" for which they contended they did not think it necessary to continue the previous day's procedure. Mr. Jinnah, agreeing with this, declared that his friends had no intention of joining in civil disobedience, or revolution, or non-payment of taxes. Nevertheless when, after the remaining appropriations had been passed in the absence of the Swarajists and almost without amendment, the Finance Bill was presented and the Finance Member moved for its consideration Pundit Madan Mohan Malaviya in a speech lasting nearly three hours urged the House to reject the motion. Sir Malcolm Hailey powerfully enjoined the House not to commit such an act of irresponsibility. The Swarajist leader replied strongly supporting Pundit Malaviya and on a division consideration of the Bill was refused by 49 votes to 57.

The Constitution enables the Governor-General to pass, over the head of either House legislation that he considers to be necessary for the safety,

tranquillity of interests of British India, although the House has refused to pass it despite his special recommendation of its indispensability. On the rejection of the Bill by the Lower House, therefore, the Bill was shorn of details which the Governor-General could not so certify and submitted in the amended form to the Council of State with a Recommendation. In its new form the Bill provided for a Rs 1-4-0 salt duty, for no reduction of the duty on motor spirit and for no remission of provincial contributions. The day after the Assembly rejected the Bill it was resubmitted to that House in the amended form and with a recommendation. After a speech by Pundit Motilal Nehru the Bill was again thrown out. Government this time not challenging a division. The Bill was discussed in detail in the Upper Chamber, and Mr. Natesan, from Madras, strongly condemned the omission of the provision for the reduction of Provincial Contributions. It was finally passed there without amendment and without a division. It then became law on endorsement by the Governor-General.

Constitutional Balance

The attitude of the Swarajists and their friends during the rest of the Delhi session was in the main dictated by their aim to wrest power from the Executive Government and take possession of it for the Assembly. The first move in this direction was made at the expense of Provincial autonomy, the House carrying a motion recommending that all important questions put by the unofficial members on subjects over which the Governor-General in Council has control and superintendence be answered by the Government Members in this Assembly after obtaining the necessary information from the Provincial Governments. Diwan Bahadur Ramachandra Rao moved a recommendation that in all long term contracts for the working of State railways or conveyance of mails a condition should be inserted making the contract dependent for validity upon a resolution by the Indian Legislature. The Hon. Mr. Chatterjee, Member for Industries and Labour, pointed out that this was an attempt to make the Executive responsible to the Legislature in a way that had no parallel except in England, where it existed for historical reasons and had been criticised on the ground of economy. The resolution was carried. Mr. Vedamurti in the Council of State moved a recommendation that the New Capital Committee be reconstituted with unofficial members in a majority. The Hon. Mr. Ley, Secretary for Industries, opposing the motion pointed out that the Committee was an executive body exercising the full powers of the Government of India in its sphere of work and not an advisory body. The House accordingly adopted an unofficial amendment to the resolution making it a recommendation for the appointment of an advisory committee of unofficials.

Sardar Gulab Singh in the Assembly moved for the appointment of a committee with a substantial unofficial majority to inquire into the grievances of the Sikh community and report on the Akali movement. The Home Member showed the House that if Government were to interfere in the manner suggested the interference should be by the Punjab Government and its

opposing the resolution he assured the House and the Sikhs that Government were not opposed to the reforming element among the Sikhs but in the name of the public at large were bound to require the Sikhs to realise that their reforms should be effected otherwise than by steps that ignored the rights of other communities or ran counter to good citizenship. The House adopted an amended resolution containing a general recommendation for a committee of inquiry consisting of official and unofficial members. Sardar Kartar Singh the same day moved for the immediate unconditional release of Sardar Kharak Singh sent to jail in connection with political activities. The accused man had refused to defend himself before the court in which he was summoned or to appeal against his conviction. The motion for his release was carried. Mr. Silk Hassan then moved for the similar release of Maulana Hasrat Mohani who the Home Member pointed out had been convicted by the High Court of gross sedition including a speech declaring that as soon as he discovered that the establishment of his proposed parallel Government could not be achieved by peaceful means he would take to guerrilla warfare, preaching kill them wherever you can and was now still in jail because he had been by a magistrate found guilty of attempting to corrupt a warder. The motion was carried. There followed a long debate on a motion by Mr. V. J. Patel for the removal of restrictions in the way of the return of Mr. B. G. Horniman to India and this also was passed. Mr. Amarnath Dutt moved for the immediate repeal of Bengal Regulation III of 1818 to which was added by amendment a demand for the repeal of the Criminal Law Amendment Act and other repressive laws and regulations still on the statute book. The Home Member in resolutely opposing the motion defended the use by Government of exceptional preventive legislation quoting the Rowlatt Committee's findings as to the methods of revolutionary conspirators in India and arguing that there was no other remedy for this kind of crime. Government must, he said, decline to repeal the powers they had because they could not feel that they had behind them a Legislature willing to take the responsibility for special measures in case of need. The motion was carried by 68 votes to 44.

General Subjects

Mr. Rangachariar moved recommendations that the Chief Justice of a High Court must be a barrister, advocate or pleader and that three-fourths of the judges of a High Court should have similar qualifications, but on it being explained that this subject was under examination he withdrew his motion. Mr. Kabir-ud-Din moved a resolution prescribing special representation of Moslems in the Legislatures and Public Services but as a result of discussions in the lobby the debate upon it was adjourned sine die. Government accepted a motion by Mr. Venkataswamiah for the appointment of a committee to consider steps to improve and expand the Indian Territorial Force and to remove racial distinctions from the non regular military forces, including the I. & F. Other unofficial resolutions moved

and passed dealt with the problem of Indians overseas with the Indian Colonies Committee and with tariff protection for Indian-mined coal. An unofficial motion for an inquiry into the economic conditions of the people drew from Government an announcement that Government intended to appoint a committee to inquire into incidence of taxation. The abolition of the Cotton Excise Duty was the aim of another resolution but discussion of it was despite the opposition of Government, adjourned after a speech by an official member pointing out that to abolish the Excise Duty would deprive the handloom weaver of the light protection against mill competition that he now enjoys. There was a long discussion of stores purchase policy and methods and a resolution recently adopted by the Associated Chambers of Commerce and recommending the institution of a system of rupee tenders for stores was adopted. The Hon. Sir Charles Innes moved an elaborate resolution for the separation of railway finance from general finance but to give time for unofficial consideration of the question the debate was adjourned and a committee appointed to examine the terms of the proposed new arrangement.

Government Bills.

The official legislative programme for the session was lighter than usual. It was for the most part not of high general public interest and its principal measures concerned the improvement of the morality law to bring it into line with recent conventions or resolutions of the International Convention for the suppression of the traffic in women and children.

Protection of Steel

A session of the Indian Legislature specially called to consider legislation for the protection of the Indian Steel Industry on lines recommended by the Indian Tariff Board commenced in Shimla on 27th May 1924. No unofficial bills or resolutions were included in the programme but in addition to the Steel Industry (Protection) Bill Government included in it the Indian (Specified Instruments) Stamp Bill, the Indian Soldiers' Litigation (Amendment) Bill both of which were finally passed by both Houses—and a resolution to give effect to a recommendation of the Tariff Board for the removal of the import duty on sulphur. The publication of the Report of the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India in May created an unofficial demand for an opportunity to discuss an unofficial resolution on the subject and this Government conceded.

The Hon. Sir Charles Innes, Member of Government for Commerce and Railways, introduced on 27th May a Bill for the fostering and development of the Indian steel industry by increasing the import duties leviable on certain iron and steel articles and by enabling bounties to be granted to manufacturers in British India on certain such articles. The Bill was for three years only, i.e. until 31st March 1927, and provided for the amendment of the schedule of the Indian Tariff Act, 1904, containing the list of articles liable to import duty. It added a sub-section to section 3 of the Act providing that if after such inquiry as he thought necessary the Governor-General in Council was satisfied that

articles of any class liable to duty under Part VII of the Second Schedule of the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, were being imported into British India at such a price as was likely to render ineffective the protection intended to be offered by such duty to similar articles manufactured in India, he might, by notification in the Gazette of India, increase such duty to such extent as he thought necessary. The Bill further provided for the payment, on the certificate of an officer authorised by Government in this behalf and subject to certain specified conditions, of bounties varying from Rs 20 to Rs 32 per ton on steel rails and fish plates manufactured in India. It also enabled the Governor General in Council under two conditions specified in the Bill and with power to prescribe other conditions subject to which and the manner in which they might be paid in each of the financial years commencing from 1st April 1924 1st April 1925, and 1st April 1926 to pay by way of bounties upon iron or steel wagons such sum not exceeding Rs 7 lakhs in any one financial year as he thought fit.

Sir Charles Innes in introducing the Bill acknowledged the great care and impartiality which the Tariff Board had brought to bear upon a very intricate task and appealed to the House not to let the fact that the steel industry in India was represented by the single firm of the Tata Iron and Steel Company lead to a controversy over the affairs of that one company. The speech was chiefly explanatory rather than an argument for the adoption of protection and much of it was devoted to tracing back the details of the Bill to recommendations by the Tariff Board. As to the period of the life of the measure, it is obviously undesirable and indeed wrong, said Sir Charles Innes "either to perpetuate or to prolong the protective duties at a pitch which experience may show very shortly to be unnecessarily high and we are quite satisfied that in three years time the whole question that is of the amount of protection will have to be investigated again by the Tariff Board." On the other hand

it takes five years for a man embarking for the first time on the manufacture of steel to produce steel and therefore if the duties are guaranteed only for three years they do not offer much attraction for new firms to come in. Sir Charles claimed that Government had treated as a whole the scheme put forward by the Tariff Board and asked the House to accept it as such, for, he pointed out, they had not merely to consider the question of the steel industry but also to take into account the interests of millions of consumers. I think (concluded the Commerce Member) we all agree in this House that it will be a national calamity if the steel industry in India collapses. In all their inquiries the Tariff Board have held the balance in the most careful manner between the interests of the industry on the one hand and the interests of the consumer on the other.

We have this careful, balanced, comprehensive scheme from the Tariff Board. As we see it, the scheme is conceived in an impartial manner. It gives the minimum of protection which is required by the industry. We have embodied these proposals of the Tariff Board in this Bill and I ask the House favourably to consider that Bill."

Mr W S J Wilson representing the Associated Chambers of Commerce, protested that the Bill had been introduced in undue haste and that protection should take the form of bounties rather than tariff manipulation. The Bill, he said, would inflict rank injustice upon Burma and upon all extremities of India, like Karachi and Litorlin.

Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya argued that no system should be adopted which would enable the manufacturer competing from a distance to transfer his manufacturing activities to India and that to pass a Bill without sufficient safeguards against that would be a crime against the public interest.

The Hon the Finance Member of Government replied that the doctrine of discriminating protection through the import tariff having been accepted it would be difficult to improve upon the method chosen by the Tariff Board. He pointed out that industrial development in India must depend on parallel developments in other fields and in particular on the financial side. If the dangers of foreign capital were to be avoided every line possible must be done to increase the creation of new capital in India. We cannot usefully regard protection as an end in itself. Protection is one of the many means for creating that many-sided India which we have in view and therefore in commencing this Bill to the Assembly I would like to add to this request that all those who are interested in the furtherance of Indian industry should turn their minds at the same time to the other directions in which progress is required: progress in banking, progress in education, especially technical education and the other directions which are necessary to create the men who are to take part in creating the industry which this Bill is destined to establish firmly on its feet.

Mr Chaman Lal a Swarajist described the Bill as directly in the interests of the capitalists against the masses. Mr Banga Iyer also a Swarajist said Swarajist meant the nationalisation of industries by a national government and this he advocated. Mr V J Patel a leader of a wing of the Swarajists in the Assembly, argued that this was a most opportune time to take over the Tata Company and run it as a national concern and as an alternative he suggested that the Company after receiving protection should be asked to hand over to the State any profits above 5 per cent.

The Bill was on the motion of Mr Neogy referred to a Select Committee consisting of the Hon S. Charles Innes, the Hon Sir Basil Blackett, Pandit Motilal Nair, Mr Wilson, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, Mr V J Patel, Mr Bepin Chandra Pal, Diwan Bahadur Ramachandra Rao, Sir Hari Singh Gour, Messrs E J Fleming, M A Jinnah, Pivare Lal, Mahomed Yakub, Rangaswami Iyengar, K C Iyohokare, Jammadas Mehta, Chaman Lal, N M Joshi, K C Neogy, Devaki Prasad Sinha and S. K. Datta.

Suggestions made in Select Committee included those of nationalisation, option to purchase, profit-sharing, control by the Government and Legislature, the conditioning of protection by the obligation to make certain con-

cessions to workers. The comparative advantages of bounties and tariffs for protection were also debated. In the end the Bill emerged from the Committee with its provision for the special protection of tin plate struck out but otherwise with only verbal alterations.

The House again discussed the measure on 2nd June, when the debate was reopened by Dr. Datta moving, with the support of the free traders in the House, that the Bill be circulated for opinion, a step which, if adopted, would have shelved the Bill. The motion was rejected by 51 votes to 21, the majority consisting of 26 official and 25 unofficial members. Other free trade amendments were moved by Mr. V. J. Patel and Mr. Fleming in favour, respectively, of the exemption of steel being imported under contract by the Bombay Municipality and into Burma and both were rejected.

The main discussion was on an amendment by Mr. Patel providing for the restriction of the protection afforded by the Act to concerns in which "at least two-thirds of the capital invested in the business is Indian. Finally Government promised to appoint a Committee of official and unofficial members of the Legislature to examine the problem of the inflow of overseas capital and the following new clause was inserted in the Bill—

"Notwithstanding anything contained in section 3 or section 4, no bounty in respect of steel rails, fish-plates or wagons shall be payable to or on behalf of any company, firm or other person not already engaged at the commencement of this Act in the business of manufacturing any one or other such articles, unless such company, firm or person provides facilities to the satisfaction of the Governor General in Council for the technical training of Indians in the manufacturing processes involved in the business and in the case of a company unless—

- (a) it has been formed and registered under the Indian Companies Act, 1913, and
- (b) it has a share capital the amount of which is expressed in the memorandum of association in rupees, and
- (c) such proportion of the directors as the Governor General in Council has by general or special order prescribed in this behalf consists of Indians."

The Select Committee's exclusion of tinplate from benefit under the Bill was overridden. A rural member's amendment to omit from the schedule of increased import duties a number of implements chiefly used on railway and other engineering works was carried in the belief that the utensils in question were only agricultural requisites.

The Bill was then passed amid unofficial congratulations on the opening of a new chapter in Indian industrialism.

The Council of State passed the Bill without amendment, its only opponent in the upper Chamber being the Hon. Mr. J. W. A. Bell, representing the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.

[The provision in the Bill for the re-examination of the amount of protection given in case its desired effect was not attained was brought into operation a

few months later. The Tariff Board were then commissioned to inquire into complaints that as a result of the maintenance of high rupee exchange (at about 1s 8d) and of a heavy drop in the sterling prices of Continental steel the Protection Bill was largely ineffective. The Board found the complaint justified and recommended a substantial increase of protection through further raising of the import duties, a method which they said they felt bound to specify since they were, according to their interpretation of their terms of reference, prevented from recommending bounties. Instead Government accepted the main finding of the Board but decided to give the necessary additional protection by bounties. Their chief reason for this decision was that the original Bill had divided the means of protection between increased import duties and bounties in proportions designed to balance the revenue from the former against the cost of the latter and that the revenue in question promised to be so large during the whole year as to provide not only for the bounties prescribed in the Bill but for the additional ones required to give effect to the Board's judgment in favour of increased protection. The orders accordingly passed by Government affect the current financial year only.]

The official resolution for the removal of the import duty on sulphur, on the ground that sulphur was a raw material for various industries, was accepted.

The Public Services

Sir Sivaswamy Iyer moved in regard to the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services a resolution declaring that the House would not be in a position to discuss the report till the September session and that to take action upon the report without waiting for discussion by it then would be resented in India. The Hon. the Leader of the House expressed his willingness to accept a resolution substantially in the terms of that moved and said, "I am prepared to give on behalf of the Government of India and also of the Secretary of State a pledge that no decision on any question of principle or policy shall be arrived at till this House has had an opportunity in the September session of examining the matter."

Pundit Madan Mohan Malaviya moved an amendment to the resolution to the effect that the proposals in the report ought to be examined simultaneously with the demand poll taken put forward in the Assembly in February, but another unofficial member moved the adjournment and this was agreed to. The Council of State, after hearing a statement by the Home Secretary to Government, postponed discussion of the Report.

The Indian Legislature met in Simla on 3rd September for its Autumn session, at which the principal business was consideration of the report of the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services. Government at an early stage laid on the table the observations made by the Provincial Governments on the Report and the debate was opened in the Legislative

Assembly on 10th September, when the Leader of the House, in behalf of Government, moved—

This Assembly recommends to the Governor General in Council —

"(1) That the following recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India be in principle approved

(a) that while the existing system of appointment and control of the All India Services should, in present conditions be maintained in reserved fields, the following services operating in transferred fields, namely, the Indian Educational Service, the Indian Agricultural Service, the Indian Veterinary Service the Buildings and Roads Branch of the Indian Service of Engineers in those provinces in which the two branches have been separated and the Indian Forest Service in Bombay and Burma, should, so far as future recruits are concerned be appointed and controlled by Local Governments,

(b) that recruitment of Indians for the Services in reserved fields should be increased as recommended,

(c) that, having particular regard to recommendation (a) early steps be taken to constitute the Public Services Commission contemplated by section 96C of the Government of India Act and to enact such legislation as may be necessary,

(2) That pay passage concessions and penalties be granted to the officers of the Superior Civil Services in India approximately on the scale recommended, and

(3) That the recommendations of the Royal Commission regarding the constitution of the Provincial Medical Services in Governors Provinces be accepted in principle subject to

(a) the employment in the Provinces of an adequate military reserve,

(b) the provision of adequate medical attendance for British Officers in the Civil Services and their families, and

(c) the further consideration of the conditions necessary to secure an adequate number of British medical recruits for the needs of the Army

The Hon the Leader of the House pointed out that this debate was taking place in accordance with the pledge given by Government that before orders were passed on the Report the Indian Legislature should be given an opportunity of expressing its opinion on the recommendations. He proceeded to appeal to the House not to hold in the balance against the members of the Public Services complaints that might be laid against Government on grounds of policy and showed that in every country nine-tenths of the government must be carried on by the Services, who form the arms of Government. He showed that the Royal Commission's proposals for the future organisation of the Services were based on the principle that the Services should be controlled by the authority ultimately responsible for the administration of the subjects with which they dealt. As regards indemnification, he

pointed to the drastic nature of the recommendations. 'If the proposals of the Commission are given effect to there will, I estimate, eventually remain in the All India Service only some 1,800 British Officers, including the doctors of the military reserve. If we confine our consideration to the two security Services—the I C S and the Indian Police Service—the number of posts which will eventually be held by Europeans on the proposals of the Commission is less than 900. Sir Alexander Muddiman devoted the latter part of his speech to the financial proposals of the Report and impressed upon the House with a wealth of facts and arguments in support of the pressing need to give members of the Services economic relief.

Pundit Motilal Nehru immediately afterwards rose and moved a long and complicated amendment the crux of which lay in an early paragraph stating that all questions affecting the Civil Services are inseparably connected with and entirely dependent upon the larger question of the grant of responsible Government to India and cannot be entertained and satisfactorily dealt with unless and until the resolution of this House on Responsible Government adopted on 18th February 1924, is substantially complied with. The amendment demanded the stoppage of further recruitment for the Services in England under the existing rules, the establishment of a Public Services Commission in India with functions determined on the recommendations of a committee of the Legislative Assembly and the transfer of the powers of appointment and control of the Services from the Secretary of State to the Government of India and the Local Governments, such powers to be exercised under laws to be passed by the Indian and Local Legislatures regulating the Public Services including the classification of the Civil Services in India, the methods of their recruitment, their conditions of service, pay and allowances and discipline and conduct. The amendment also declared that the Assembly 'cannot with due regard to the interests of the tax payer assent to the imposing of fresh burdens on the already overburdened finances of the country, but in view of the financial relief that would follow the stoppage of recruitment outside India was prepared to consider the alleged grievances of present members of the Services and for that purposes recommended the Government to take steps to have a Committee elected by the House.

The debate extended over three days, the unofficial speeches generally following political lines rather than the merits of the Report and eventually the amendment was adopted, the first part by 68 votes to 46 and the remainder without a division being challenged by Government.

The Home Secretary moved in the Council of State on 15th September the same resolution in reference to the Lee Report as the Home Member moved in the Assembly on an earlier date. Sir Devī Prasad Sarvadhikary immediately followed and moved an amendment "That this Council recommends to the Governor-General in Council that it be represented to the Rt. Hon. the Secretary of

State for India that pending the inquiries about reforms and action that may be taken thereon, it is not desirable to give effect to the recommendations of the Lee Commission. He supported his opposition to the immediate adoption of the report by arguments on financial and political grounds and by the contention that delay would have no ill effect at any rate. There followed a long debate in which Sir Mahomed Shafi H. E. the Commander-in-Chief (General Birdwood) and Sirdar Charanjit Singh made powerful speeches against the amendment and Messrs Karandikar, Veda murti and Natesan and Padshah Sahab strongly supported it. The amendment was thrown out and Mr Karandikar moved another recommending the reference of the Report to a Committee of both Houses of the Indian Legislature, and to await its report before taking action. This also was rejected and as the day was at an end the House adjourned.

Next morning Mr Khajurda moved an amendment stipulating that every all India Service in both reserved and transferred fields should so far as future recruits are concerned be appointed and controlled by Local Governments and that recruitment for these services should be so conducted as to produce within ten years a proportion of Indians to Europeans in the ratio of 75 to 25 per cent. Sir D. N. Prasad moved as an amendment of it the addition of a recommendation that all recruitment in England for the various services be at present stopped. The debate again lasted several hours and a large number of unofficial members participated in it. Finally all amendments were rejected by such preponderance of votes that their movers did not challenge divisions of the House upon them and the Government proposition was then carried.

Other Business

The Legislature during its autumn dealt with a considerable amount of general business including numerous Bills. Among the latter the following were of most importance and were dealt with as indicated.

The Land Customs Bill was passed through all stages by both Houses. The existing law authorised Government to collect import duties at seaports only and the new measure was to enable them to collect it also at land frontiers a development necessitated by the large amount of trade coming in across the Siam frontier in order to escape the new high tariff.

The Indian Merchant Shipping (Amendment) Bill, to regulate the Mahomedan pilgrim traffic by sea for Jeddah for the Haj was referred to and reported upon by Select Committee of the Assembly.

The Imperial Bank of India (Amendment) Bill, regulating assistance by the bank to other banks was passed finally by both Houses.

The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Bill, for dealing with malpractices in such factories was ordered by the Assembly to be circulated for opinions.

The Indian Post Office (Amendment) Bill was passed by both Houses. It authorises the Post Office to sanction the use of letter stamping machines by mercantile houses and others.

The Indian Criminal Law (Amendment) Bill, was passed by both Houses. It affords additional protection for persons under 18 years of age.

There was an important discussion in the Council of State on a Resolution moved by Sir Maneckji Dadabhai recommending Government to introduce legislation providing for the annual provision of funds for the avoidance or reduction of public debt. This was designed to give effect to the proposals made in the direction indicated by the Finance Member in his Budget speech a few months previously. Government objected to legislation on the lines suggested on the ground that it was too early to adopt permanent measures and stated that they proposed shortly to issue orders for five years instead of legislation so as to serve the purpose of the Resolution but permit the policy followed to be reviewed after a comparatively short period.

A long and elaborate Government Resolution which has been on the tapis for some years for the separation of railway finance from general finance was laid before the Assembly on report by Select Committee and was the subject of prolonged debate in which business considerations were mixed with the political desires of the Swarajists. It was finally adopted.

Unofficial Resolutions adopted in the Assembly were one for the abolition of cotton excise duties and one for the suspension of the Taxation Inquiry Committee the latter being condemned on the ground that it should be preceded by a general economic inquiry. The Assembly in March voted the Budget grant for the Taxation Inquiry in the current year, but there appeared since then to have grown in the classes composing the electorate a fear that they would suffer from a revision of the incidence of taxation.

Supplementary Budget Grants were passed.

The Assembly adopted despite earnest protests by the Home Member an unofficial Bill for the repeal of Part II (Part I already having been repealed on Government initiative) of the Criminal Law Amendment Act, which empowers Government proclamation of associations whom they consider dangerous to be illegal. The Bill was not moved in the Council of State.

Both Houses were prorogued.

Central Government Committees

[The following are details regarding various Committees appointed by the Government of India and the business of which is of current importance]

REFORMS INQUIRY COMMITTEE

The appointment of a Committee to inquire into the working of the Constitutional Reforms was announced by the Government of India in a *Gazette Extraordinary* dated Simla 20th June 1924 running—

The Governor General in Council with the approval of the Secretary of State has decided to appoint a Committee—

(1) to inquire into the difficulties arising from or defects inherent in the working of the Government of India Act and the Rules thereunder in regard to the Central Government and the Governments of the Governors Provinces and

(2) to investigate the feasibility and desirability of securing remedies for such difficulties or defects consistent with the structure policy and purpose of the Act

(a) by action taken under the Act and the Rules or

(b) by such amendments of the Act as appear necessary to rectify any administrative imperfections

2 The Committee will be constituted as follows—

Chairman The Hon Sir Alexander Muddiman
CIE Member of the Governor General's Executive Council

Members

The Hon Dr Mian Sir Muhammad Shafi
CIE Member of the Governor General's Executive Council

Sir Bilay Chand Maltai CIE KCSI
IOM Maharajahdiraja of Burdwan

Dr Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru KCSI

The Hon Sir Arthur Froom Kt
Sir Sivaswamy Iyer KCSI CIE MLA
Sir Henry Mounier Smith Kt CIE MLA
Secretary to the Government of India Legislative Department

Mr M A Jinnah Barrister at law MLA

Dr R P Paranjpye

Secretary Mr H Tomkinson CIE MIA
Joint Secretary to the Government of India Home Department

3 The Committee will assemble in Simla on a date to be appointed by the Chairman. Persons who desire to supply written evidence for the consideration of the Committee should send to the Secretary of the Committee on or before the 1st day of August a memorandum thereof together with a statement of their full names and addresses and an intimation of whether they are prepared to give oral evidence if the Committee considers that any oral examination on the points in their memorandum is desirable

4 The Committee will report to the Governor General in Council

The Committee assembled in Simla on August 4th, when there were placed before it a quantity of written memoranda submitted in response to the Government's invitation reports by the Provincial Governments on the working of the Reform Scheme in their areas and a Memorandum prepared by a Departmental Committee of the Government of India dealing with technical matters arising under the Government of India Act. The Committee sat privately for a few days and then in public for the examination of numerous witnesses. This lasted till the end of August when owing to the autumn session of the Government of India Legislature during September it adjourned till mid October. Some further witnesses were then heard and a further adjournment was made till late in November. The Committee then reassembled in Delhi to draw up their report which was completed in the second week in December.

The report has not yet been published but it is understood that the Committee divided the majority signing a report in accordance with the terms of reference and a minority consisting of Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru Sir Sivaswamy Iyer Mr Jinnah and Dr Paranjpye refusing to sign that it is reported adopting one of their own based on the wider considerations elaborated in the evidence of several of the witnesses.

Publication of the report is not expected to be long delayed but action upon it may suffer postponement through reference of it to the Provincial Governments for their opinions.

The Committee was appointed as a result of a demand put forward in the Legislative Assembly by the Swarajists in February 1924 in accordance with their political programme and supported by some of the Liberal party members on the unofficial benches and by the Independent members who declined to be bound by any of the regular party programmes. The resolution embodying the demand being carried Pandit Motilal Nehru the leader of the Swaraj party in the Assembly declined to serve on the Committee because its terms of reference did not fully comply with the demand expressed in the Resolution which ran as follows—

This Assembly recommends to the Governor General in Council to take steps to have the Government of India Act revised with a view to establish full responsible government in India and for the said purpose

(a) to summon at an early date a representative Round Table Conference to recommend with due regard to the protection of the rights and interests of important minorities the scheme of a constitution for India and

(b) after dissolving the Central Legislature to place the said scheme before a newly elected Indian Legislature for its approval and submit the same to the British Parliament to be embodied in a Statute

EXTERNAL CAPITAL COMMITTEE

Several unofficial members of the Legislative Assembly, during the discussion of the Indian Steel (Protection) Bill, at the Simla session of the Legislature in May and June, 1924, expressed hostility to the protection to be afforded by the measure, at the expense of the Indian taxpayer being beneficial to industries conducted in India with foreign capital. Demands were made by them for the exclusion of industries so capitalised from the operation of the benefits assured by the measure and the prejudice was shown to extend to many industries organised in India. The Commerce Member of Government, the Hon. Sir Charles Innes, replied with a promise to appoint a Committee of members of Government and the Legislature to consider the question of the flow of capital into India from external sources.

The appointment of the Committee was

announced in September, its personnel being as follows —

The Hon. Sir Basil Blackett, K.C.B., Finance Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council, (Chairman)

The Hon. Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council for Commerce and Railways

The Hon. Messrs J. W. A. Bell and G. A. Natesan and the Hon. Dr. Dwarkanath

Mitter, elected by the Council of State

Mr. W. S. J. Wilson, Sir P. S. Sivaswamy Iyer, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Pandit Madan Mohan

Malaviya and Mr. V. J. Patel, elected by the Legislative Assembly

The Committee held preliminary meetings during the September session of the Legislature and issued an elaborate questionnaire from Delhi in November, replies to this to be returned by the middle of January.

AUXILIARY AND TERRITORIAL FORCE COMMITTEE

The Legislative Assembly on 5th February 1924 after a long debate initiated by an unofficial member adopted the following resolution moved by Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya and assented to by H. E. the Commander-in-Chief in behalf of Government — "This Assembly recommends to the Governor General in Council that a Committee including members of the Legislature be immediately appointed to investigate and report what steps should be taken to improve and expand the Indian Territorial Force so as to constitute it an efficient second line of reserve to the regular army and also to remove all racial distinctions in the constitution of the non regular military forces in India, including the Auxiliary Force."

Government accordingly appointed a committee with the following terms of reference —

To consider and report what steps should be taken —

1 To improve the Indian Territorial Force so as to constitute it an efficient second line to the regular army

2 To expand the Indian Territorial Force so as to constitute it an efficient second line to the regular army,

3 To remove racial distinctions in the constitution of the non regular military forces including the Auxiliary Force

The composition of the Committee was as follows —

Lieut. Genl. Sir John Shea, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., Adjutant General in India (Chairman),

Sir P. S. Sivaswamy Iyer, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., M.L.A.

Dr. R. P. Paranjpye, D.Sc., J.P.

Dr. Zia-ud-Din Ahmad, D.Sc., C.I.F., M.L.C.

Dr. S. K. Mullick, C.B.E., M.B.

Capt. Ajab Khan, C.B.E., I.O.M., M.L.A.

Mr. H. Calvert, I.C.S., M.F.A.

Lieut. Col. H. A. J. Gildney, M.L.A.

Lieut. Col. G. E. Howthell, V.D., A.D.C.

Capt. Suraj Singh Bahadur, I.Q.M.

Mr. E. Burdon, C.I.F., I.C.S., M.L.A., Secretary, Army Dept.

Colonel J. C. Freeland, Deputy Director, Auxiliary and Territorial Forces, Army Headquarters, was appointed Secretary.

Dr. Zia-ud-Din being unable to serve on the Committee throughout its deliberations, owing to his absence in Europe, Dr. Hyder, D.Sc., C.I.E., M.L.A., was appointed in his place.

The Committee held preliminary meetings in Simla on 10th and 11th June, to settle the procedure to be adopted in pursuing their inquiries. They then adjourned till late August, but as two members were then still engaged upon the Reforms Inquiry Committee a further adjournment till November was made. The Committee met in Delhi on 10th November and sat daily till 22nd of that month, by when they completed their investigations. They then adjourned till the end of January, with the intention of meeting then for the consideration and adoption of their report, which was published in February.

TAXATION INQUIRY COMMITTEE

The question of instituting a scientific inquiry into the system of Indian taxation has recently attracted considerable attention in India and has on more than one occasion been discussed in the Indian Legislature. The first annual conference of Provincial Finance Members with the Finance Department of the Government of India, held in November 1923, agreed to the desirability of such an inquiry and to the general lines on which it should proceed and the Government of India accordingly in May 1924, issued a Resolution announcing the formation of the following Committee for the purpose —

Sir Charles Todhunter KCSI, ICS till recently Finance Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Madras (Chairman)

Sir Percy Thompson KBE, Deputy Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue in England

Sir Bijay Chand Mahtab, GCSI, ICS Maharajahdhipaji, Bahadur of Baidwaz, and

Dr R. P. Paranjpye, Professor of Ferguson College, Poona

Dr L. K. Hyder, Professor of Economics at Aligarh University, was subsequently added to strengthen the expert side of the Committee, and

The Hon. Sirdar Jogendra Singh, Member of the Council of State, was added to strengthen the representation of agricultural interests; a discussion in this direction having been raised by him in the Council of State after the first announcement of personnel.

Mr W. B. Brett ICS, was appointed secretary.

The following were notified to be the terms of reference to the Committee —

- (1) To examine the manner in which the burden of taxation is distributed at present between the different classes of the population,
- (2) To consider whether the whole scheme of taxation—Central, Provincial and Local—is equitable and in accordance with economic principles and if not in what respects it is defective,
- (3) To report on the suitability of alternative sources of taxation,
- (4) To advise as to the machinery required for the imposition, assessment and collection of taxes old and new,
- (5) To prepare rough estimates of the financial effects of the proposals.

Government in their Resolution announcing the institution of the inquiry stated, 'The motive for the appointment of the Committee is not any need for meeting additional expenditure or any intention to increase the total amount raised by taxation in India. The necessity for the inquiry arises largely from the effect produced by the war on the general level of prices and of expenditure and consequently on the incidence of taxation in its existing forms.'

The problems arising therefrom are common to many countries, but in India the changes which have been made since the war in the relations between the central and provincial Governments and the development of self government furnish special reasons for a study of the subject of taxation in general and for the examination of alternative sources from which to raise the money to meet the expenditure which has necessarily to be incurred by the various taxing authorities at the present time."

The intention of Government to appoint the Committee was announced in the Council of State on 4th February 1924 when the proposal was subjected to useful criticism and some hon. members on the unofficial benches urged Government also or alternatively to institute a general economic inquiry. An official resolution for the suspension of the Inquiry was moved in the Legislative Assembly in September, six months after the House had passed the Budget vote for the first year's expenses of the Inquiry and four months after the Chairman of the Committee had in association with Sir Percy Thompson, initiated its actual work by inquiries in Europe. Its supporters demanded instead of this inquiry a general economic inquiry. Government pointed out that the latter would take many years to complete on useful lines and would almost certainly have to be conducted by Provincial Governments while the Taxation Inquiry was an immediate need for immediate purposes. The resolution was nevertheless carried.

The second annual conference between Provincial Finance Members and the Finance Department of the Government of India took place in Delhi in November and information was, after its conclusion, published to the effect that as a result of a discussion at the Conference in conjunction with Sir Charles Todhunter, the Finance Member of the Government of India had secured general approval of a suggestion to issue to the Taxation Inquiry Committee a further direction that they should consider and recommend lines on which an economic inquiry, following their own inquiry, might be instituted.

The Committee was at the end of the year on tour in the course of its investigations

INDIAN BAR COMMITTEE

A Committee was constituted by the Government of India on 7th December 1923, to examine and report on—

- (1) the proposals made from time to time for constituting an Indian bar, whether on an all India or a Provincial

basis, with particular reference to the constitution, statutory recognition, functions and authority of a Bar Council or Bar Councils and their position vis-a-vis High Courts,

(F) the extent to which it may be desirable to remove existing distinctions enforced by statute or practice between barristers and vakils, and to make recommendations

The constitution of the Committee was as follows—

Sir E. M. des C. Chamier, Kt., Barrister-at-law, Legal Adviser and Solicitor to the Secretary of State and late Chief Justice of the High Court of Judicature at Patna (President)

The Hon. Mr Justice V. M. Countess Trotter, Barrister-at-law, Judge of the High Court, Madras.

The Hon. Mr Justice Dinshaw Fardunji Mulla, LL.B., Additional Judge of the High Court, Bombay

Mr S. R. Das, Barrister-at-law, Advocate-General, Bengal

Mr H. P. Duval, I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of Bengal, and Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, Bengal.

Colonel Sir Henry Stanyon, Kt., C.I.E., V.D. Barrister-at-law

Rao Bahadur Tiruvankata Rangachariar, Vakil High Court, Madras

Mr Sitaram Sunderrao Patkar, LL.B., Government Pleader, Bombay

Mr M. M. Chatterji, President of the Incorporated Law Society, Calcutta

Mr J. H. Wise, I.C.S., was appointed Secretary

Rai Bahadur Babu Lalit Mohan Banerji, M.A., LL.B., Government Advocate, Allahabad, was later appointed member of the Committee in place of Mr Justice Mulla, who communicated his inability to serve

Previous proposals for the formation of an Indian Bar were embodied in a resolution moved in the Legislative Assembly by Munsifi Iswar Saran on 24th February 1921. These were submitted to the criticism of associations and individuals throughout India and the opinions expressed on them, showing wide divergence of views, were before the Committee. The President of the Committee also, before a meeting of its members, issued a questionnaire dealing with the subject of its investigations. The Committee took a large amount of evidence orally and otherwise

The Committee presented a unanimous report—subject to certain minutes of dissent—in February 1924. It included sweeping recommendations for the removal of distinctions between different classes of practitioners in the High Courts, but announced that as regards the compulsory dual system of advocates and attorneys or vakils in existence in the High Courts of

Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, the views of the Committee were as divided as those of the legal world generally and the division permitted no recommendation for a change of the existing system.

As regards the creation of an Indian Bar, the Committee reported, "We have had little difficulty in coming to the conclusion that it is not practicable to set up an all-India Bar in the sense of a body of legal practitioners admitted to practice and controlled by one central authority for the whole of India. The notion of an all-India Bar has proved attractive to some minds as being in accordance with what is called the national movement. But it is not possible to have an all-India Bar in any real sense unless there is to be throughout India a single type of advocate possessed of the same qualifications and entitled to practice in all the courts of the Country. It might perhaps be possible to secure uniformity in the three Presidencies, but our inquiries in the different places which we visited have satisfied us that elsewhere this would not be possible. The tendency is for the Presidencies and Provinces to develop on their own lines, education is more advanced in some than in others and the same degree of proficiency cannot at present be attained or insisted on throughout India."

The Committee point out that no institution corresponding to an all-India Council with definite powers of control is to be found in any other part of the Empire. They further say—

"While we are of opinion that the establishment of an all-India Bar or all-India Council is not practicable we think that the time has come when the bars attached to some of the High Courts should be accorded a measure of self-government. We regret to say that the result of our inquiries is not such as to enable us to feel confident that Councils at all the High Courts would at present be able to make the best use of the powers which witnesses have suggested should be conferred upon them. Many who expressed themselves in favour of wholly independent Bar Councils in India with final disciplinary authority have done so in ignorance of the fact that they are advocating an institution which is almost without parallel in the Empire or the United States of America."

The Committee for the present recommend the establishment of statutory Bar Councils, appointed in ways they detail and invested with powers that they suggest, at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Patna and Rangoon and that provision be made for setting up others at Lahore, Nagpur, Karachi and Lucknow when experience has been gained of the working of the Councils at the other centres indicated.

The Government of India have published the report for information and public criticism before forming their own final conclusions.

COAL INDUSTRY COMMITTEE.

The Legislative Assembly on 15th March 1924, after considerable debate adopted a resolution moved by a Bengal unopposed member recommending the imposition of a countervailing duty

on South African coal imported into India. The recommendation was based on the need to protect the Indian coal mining industry. The Government of India decided to refer to the

Tariff Board for investigation the question whether the Indian coal trade is in need of protection either against coal from South Africa or against imports of overseas coal generally and if so whether, having regard to all the interests concerned, protection should be accorded to it

Imports of coal into India are relatively small and are steadily diminishing in quantity. The average production of coal in India during the three years preceding the adoption of the Assembly resolution was about 19 million tons per annum and imports during the same period were respectively (in thousands of tons) 1,489, 882 and 592. Returns for the succeeding months continued to show a decline in imports. Exports of Indian coal overseas simultaneously contracted. The statistics indicate that the competition from which the Indian coal industry is suffering is not so much in its home market as in overseas markets, such as Colombo and Singapore. The Government of India, therefore, decided to appoint an expert committee representative of the interests concerned, to consider this side of the matter and they did so on 30th September 1924, with the following terms of reference—

'To inquire and report—

- (1) generally what measures can be taken by Government, by the coal trade, by the railways and by the ports, whether singly or in combination, to stimulate the export of suitable coal from Calcutta to Indian and foreign ports, and

- (2) in particular, whether effective measures can be taken for the pooling and grading of Indian coal for export and for bunkering and how the cost of such measures should be met."

The Committee is composed as follows—
Mr F Noyce, C.S.I., C.B.E., I.C.S. (President)
The Chief Mining Engineer to the Railway Board

Mr F C Legge, C.B.E., Director of Wagon Interchange

Mr S C Stuart-Williams, Chairman, Calcutta Port Trust

Mr A A F Bray, Chairman, Indian Mining Association

Mr W C Bannerjee, Vice-Chairman, Indian Mining Federation

Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O. of Messrs Martin & Co, Calcutta

The Hon Mr J W A Bell, of Messrs Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co, Calcutta

Mr H P V Townsend, I.C.S., being appointed Secretary

Government, in announcing the appointment of the Committee, stated 'The recommendations of the Committee will necessarily influence the Tariff Board's investigation of the question whether the Indian coal trade is in need of protection. The Government of India, therefore after consulting the Tariff Board, have decided to postpone this reference to the Tariff Board until after the Committee has reported.'

The Committee began its meetings in October and by direction of the Government of India has conducted its main inquiry in Calcutta, subject to visits of inquiry to other ports. Its proceedings still continue at the end of the year

The Calendars.

A full Calendar will be found at the beginning of this book. Below are given details of the other Calendars in use in India.

The *Jewish* Calendar is in accordance with the system arranged A.D. 358. The Calendar dates from the Creation, which is fixed as 3,760 years and 8 months before the beginning of the Christian Era, the year is Luni solar.

The *Mohammedan*, or era of the Hejira, dates from the day after Mahomet's flight from Mecca, which occurred on the night of July 12, 622 A.D. The months are Lunar.

The *Farsi* year was derived from a combination of the Hejira and Samvat years by the order of Akbar. It is Luni-solar. The *Bengali* year seems also to have been related at one time to the Hejira, but the fact of its being Solar made it lose 11 days each year.

The *Samvat* era dates from 57 B.C., and is Luni-solar. The months are divided into two fortnights—*sudi*, or bright, and *badhi*, or dark. Each fortnight contains 15 tithis, which furnish the dates of the civil days given in our calendars.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS IN 1925.

Parsee (Shehenshahi)

Jamshedi Naoroz	March	21
Avan Jashan	April	16
Adar Jashan	May	15
Zarthost no-Diso	June	16
Gatha Gahambars	September	7
Parsi New Year	"	8 & 9
Khordad Sal	"	14

Parsee (Kadmi)

Avan Jashan	March	17
Jamshedi Naoroz	"	21
Adar Jashan	April	15
Gatha Gahambars	August	7 & 8
New Year (2nd day)	"	10
Khordad Sal	"	15

Mahomedan (Sunni).

Shab e-Barat	March	10
Ramsan-Id	April	25
Bakri-Id	July	2
Muharram	"	31
Ashura	August	1
Barawafat	October	1
Mahim Fair	December	1

Mahomedan (Shiah)

Shahadat-e-Husrat Ali	April	15
Ramsan-Id	"	25
Bakri Id	July	2
Muharram	"	31
Ashura	August	1
Shahadat-e-Imam Hassan	September	16
Barawafat	October	1
Id-e-Maulud	"	16

Hindu

Makar Sankranti	January	14
Maha Shivratri	February	21
Holi (2nd Day)	March	11
Ramnavmi	April	2
Cocosant Day	August	4
Gokul Ashtami	"	12
Ganesh Chaturthi and Samvatsari	"	23
Dussehra	September	27
Divali	October	15
	"	16
	"	17

Jewish.

Pesach	April	9
"	"	15
Shabuoeth	May	29
Tishabael	July	30
Rosh Hoshana (1st day)	September	19
Kippur (2nd day)	"	23
Sukkoth (1st day)	October	3

Jain.

Chaitra Sud 15	April	9
Shravan Vad 13 to Bhadarva Sud 3	August	17
	"	18
	"	19
	"	20
	"	21
	"	22
Pajushan Bhadarva Sud 5	"	24
Kartik Sud 15	October	31

Christian

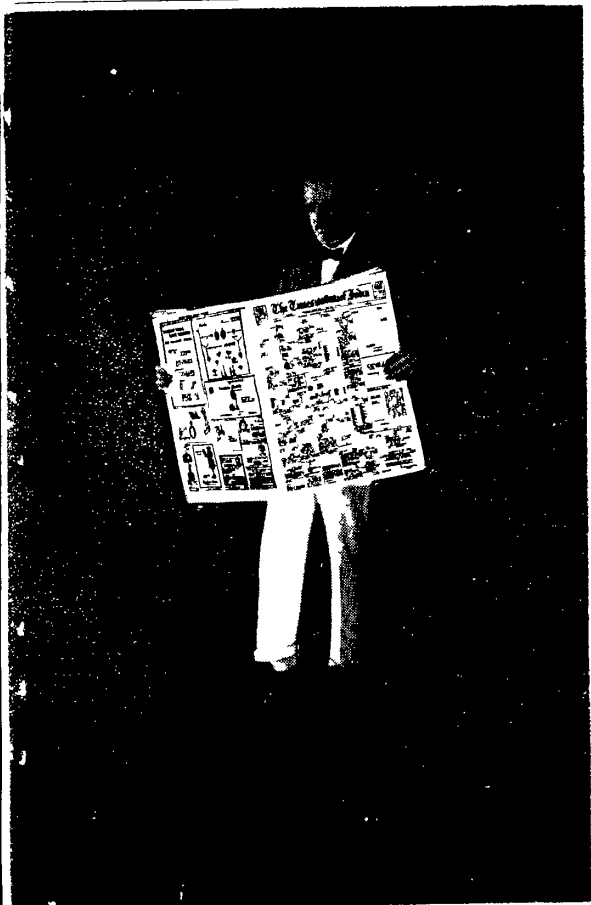
New Year	January	1 & 2
Good Friday	April	10
Easter	"	11 & 18
Christmas	December	24
	"	25
	"	26
	"	28
	"	29
	"	30

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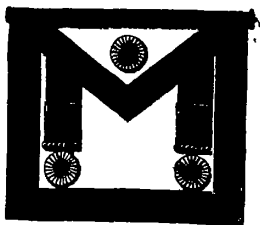
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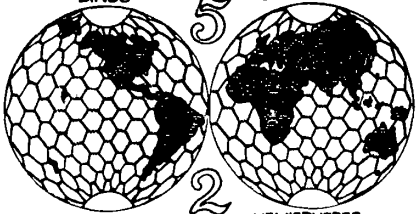
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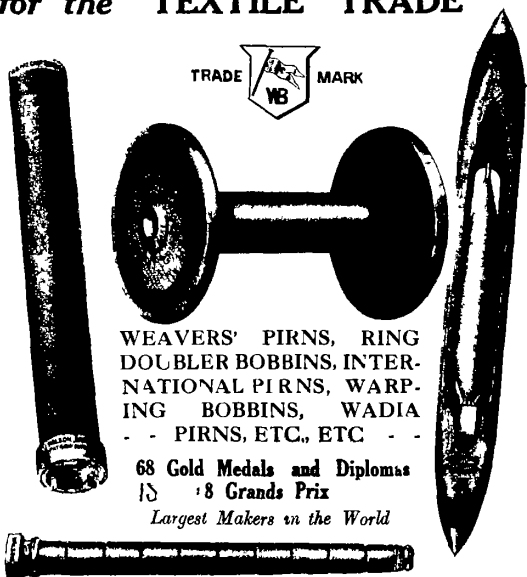
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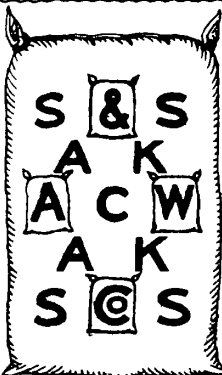
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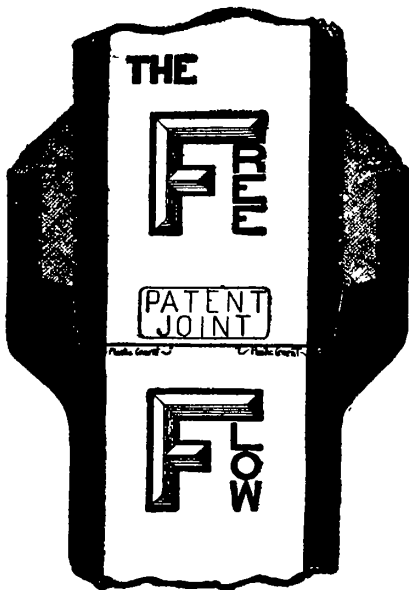
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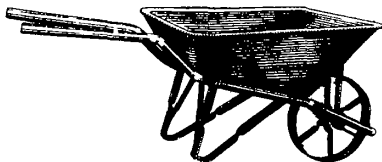
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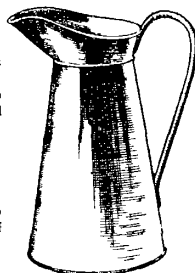
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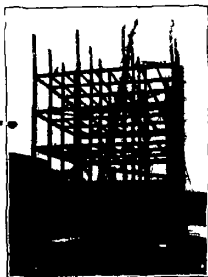
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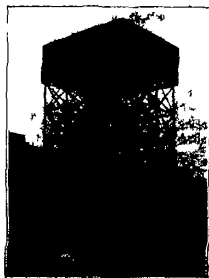
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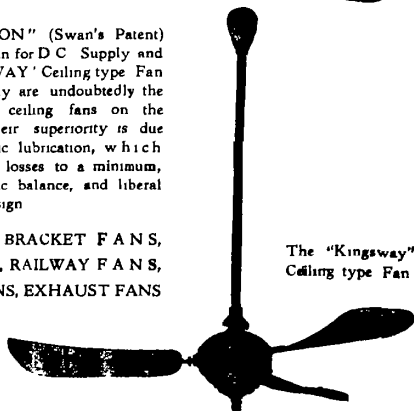
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